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JOURNALISM EDUCATION IN UKRAINE ACCORDING TO JOURNALISTS

PERCEPTIONS (2015-2018): A BRIDGE TOO FAR?

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Since the 1960s, there has been an ongoing debate about what was relevant preparation in universities for professional journalists. As Weibull points out, the early *university programs*, for instance, were often regarded as too theoretical, not focusing on the practical needs of the craft. The ideal stated, but seldom agreed upon in practice, was *an integrated model* that combined theoretical and practical knowledge (Weibull, 2009:76).

Speaking about the state of journalism education nowadays, its crisis has been announced so far by many researchers worldwide, and educators and media experts continue to argue about the balance between a theory and a practice in journalism educational process across the globe (Anderson, 2014; Banda, 2015; Buskirk, 2010; Demchenko, 2018; Fedchenko, 2007; Folkerts, 2014; Holubev, 2016; Kutovenko, 2016; NGO Detector media, 2018; NGO Telekrytyka, 2016; Wall, 2015; Weibull, 2009 etc.).

Thus, discussion, whether or not journalism education meets qualifications and demands of a profession, surfaces regularly (Hromadske radio, 2018; Lewis, 2016; Mullin, 2017; NGO Detector media, 2018). Also, the sustainability of journalism education itself is considered and disputed (Vukić, 2019) as a very significant component of professionalism. Heated disputes in terms of students' preparation come to a conclusion that nowadays educational approaches should be reformed and address 21-century skills, as fundamental changes and challenges have occurred in the professional field (Goodman, & Steyn, 2017; WJEC, 2016; WJEC, 2019).

Meanwhile, journalism departments, colleges, and schools of journalism are changing – some slowly, some more quickly (Folkerts, 2014:284). Still, the question remains open as to whether educators should educate for journalism as it is or for journalism as we would want it to be (Drok, 2013:1).

University-based journalism education began in the United States, as Becker wrote. In the early twentieth century, Kansas State University began to teach printing, and then English

departments started offering courses in basic writing and reporting skills for print journalism. Later, in 1908, the University of Missouri-Columbia established the first school of journalism. Becker noted that during the 1970s journalism programs at U.S. universities started to expand their curricula offerings to include instruction for careers *in public relations and advertising* (Becker, 2008). The origin of a university journalism education in Europe dates back to 1916 after the foundation of the Institut for Zeitungskunde (Institute for Newspaper Research) at the University of Leipzig (Barrera & Harnischmacher, 2020:370) and Publizistick (Journalism) at German universities (Löblich, 2007:70).

As for Ukraine, the preparation of journalists began in 1925. During the Soviet era (1923 – 1991) there were only three institutions of higher education that had journalism programs in Ukraine, namely Kyiv University, Lviv University, and the Lviv Higher Military and Political School. They functioned within philological departments.

The main task of journalists during that time was to be an observer of the Communist Party and report about its achievements. An easy way to fulfill this task was to find heroes who were examples of the “correct Communist strategy” of that time and to describe the party’s “success story” with the help of attractive and simple words. As a result, the journalist was a person who had a talent in writing and very often shared the Communist Party’s ideology (Zdorovega, 2000:47). Editors-in-chief and managers were trained separately at Communist Party schools (Zdorovega, 2000:22). Thus, as Gross points out, journalism education under the Communist system was defined as political education and it was coupled with propagandistic techniques that were used in both print and broadcast media (Gross, 1999: 149).

Currently, journalism in Ukraine is taught in fifty-eight institutions of higher education (IsHE) (Appendix 3) and there are two ways to receive journalism education in Ukraine so far: a formal and a non-formal. By a formal journalism education bachelor and/or master programs in journalism in the universities, which are rather absolutely regulated by Ukrainian state or have some autonomy are understood. By a non-formal journalism education, it’s understood various

journalism educational programs usually conducted in a non-institutionalized environment and supported mostly by foreign NGOs or national mass media are meant.

Unfortunately, throughout Ukrainian independence since 1991, the system of teaching students at journalism departments has not been cardinally changed (Dachkovska, 2016; NGO Detector media, 2016; NGO Detector media, 2018) and many Ukrainian journalists have entered the profession with little or even inappropriate training (Vannay, 2016). The problems of formal journalism education are the old problems inherited from the Soviet Union, though pro-western trends, such as J-schools with teaching hospital practices (teaching by doing) have been implemented by some Ukrainian universities or are partly implementing by some lecturers at departments of journalism in Ukraine (Holubev, 2016; Kutovenko, 2016). Thus, the quality of students' preparation at Ukrainian journalism departments was always sharply criticized by national media experts and media employers, crediting journalism departments with doing a bad job (Demchenko, 2018; NGO Detector media, 2016; NGO Detector media, 2018; Dovzhenko, 2015; Kutovenko, 2016).

As national studies evidence, Ukrainian departments of journalism do not react immediately on new tendencies of the profession and do not improve/change educational process appropriately to journalism competences and qualifications (Demchenko & Zubchenko, 2016; Holubev, 2016; Kutovenko, 2016; Kvit, 2016; NGO Detector media, 2016; NGO Detector media, 2018 and others).

Contrary, Ukrainian educators state that it is not an easy task to understand what competencies and qualifications are demanded by the Ukrainian media market, because the professional reality very often does not match the professional standards (Demchenko, 2018). For instance, the course of ethics is obligatory in the curriculum at journalism departments worldwide, though not all the professional standards and ethical principles are kept up by journalists (WJEC, 2013; Telekritika, 2020). And here is a deadlock: educators teach their students to follow all ethical standards in a journalist profession, though not all journalists share

this point of view and professionally behave accordingly (Kutovenko, 2016). Also, it is problematic for journalism educators to decide what subjects to include in curricula because of shifting understandings of what constitutes journalism (Lewis & Carlson, 2015).

As a result, as annual reports of World Press Freedom Index confirm, the situation of adherence to professional standards of a journalist profession is unsatisfactory in many countries, especially those which were in a Soviet bloc (Reporters Without Borders, 2010; 2013; 2018), and Ukraine is in this list, too. Under this circumstance, the graduates of journalism departments and school of journalism face a dilemma: whether to work in terms of the professional paradigm as it is or change it for the better to follow professional standards (Kutovenko, 2016).

There is no doubt that those journalists, who understand the responsibility of their work and realize that there is also a moral crisis in the profession of a journalist, do support the idea of adjustments not only in the educational but also in the professional field. Still, there should be the starting point of shared understanding not only the rules but definitions of a working field. For instance, educators and representatives of media market while arguing about journalism should have a common understanding of what journalism is (for instance, the profession with a high level of responsibility and consequences of the work which influence people's lives) and is not (in particular, PR, advertisement, propaganda).

Meanwhile, the definition of a journalist profession has been blurred during the last fifteen years (Newman, 2018), and it has been labeled as: "semi-profession" (Nygren & Witschge, 2009:39), "a craft" (Willing, 2016:45), "an open profession and also an option for people who do not have any journalistic education" (Szot, 2009:471); "trade rather than a profession" (Frost, 2017:202), etc. Also, a journalistic professional field has been influenced by many changes: convergence of the media, digitalization of newsrooms, creating and spreading media content with the help of social networking sites (Deuze, 2006; Papathanassopoulos, 2009; Wallace, 2013). To add more, new technologies proposed by Google, Yahoo!, Apple, Facebook, Twitter defined the development of the news industry and media production (Buskirk, 2010).

As a result, the changes in the patterns of *both the production and the consumption of media* brought about in the last fifteen years by the application of new technologies and by economic circumstance have been profound. There are some of them: the insinuation into journalism of marketing and public relations influences (Anderson, 2014), the cult of celebrity and the tabloidization of media (Cobden, 2010:3), commercialization and the growing relevance of online communication (Frohlich & Holtz-Bacha, 2009:143); noxious data mining for the purpose of massive manipulation and destabilization (Frau-Meigs, 2017). Moreover, social media and social networks, as Hamada writes, on the one hand, helped in producing media content, but on the other, with their help misinformation and fake news are spread (Hamada, 2018:38).

All the mentioned above aspects challenged skills and knowledge taught at journalism departments and applied in the profession. This tendency has already been researched by many scientists all over the world, for instance: The Swedish Journalists project, Asp, 2008; World of Journalism project, Hanitzsch, et al., 2010; Journalism in Change project, Anikina, Dobek-Ostrowska, Hok, and Nygren, 2011-2014; The complexities of convergence: Multiskilled journalists working in BBC regional multimedia newsrooms, Wallace, 2013; Social Media: A Turning Point into Global Journalism Identity and Ethics, Hamada, 2018, etc.

With pluses or minuses, the digitalized era has indeed widened the possibilities in the profession of a journalist, bringing new devices and platforms into the professional field. Thus, as Pinto and Marinho underlined, digital technology and new types of multimedia learning made educators and representatives of media market rethink preparation of students at journalism departments (Pinto & Marinho, 2009:315), as new circumstances have provoked new debates in terms of the educational process at journalism departments and schools of journalism in many countries (WJEC, 2019).

Information war (Giles, 2015; Thomas, 2016) which is called by some scientists as a disinformation war (for example, Pocheptsov, 2017:74), fakes and Russian propaganda added

more difficulties to journalistic professional and educational fields, too (Fedchenko, 2016). Thus, journalists today in their daily work pay more attention to a fact-checking technique; because everything can be easily misleading (Ireton & Posetti, 2018). This professional skill demands profound technical knowledge and a high level of critical thinking (Benedetti, Currie & Kierans, 2010; Newman, 2019) that have to be definitely taught at journalism departments.

Also, as Papathanassopoulos pointed out, journalism education should take into account the changes in society, in the economy as well as in the journalism profession too, with the rise of online news, internet and citizen journalism (Papathanassopoulos, 2009).

It is clear, taking into account all the mentioned facts above, that the profession of a journalist has changed and will be further changing under many factors, but problems with professional standards, transparency, and media ownership remain (Brogi et al., 2018). The mentioned information gives food for thought both for journalists and educators all over the world because they are two parts of the whole.

As Ukrainian journalism education yet to be looking for ways to find a national vision on how to teach successful media professionals (Sirinyok-Dolgaryova, 2016) and Ukrainian media employers are not satisfied with the level and quality of skills received by Ukrainian graduates of journalism departments (Demchenko, 2018), there is a need for further research to contribute to its' improvement.

Statement of purpose

Thus, the aim of this study is to look for the main features of Ukrainian journalism education. That is why this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the main features of a formal journalism education in Ukraine according to Ukrainian journalists?

RQ 2: What are the main features of a non- formal journalism education in Ukraine according to Ukrainian journalists?

RQ 3: What type of journalism education in Ukraine – a formal or a non-formal – is better regarded by Ukrainian journalists, and why?

Scope of the study

Journalism education includes different stakeholders, such as educators, students, graduates, journalists, the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, NGOs, and mass media which propose in-company education for journalists.

In this research journalists are our target group in order to receive information and with the help of their answers to evaluate Ukrainian journalism education. To our mind, journalists are those players of educational process who can frankly describe outcomes and competencies which they receive after graduation from journalism departments or/and after non-formal educational courses and speak about their advantages and disadvantages. What skills and knowledge journalists have when entering a professional field and what they lack will represent the main features of Ukrainian journalism education.

Based on Ukrainian journalists' and graduates' answers, the data will be received in terms of the determined research area. The results will be described in accordance with qualitative analysis.

Epistemological Assumptions and Methodology

With the help of constructivism theory and interpretive approach (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Williamson, 2006) this research will provide data and its results in terms of the journalism education in Ukraine.

Interpretive philosophy embraces an inductive style of reasoning and emphasizes qualitative data. As people are constantly involved in interpreting their world (Williamson, 2006:84) their answers are used to confirm their experience. For this purpose, qualitative research is applied. Qualitative research is interested in different senses of knowledge (behavior, interaction, meanings, personal narratives, etc.), it opens up new perspectives on what is known or unknown (Vasilachis de Gialdino, 2009).

In this study journalists' experience and its' interpretation is under research. It depends on the individualist perspective on Ukrainian journalism education and how it works in practice. With the help of journalists' answers, it will be clarified what features Ukrainian journalism education has and how knowledge received helps Ukrainian journalists in their profession.

For this purpose, ten focus groups comprised of ninety-two Ukrainian journalists were conducted during 2015-2018. Fifty-four journalists with a formal journalism preparation and thirty-eight journalists without a degree in journalism took part in focus groups. Focus groups or group discussions (Flick, 2009) or group depth interviews (Marczak & Sewell, 2011) is a method of qualitative research. It consists of discussions within a group of people who are asked about their opinions, attitudes, and experience in terms of a particular topic. This method, as Kitzinger outlines, is particularly useful for exploring people's knowledge and experiences and can be used to examine not only what people think but how they think and why they think that way (Kitzinger, 1995:299).

As for the data analysis procedure, Williamson notes that there is no strict set of rules on how to analyze qualitative data (Williamson, 2006:88). It can be coded manually or with the help of computer programs, for example - e.g., ATLAS. Ti, NUDTST, MAXqda (Flick, 2009:459).

In this research, all the focus groups were encoded and transcribed. The content analysis of focus groups' answers was used. Each text of focus group discussions was printed and carefully read and re-read. Common codes were found and organized into categories. They were described in the findings section and supported by interpretive citations of the participants.

Theoretical Implication

Little is researched about journalism education in Ukraine in terms of first-hand data. Thus, this research is going to fill this empirical gap by gathering, analyzing and summarizing data about features of journalism education in Ukraine. It also contributes to the international discourse and media research in former soviet countries.

Limitation of the Study

In terms of this research, there were limitations concerning methodological approach and resources.

The first limitation is connected with methodology and methods used to gather, analyze and describe data in terms of this study. Qualitative methodology was applied here, but it is criticized by many researchers for lower reliability of the interpretation and representation of the participants' narratives. Nevertheless, qualitative research gives the possibility to gather first-hand data and be involved in the discussion as an observer.

As for resource limitation, graduates from eighteen out of fifty-eight Ukrainian departments took part in focus groups because it was financially expensive to visit all the Ukrainian departments. As for journalists, it is rather a complicated mission to organize focus groups with them because their daily work schedule is not fixed and very often it depends on unpredictable events. Nevertheless, the geographical balance of respondents was proportionally maintained.

Thesis Structure

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. Chapter one introduces the research area, provides a statement of purpose and research questions, epistemological assumption and methodology, theoretical implication; outlines the scope and limitations of the study. Chapter two reviews the literature on journalism education across the world and describes different types of teaching journalism practices in terms of classifications of media systems. Chapter three is devoted to the description of a formal and a non-formal Ukrainian journalism education: what origin it has and how/whether it is developing now. Chapter four presents significant facts about the Ukrainian media environment to shed light on problems and challenges journalists in Ukraine face nowadays. Chapter five defines the methodological framework and research methods that were used to collect relevant data to answer research questions. Chapter six introduces the analysis of respondents' answers to the research questions. Common features of Ukrainian education which were identified by Ukrainian journalists are described and supported by citations. In chapter seven data are summarized concerning the main features of Ukrainian journalism education. According to them, some recommendations to improve the situation within Ukrainian journalism education as well as suggestions for future research are discussed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

To start with, it is important to review the existing literature on journalists' preparation to understand teaching practices in journalism across the globe and trends in journalism educational process. Thus, in this chapter I trace the history of journalism education under different classifications: in terms of media systems, institutional teaching models and initiatives of The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). Also, skills and competencies agreed by educators and media market which one should possess in order to become a journalist are observed.

This information was taken into account when composing questions for focus group discussions.

2.1. Journalism and journalism education under different media systems. Introduction

According to Barrera and Harnischmacher, at the end of the nineteenth century, learning by system doing was assumed to be the most efficient way to practice journalism. As authors go on, in many countries, such as Great Britain, France, and Germany, trade unions, employers' associations, and publishers regulated access to the profession and most reporters were recruited directly by editors. Meanwhile, on the other side of the Atlantic Ocean, journalism schools were being established at universities to train journalists. At the beginning of the twentieth century, academic training had become the most common way to become a journalist in the United States. However, in Europe university journalism preparation was developed in the last third of the twentieth century even if the journalism research was developed on the German Universities since the beginning of the XXth century (Barrera & Harnischmacher, 2020: 367-368).

Nowadays American style of journalism education is praised by many researchers, experts, and journalists all over the world. Meanwhile, not all countries which extol American

journalism education can ideally implement it in the professional field in terms of indigenous values and historical background of each nation (WJEC, 2016).

Indeed, the historical background of journalism development affects the educational system and teaching practices at journalism departments. As journalism co-exists within a definite political regime, it predicts circumstances of professional and educational environments. Comparative media research provided vivid examples of such a correlation proposing classifications of media systems according to relationships between media and politics (Hallin & Mancini, 2004), though many scholars argued against their applicability (Jakubowicz, 2010). Nevertheless, all of them were very important for theorists and practitioners because they had proposed a theoretical framework for many researchers in media studies.

For instance, in a classical work about division of world's media systems *Four Theories of the Press* written in 1963 by Siebert, Peterson and Schramm, four models of the press in accordance with political regimes were proposed: libertarian (the media express freely any points of view), socially responsible (the media include all segments of a society and defend their rights), authoritarian (the media are controlled by the state) and Soviet (the media support the Marxist – Leninist view of reality) (Siebert, Peterson & Schramm, 1963:13).

Forty years later, Hallin and Mancini offered their alternative comparison of media system, stressing on the idea that countries organized into one media model may differ greatly in terms of political regimes and practices. Taking into account political systems in 18 countries of Western Europe and North America, they proposed three models of media - the Liberal Model, the Democratic Corporatist Model and the Polarized Pluralist Model (Hallin & Mancini, 2004).

In 2006 Deuze described five types of institutional journalism education in the world: 1) a model of training at schools and institutes generally located at universities (Finland, Spain, USA, Canada, Great Britain, Australia, South Korea, Egypt, Kenya, Argentina); 2) a mixed model of stand-alone and university-level training (France, Germany, India, Indonesia, China, Brazil, Turkey, South Africa); 3) a model of journalism education at stand-alone schools (The

Netherlands, Denmark, Italy); 4) a model of on-the-job training by the media industry (Austria, Japan, Great Britain, Australia); 5) all of the models above, as well as training by media companies, publishers, trade unions, and other private or government institutions (Eastern Europe, Cuba, North and Central Africa, the Middle East) (Deuze, 2006: 22).

Later, in 2009 scientists and researchers from different countries presented a book *European Journalism Education (ed.by Terzis G.)*, in which they distinguished media systems of European countries into four groups according to their historical, geographical and media environment similarities: the North Atlantic/Liberal Media Model Countries, the Northern European/Democratic Corporatist Media Model Countries, the Mediterranean/Polarized Pluralist Media Model Countries and the Eastern European/Post-Communist Media Model Countries (Terzis, 2009).

In 2012 Hallin and Mancini published a book *Comparing Media Systems Beyond the Western World* in which a group of scholars proposed analyses of media systems outside Western Europe and North America. Researchers from Poland, the Baltic countries, Israel, Russia, China, Brazil, and South Africa described peculiarities of their media systems and tried to explain how approaches proposed by Hallin and Mancini in 2004 can be applied in the mentioned above countries (Hallin & Mancini, 2012).

As a separate classification, the Nordic model was described in 2016 in a book *Becoming a Journalist. Journalism Education in the Nordic Countries* (Hovden, Nygren & Zilliacus-Tikkanen, 2016). According to authors who gathered and described data, “the Nordic model is a separate model due to great similarities in the Nordic countries and their history, which has led to similar political and media systems, systems of professional journalism and education” (Hovden, Nygren & Zilliacus-Tikkanen, 2016:11).

Another classification of journalism education was described by Clark in 2016. It was called institutional teaching models. He proposed six models of American journalists’ preparation. The first one is a university and college model which consists of the Missouri Model

with its laboratory approach of teaching the art and craft of journalism, plus the Wisconsin Model with a social science approach and the Columbia Model with a liberal arts hybrid approach. The second one is an accreditation model when a journalism program is successfully reviewed, for instance, by Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications, adopts an accredited structured journalism curriculum. The BBC model is the model of media institutions with one-year quality training. It is put into practice by many state-owned media organizations, mostly in Europe and Africa, as Clark underlines. The fourth is the specialization model of journalism, for example, Syracuse University of Sports Journalism. The fifth is the hospital teaching model that advocates teaching on practice. The last one proposed by Clark is the Toronto model worked out for people from non-journalism professional fields who want to become a journalist. It does not, however, confer a degree in journalism, but offers a certificate in global journalism (Clark, 2016:1-5).

Being criticized or supported, all the media and journalism models give food for further comparative media system researches to understand globalization processes of the media landscape and educational field (Jakubowicz, 2010). Moreover, the mentioned above media researches illustrate that journalism as a profession does not grow in a vacuum (Papathanassopoulos, 2009:222) within one country, and so does journalism education. For instance, the theory of the information society concept, proposed by Manuel Castells, describes how new information and communication technologies influence contemporary world (Castells, 2000). Thus, the boundaries of media system classifications are blurred. Nevertheless, media systems within one classification may differ because of cultural peculiarities of a particular country (Nordenstreng, 2009). The same situation is with journalism education.

Meanwhile, one can not miss a lingering Western (U.S. and/or Anglo-American) presence despite an increasingly networked world. Western influence in journalism educational systems is founded on Western models and a prevalence of Western books, teaching materials, and English-language academic and professional journals (Goodman & Steyn, 2017:450).

Speaking about Ukraine, it was not represented in any of the described media system classifications, though it's media, political and educational features belong to one of the oldest theories – the Soviet theory (Siebert, Peterson & Schramm, 1963), and to one of the contemporary ones - the Eastern European/Post-Communist Media Model Countries (Terzis, 2009). The political regime in Ukraine during the Soviet period was ideologically biased and a high level of censorship was set by censors in mass media. Still, the Soviet censorship and censorship in an independent Ukraine are far from being identical. First and foremost, they differ over the tasks set by the totalitarian Soviet regime and by semi-authoritarian Ukrainian state based not on ideology but on a leader's personality (Gumeniuk, 2007:6). As Ukraine is a post-communist country, it is still getting rid of a soviet heritage in all spheres. So does the whole educational system which, as Ukrainian media experts underline, very often has nothing common with real life and demands of a labor market (Holubev, 2016; Hromadske radio, 2018).

Let us now briefly observe the peculiarities of a journalist profession and a journalism education in European countries and North American in order to detect common and distinctive features. Journalism education of these continents is in our focus because Ukrainian journalism education is trying so far to implement their best teaching practices (Demchenko, 2018).

2.2. The Northern European/Democratic Corporatist media model (DCMM)

Northern and some Central European countries (the Nordic countries Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, Germany, Austria and Switzerland, Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands) belong to the Democratic Corporatist media model (DCMM), as Hallin and Mancini identified in 2004. These countries are all strongly urbanized and most of them have a long industry tradition. However, they differ significantly in size – from more than 80 million inhabitants in Germany to less than half a million in Iceland – and in their cultural and political heritage (Weibull, 2009:72). This media model is characterized by a strong public service of

radio and television, as well as strong daily press with many small local newspapers (Hallin & Mancini, 2004: 24).

During the early twentieth century journalists from these countries had organized themselves into professional organizations or unions, as in the Netherlands and Sweden. Most of these organizations became very strong. These professional organizations formed the basis of a journalistic autonomy that is normally called professionalization, which meant for an independent, unpartisan journalism. This striving is also one of the most common points of departure for the ideas of journalism education. However, when comparing the development of journalist education, it is important also to consider the differences between the countries of the Democratic Corporate Media Model. For instance, the Scandinavian group of countries shows great similarities in media and education traditions but is very different from the development in the Netherlands and Belgium, where religion has had a greater influence on social and cultural development (Weibull, 2009:73-74).

During the first decades of the twentieth century in-house schooling was still the only way for a person to get into a career in journalism. However, as Weibull writes, this lack of a formal journalism education did not prevent the development of journalism as an area for academic scrutiny. For example, the German journalism (*Zeitungswissenschaft*) represented the new field and soon had followers in Scandinavia, especially in Finland where the subject was introduced at a Civic College in Helsinki in 1925. As Weibull goes on, the introduction of journalism as a field of study meant an increased awareness of its importance. Even though the new subject was mainly based in departments of political or economic studies, these also sometimes offered specialized courses aimed at students interested in the field. But there were also, in this period, some initiatives from journalist associations, e.g. in Austria, Belgium and Sweden, to start vocational courses, but those were not part of a formal education (Weibull, 2009: 74).

Currently in all of the mentioned above countries which belong to this media model classification, journalism education is taught at universities, in colleges, in private school, at polytechnics universities. Also, there are vocational and internship programs (Integrated Journalism in Europe, 2014).

In Northern Europe, formal journalism education in most countries is a product of the post-war era, especially of the 1950s and 1960s, when there was an explosion of new departments or schools (Weibull, 2009: 74). In Norway journalism education started in 1965 from a press-governed journalism school. In Finland, short courses for journalists were introduced in 1925 at the Civic College in Helsinki. Today, journalism programmes in Finland are located at three universities and a few polytechnics. The University of Iceland started offering a one-year study in practical communication in 1987, which became a two-year master's degree in journalism in 2004 (Hovden, Nygren & Zilliacus-Tikkanen, 2016:14-15).

In Germany, for example, currently formal university education is heterogeneous: journalism programs, in addition to classical universities, are also offered by the so-called universities of applied sciences (Fachhochschule). It is also taught by private journalism schools, often founded by media companies. Also, an 18-month internship (Volontariat) in certain media is popular (Budivska, 2016). In the Netherlands, for instance, journalism is not the subject you can study at university, since it requires practical skills. In the first two academic years of study, students attend basic journalistic courses, each of them consisting of 10 weeks. There are also courses on international relations, history of Netherlands, blogging. Students are free to choose the specialization. Third and fourth years are completely different: they include two internships of three months each, freelance course and graduating. Master's program is more theoretical. Practical journalism as a craft can be studied only at bachelor's program (Pidubna, 2016 b).

Along with traditional university education there are a lot of vocational programs based in new university colleges of applied science (Salokangas, 2009).

2.3. The North Atlantic/ Liberal Media Model Countries (LMMC)

The UK, Ireland, USA, and Canada belong to the liberal media model, as Hallin and Mancini wrote in their book *Comparing Media Systems: Three Models of Media and Politics* (Hallin & Mancini, 2004). In this model, journalists act on behalf of the public at large, monitoring power through the reporting of facts (Bromley, 2009: 30). Also, liberal media model is characterized by commercialization, political parallelism, and professionalism among journalists (Hallin & Mancini, 2004). One outstanding feature of journalistic professionalism in liberal media model countries has been the progressive reliance over the twentieth century for its formation on higher education (Deuze, 2006:4). Formal journalism education developed relatively hesitantly in liberal systems – earlier, more rapidly and more comprehensively in the United States; later, more slowly and more patchily in Canada, Ireland and the United Kingdom (Bromley, 2009: 27).

The idea of achieving better journalism by giving journalists a college or university education was born in the United States in the second half of the nineteenth century (Weaver, cited in Josephi, 2009:43). For much of the twentieth century, the United States was the main site to provide journalism as a tertiary study. Only in the 1980s and 1990s did journalism become accepted as a subject field worldwide, often in new universities. One reason why the United States broke new ground was that the country not only pioneered journalism education but also news journalism (Josephi, 2009:43-44).

In the USA, prominent editors and publishers, as well as media foundations, have played an important role in establishing and shaping journalism education. For example, *New York World* publisher Joseph Pulitzer first proposed funding a school of journalism at Columbia University in 1892 (Johansen et al., 2001:475).

Currently nearly all U.S. journalists are educated in colleges and universities (Willnat & Weaver, cited in Mensing, 2017:224) and there are 480 journalism programs which shapes the

professional orientation of news organizations. Courses in law and ethics are common and often required. Nonprofit organizations are the primary sources for mid-career training, while the news industry provides some internship for early career training and relatively limited mid-career development (Mensing, 2017:224).

Philanthropic organizations are having an increasingly significant influence on U.S. journalism education. They grant millions of dollars every year to universities and related organizations. For instance, The Carnegie Corporation and the John S. and James L. Knight Foundation with the Carnegie-Knight Initiative on the Future of Journalism Education conducted in 2005 and 2011 (Mensing, 2017:228).

In the United Kingdom, according to Frost, formal journalism education outside the workplace was established only around 35 years ago (Frost, 2017: 203). Currently, more than 70 universities and 20 colleges of further education run programs in journalism of various types in UK (Frost, 2017: 199).

Describing journalism programs, Frost writes that there are single honors journalism programs (where students only study modules the journalism department designed or chose to support journalism), while there are a number of combined honors programs (where students double major in two or more subjects). Honors programs in the United Kingdom are three-year undergraduate programs (basically a bachelor's degree). However, students may graduate with an ordinary bachelor's degree if they fail the dissertation or project module. Most programs start the practical modules in their first year with basic news writing and reporting. Their work in this area is then typically developed in the second year, with the addition of some work on production methods for various media. And it is usually finalized in year three with a major project. There are also dozens of postgraduate courses, most of them are training-oriented, designed to teach practical journalism skills to graduates of traditional degree programs (Frost, 2017: 206-208). Employers in the United Kingdom do not demand master's degree. Thereby, students may or may not earn a master's degree (Frost, 2017: 206).

The curricula in journalism of the countries which belong to this media model customarily consist of the following topics: media law, media history, communications, politics, journalism ethics, human rights, international relations, media regulation, and press freedom. Also, courses of data journalism have become very popular in the USA, Canada, Ireland, and UK, increasing each year (Bahareh, 2018).

2.4. The Mediterranean/Polarized Pluralist Media Model (PPMM)

Polarized Pluralist Media Model (PPMM) of Southern Europe countries (France, Cyprus, Greece, Italy, Malta, Portugal, Spain, Turkey), according to Hallin and Mancini (2004) and Hallin and Papathanassopoulos (2002), is characterized by low levels of newspaper circulation, a tradition of advocacy reporting, instrumentalization of privately owned media, politicization of public broadcasting and broadcast regulation and limited development of journalism as an autonomous profession (Papathanassopoulos, 2009:221).

Journalism education in this media model began as early as the 1920s. By and large, until the late 1980s few university departments offered curricula to train students in the practice of journalism. In most cases universities offered courses to examine critically how journalism operates, often from the point of view of sociology or political science (Papathanassopoulos, 2009:224-225).

In Spain, for instance, as Barrera and Harnischmacher point out, the first school of journalism was founded in 1926 (Barrera & Harnischmacher, 2020:37) and the academic training for journalists began in 1958 when the Instituto de Periodismo (Institute of Journalism) was founded at the University of Navarra, a Catholic institution (Barrera, 2010, cited in Barrera & Harnischmacher, 2020:374)

Journalism training in Southern Europe follows a mixed system of university level education, stand-alone schools and on-the-job training. The number of journalism education programs and institutions, both private and public, has grown rapidly since the mid-1980s, and

more and more young journalists nowadays are graduates from the media programs at the universities. However, on-the-job training remains as somewhat of a prerequisite for becoming a journalist (Papathanassopoulos, 2009:225).

As for a balance between theory and practice at journalism departments, the preference in Southern Europe is given to theory. As Papathanassopoulos underlines that educational process in journalism is strongly focused on theory and research, because the tendency in Southern Europe is to believe that journalists must also be well-acquainted with theory because without it, they cannot become good journalists. In a number of cases such as Portugal, Greece and to a certain extent Spain, journalism faculties are overwhelmed by academics coming mainly from other disciplines such as sociology, law, history, philosophy, political science and even arts, while there is an increasing number of on the-job journalists participating as teachers in laboratories and practical courses. Media industry's point of view coincides with teachers, too: "editors are content to hire political science and sociology graduates with passable writing styles, because believe that whatever polishing these graduates need, can be done on the job" (Papathanassopoulos, 2009:225).

As a matter of fact, the overwhelming majority of journalists in Southern Europe are university graduates but not necessarily journalism graduates. In countries like Greece and Italy, for example, all young journalists, regardless of their university qualification, have to be registered with the professional associations and follow their registration requirements (such as exams, professional experience, etc.) (Papathanassopoulos, 2009:226).

2.5. The Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) Countries /Post-Communist Media Model

Within this classification, Central and Eastern Europe countries include 21 states, which, according to Dobek-Ostrowska, appeared amongst the ruins of European post-communist/post-socialist states (Dobek-Ostrowska, 2015:12): Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, Macedonia, Serbia, Montenegro, Russia, Belarus, Moldova, and Ukraine.

After the collapse of communism, most of these countries joined the European Union. Currently Ukraine is a candidate country. As Dobek-Ostrowska underlines, for post-Soviet countries (Ukraine belongs to these countries, too) EU membership is a significant factor. To her opinion, it helps to adopt democratic standards and accommodates the media systems to the models elaborated by the EU (Dobek-Ostrowska, 2015:16).

Journalism and journalism education in Central and Eastern Europe have come a long way, but still have a long way to go in dealing with issues resulting partly from the legacy of the past, and partly from the challenges of the future (Jakubowicz, 2009:355). During the communist era from 1945 to 1991, the mass media were instrumentalized by the communist/socialist elites and leaders to a different degree. For example, the media were strictly controlled by the communist party in the Soviet Union, but also by the communist dictators such as Todor Zhivkov (1954–1989) in Bulgaria and Nicolae Ceaușescu (1967–1989) (Dobek-Ostrowska, 2015:15).

Still, media systems of these 21 countries differ greatly. For instance, The Czech Republic, Poland, Slovakia, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania have the highest democratic standards and a weak/or weaker politicization than in other countries, though escapism from public trust is determined (Dobek-Ostrowska, 2015:26). Media in Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Romania, and Serbia are politicized; there is a lack of transparency, and political, business and media elites are very connected (Dobek-Ostrowska, 2015:31). Moldova, Macedonia, Montenegro, Albania,

Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Ukraine have media in transition model. It means that these countries experience the primary transition stage of media reforms, whereas low journalistic professionalism and media owners' dependence are observed (Dobek-Ostrowska, 2015:32-33). And the worst situation is in Belarus and Russia, where authoritarian media model is presented with low professionalism, very high state intervention into media environment, paternal relationship between the media and the state (Dobek-Ostrowska, 2015:34-35), and a high level of propaganda.

Journalism education in these 21 countries is taught differently, though have common features. For instance, many journalists without journalism education work in the media, meanwhile many students of journalism departments and schools of journalism consider journalism only as the beginning of their careers in PR or political technologies. Still, the quality of graduates' preparation is criticised by media market in most of these countries (Budivska, 2016 a; Demchenko, 2018; Tolokolnikova, 2016).

The numbers of journalism departments also vary from country to country. For instance, journalism is taught at only one faculty/university in Montenegro. In Albania, Macedonia, and Kosovo students receive degree in journalism at two or three faculties. Whereas some countries offer a larger number of journalism programs – Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Poland, Ukraine, Russia (Trajkoska & Georgievski, 2017:21).

Studies at almost all higher education institutions are modeled after the Bologna education system, following the principle of a three-year bachelor's degree and a two-year master's degree, or a four-year bachelor's degree and a one-year or a two-year master's degree (Trajkoska & Georgievski, 2017:22).

As for educational approach, for example, while specialization can be called the defining feature of Polish (Budivska, 2016a) and Albanian (Trajkoska & Georgievski, 2017:21) journalism departments, in Ukraine, in contrast, the overwhelming majority of journalism departments do not practice specialization (Demchenko, 2018; Dovzhenko, 2015).

2.6. Competencies and Qualifications of Journalism Education

As we have already observed, journalism education is proposed in many countries by many stakeholders (state-owned and private universities, NGOs, foundations, mass media). They differ in duration, methods, philosophy and strategy of education. Still, there are some common standards in journalism that oblige academic and professional communities to share a common understanding of competences and qualifications one should be taught during academic years and apply in day-to-day work.

Different international organizations have worked out their lists of competencies for journalism education and professional journalism. Let us now observe some of them.

To start with, in Europe *The European Journalism Training Association's* members in 2006 in Estonia, Tartu adopted *Tartu Declaration*. In 2013 it was revised according to media development changes. It consists of 10 competences and each is built up of five qualifications with description of what students are expected to know, understand and be able to demonstrate after the completion of education (see Appendix 1). This declaration was signed and its competences were implemented by the EJTA members from 25 European countries (EJTA, 2013).

The following three competencies of a journalist profession were said to gain most importance: *selecting information, accountability for journalistic work and cooperation in a team* (Drok, 2013:9). Among qualifications there are the following ones: be able use new media structuring techniques, be able to take responsibility for the product, know the market conditions, be reliable, have a good general knowledge, discover newsworthy issues on the basis of in-depth research, have a commitment to society and others (EJTA, 2013).

On the other hand, the USA has proposed its vision of standards in journalism education which has a lot of common with the European one. For example, in 2013 the Poynter Institute for Media Studies conducted *Future of Journalism Competencies Survey* aiming to identify skills

and knowledge which can help beginning journalists in their career in the digital age¹. According to its results, the competences were divided into four key categories with several skills: 1. Knowledge, attitudes and personal features with 19 skills (such as broad general knowledge, good social skills, a team player ability, journalistic ethics). 2. Newsgathering with 7 skills (such as search online information on an advanced level, master interview techniques, look at the news with a historical perspective, interpret statistical data and graphics). 3. Basic news production with 6 skills (such as write in a fluent style using correct grammar, understand audience expectations and needs). 4. Technical or multimedia production with 5 skills (such as work with HTML or other computer languages, shoot and edit video, take photos, record and edit audio, tell stories with design and visuals) (Finberg & Klinger, 2014).

As the media industry changes too quickly for any curriculum to keep up, students in journalism programs should be aware of what they need to know to enter the professional field and adapt to any changes within the media industry. According to media professionals from the USA (Levin, 2015), the following components of a journalism career are:

- Basic knowledge of coding. It is, according to Eric Newton, “the grammar of the 21st century”.
- Ability to analyze data, statistics. For instance, to calculate the mean, the median, percentages and ratios and know Microsoft Excel.
- Strong knowledge of economics in media industry (revenues, financial sustainability etc.).
- Understanding of your audience (engagement, origin and geographical stratification of the audience, what content they consume and respond to etc.).
- Ability to build your brand (via online platforms with the help of communication with others).

¹ Future of Journalism Competencies Survey 2013, available at https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/journ_future_skills

- Ability to use social media to get and share your information (which is only verified).
- Ability to write the news under 140 characters (the skill to summarize the most important and attract your reader with the help of headline).
- Skills and knowledge to produce content on multiple platforms: to photograph, edit, create video and graphics.
- A high level of responsibility for the information you post: first check to avoid mistakes and then publish.
- The ability to adapt to new technology is the most important skill, because today's technologies may not be tomorrow's.

As we can notice, there is a common expectation and understanding of skills and knowledge which journalist should possess in order to become a professional within European and American journalistic discourse. Let us now observe UNESCO's *The Global Initiative for Excellence in Journalism Education* (GIEJE) to understand how journalism curriculum is proposed to be improved all over the world taking into account all the mentioned facts above.

2.7. Journalism Curricula under Review of UNESCO

In order to support journalism education around the world, in 2007 UNESCO launched *The Global Initiative for Excellence in Journalism Education* (GIEJE). Under this initiative, publication *the Model Curricula for Journalism Education* was issued in 2007 at the request of Member States at the first World Journalism Education Congress (WJEC-1). It's curricula were worked out for three levels: "a university bachelor's degree (three years and four years); a two-year master's degree (for students with and students without a journalism background); and a two-year diploma program that may be taken as a basic preparation for journalism or as a bridge from secondary school to a university program in journalism" (UNESCO, 2007:10). By the end of 2012, the syllabi proposed by *the Model Curricula for Journalism Education* were adopted by at least 70 journalism schools in 60 countries (UNESCO, 2013:4).

Also, 11 Principles of Journalism Education were worked out and agreed by 28 journalism education association from six continents during WJEC-1 in 2007 (see Appendix 2). These principles determined what practical and theoretical skills graduates should be taught, how curricula should be drawn up, what courses should be included, and how educational and media market should cooperate. Thus, according to this documents, journalism graduates “should be prepared to work as highly informed, strongly committed practitioners who have high ethical principles and are able to fulfill the public interest obligations that are central to their work”, “share important values and professional goals with peers in other nations”, “master a variety of computer-based tools”, “receive skills courses and the study of journalism ethics, history, media structures/institutions at national and international level, critical analysis of media content and journalism as a profession” (WJEC, 2007).

Taking into account the mentioned above skills, the following courses with a detailed course description, pedagogical approaches, schedule of classes, required and recommended texts, grading and assessment protocols were proposed in *the Model Curricula for Journalism Education* (UNESCO, 2007):

Bachelor’s degree	Master’s degree	Journalism electives
Foundations of journalism	Analytical and opinion writing	Covering conflict
Reporting and writing	Advanced research methods	Disaster reporting
Broadcast reporting and writing	Specialized reporting	Development journalism
Multimedia/online journalism		International journalism
Media law		Political journalism
Journalism ethics		Covering diversity
Media and society		Covering deprivation
Newspaper workshop		Covering public health
Broadcast workshop		Covering environmental issues
Magazine workshop		Covering education
		Covering social movements

		Sports journalism
		Business journalism
		Science journalism
		Arts and culture journalism
		Visual journalism/Graphics
		Photojournalism
		Copy editing
		Magazine design
		Analytical and opinion writing
		Literary journalism/Narrative nonfiction
		Media management
		Media economics

The bachelor's project was defined as "a substantial journalism story or series in any medium" and the master's project was called as "a substantial, masterly piece of journalism or series in any medium in the student's area of specialization" (UNESCO, 2007:24).

As for internship at a news media outlet, it is recommended to be included in every journalism program "with a minimum length of four weeks" (UNESCO, 2007:12, 14) in order "to enrich practical skills of students". For this purpose, "journalism schools should develop partnerships with local news media" (UNESCO, 2007:8). For a three-year undergraduate degree in journalism, the internship is suggested between second and third year of study (UNESCO, 2007:12); for a four--year undergraduate degree in journalism, the internship is proposed between third and fourth year of study (UNESCO, 2007:14). It is essential that "work experience is supervised and evaluated by a field supervisor" (UNESCO, 2007:12, 14). For a two-year master's program for students with little or no journalism education or experience and a two-year master's program for students with a bachelor's degree in journalism or a bachelor's

degree in another subject and at least five years of journalism experience, the internship should be related to the students' specialized subject area UNESCO, 2007:17, 19).

With intention to review the previous curriculum and adopt it according to new challenges, UNESCO in 2013 issued *Model Curricula for Journalism Education. A compendium of new syllabi*. It proposed to add a few courses to the curriculum of undergraduate and postgraduate programs to reflect new tendencies of journalism practice. The necessity for new suggestions was influenced by “pressure on media institutions, particularly in developed countries, to adjust to the new realities”, on the one hand, and “challenges for journalism education because of these new frameworks in order to adopt them into journalism curricula”, on the other (Banda, 2013:5). Thus, 10 syllabi were written with the following courses suggested (Banda, 2013):

Data journalism	Science journalism (incorporating bioethics)
Media sustainability	Gender and journalism
Community radio journalism	Humanitarian journalism
Intercultural journalism	Reporting human trafficking
Global journalism	Safety and journalism

In 2015 *Teaching Journalism for Sustainable Development: New Syllabi* publication proposed eight new syllabi with a response “to a key development challenge of the next 15 years” (Banda, 2015:5). As a result, the following courses were declared as crucial ones (Banda, 2015):

Journalism and sustainable development	Ethical Investigative journalism
Advocacy journalism: participation, representation and community	Digital media, social networks and the changing face of journalism
Reporting sustainable tourism	Ecological Journalism (Eco-journalism)
Reporting migration, with a focus on refugees	International collaborative report

Journalism, 'fake news' and disinformation is the last UNESCO's handbook and it “has been produced in a context of growing international concern about a “disinformation war” in

which journalism and journalists are prime targets” (Ireton & Rosetti, 2018:14). It was published in 2018 “to serve as an internationally-relevant model curriculum, open to adoption or adaptation, which responds to the emerging global problem of disinformation that confronts societies in general, and journalism in particular” (Ireton & Rosetti, 2018:7). It consists of seven modules (syllabi) with synopsis, outline, teaching approaches, module aims, learning outcomes, suggested assignments and materials for reading (Ireton & Rosetti, 2018). It helps educators and coaches develop their courses concerning all the issues of “disinformation war”: from media industry transformation to ethical standards and concerns about professionalism in journalism.

Also, some publications as complementary materials for training journalists were issued under UNESCO initiative. They covered those important topics that became relevant in terms of geopolitical policy over the last ten years and which were discussed at World Journalism Education Congresses by journalists, educators, experts and researchers in the field of journalism. The following textbooks were written to help educators develop their educational programs and/or add new courses with applicable content into curricula: *The Global Investigative Journalism Casebook. UNESCO Series on Journalism Education* (explains how to conduct a journalism investigation based on the experience of journalists from around the world) (Hunter, 2012) and *Terrorism and the Media. A handbook for journalists* (clarifies how to inform the public about terrorism and to avoid unpredictable consequences) (Marthoz, 2017).

Taking into account that currently (2020) UNESCO includes 193 member states (UNESCO, 2020), all the curricula suggested and published under *The Global Initiative for Excellence in Journalism Education* (GIEJE) which were described above should be discussed and practiced at the national level in each country. As Ukraine is a UNESCO member, it will be interesting to find out whether Ukrainian journalists are trained accordingly.

Conclusion

As it was shown by examples of different media models, there are public universities, the universities for applied sciences and polytechnics which propose a formal journalism education worldwide. The educational process lasts for three or four year of a bachelor and a year or two of master programs with internship as a compulsory condition of a formal education. As for non-formal journalism education, it is proposed by different media organizations, NGOs, private or international institutions, foundations, and mass media (in-house programs). In many countries observed in this chapter journalism still remains an open profession and it is not obligatory to get a diploma in journalism to enter a journalist profession.

Under different media system classifications, development of a journalism profession and a journalism education in each country has its own peculiarities. For instance, the communist regime has had an impact on former soviet countries and those who were under communist control. Still, this historical feature influenced the development of a journalism profession and a journalism education differently in post-communist states. Contrary, the Nordic media model has many similarities because of the common historical background, political and media systems, and they have corresponding journalism education.

Nevertheless, there are a lot of similarities according to teaching approaches and methods of education within different media model classifications.

According to European and American journalism principles, there are many competencies and qualifications that students should be taught, and journalists apply in practice. They are titled differently but have a common vision of journalism theoretical and practical skills. Some have appeared recently as results of professional demands and challenges, for instance: verify information, work with data, know the market conditions, know basic coding, be professional in a concrete field (science, sports, arts, medicine, economics, etc.). Others are the old ones which form the basis of reliable and accountable journalism: know and implement

ethical standards, have a commitment to society, interpret statistical data, write in a fluent style using correct grammar, understand audience expectations and needs, and others.

In terms of these demands of the media market, UNESCO has already worked out and published four handbooks of curricula (in 2007, 2013, 2015, and 2018) for universities that teach students and coaches who organize non-formal journalism education. They were written in accordance with the media market, geopolitical changes and comments and propositions discussed during the last five World Journalism Education Congresses (2007, 2010, 2013, 2016, 2019).

Taking into account all the mentioned information, we are going to check with the help of Ukrainian journalists' answers on how Ukrainian journalism education is organized by the listed practices.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCHING JOURNALISM EDUCATION IN UKRAINE

As we have already found out from the Chapter 2, Ukraine belongs to the Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) Countries/Post-Communist Media Model. Thus, development of journalism education has been incorporated into this model and even nowadays has not got rid off all the post-soviet educational rudiments (Demchenko, 2018). In terms of a journalism education, it is a member of the UNESCO. That is why Ukraine has to take into consideration all the initiatives proposed in order to improve the quality of journalists' preparation. So, in this chapter, we will look at the current state of Ukrainian journalism education and find out which standards it is rooted in.

3.1. Academic resources of journalism studies in Ukraine

History of Ukrainian journalism education has been poorly researched. Little work is devoted to it, providing evidence that Ukrainian research in this field had not been developed during the Soviet period. Mostly all of the literature that exists on the history of Ukrainian journalism education is offered in a post-Soviet context, mainly focused on Russian journalism education.

Moreover, the Vernadsky National Library of Ukraine, which is the main academic library and main scientific information center in Ukraine², has limited access to international researches and journals that cover journalism education. Also, there are no books devoted to academic research in terms of the history or the contemporary state of Ukrainian journalism education. There is a dearth of literature published in Ukrainian in the field, and the literature that does exist lacks theoretical foundation or tends to be overly descriptive.

² The Vernadsky National Library of Ukraine: <http://www.nbuv.gov.ua/node/125>

Concerning contemporary Ukrainian scientific articles, an analysis organized by Ukrainian NGO CEDOS in 2018 concluded that their quality is well below the high academic standards of western peer-review articles. CEDOS conducted its research in order to evaluate whether the papers of the National Academy of Educational Science of Ukraine (NAESU) meet the basic requirements set by scientific organizations. According to these results, most scientific articles did not meet at least a few quality criteria; in particular, they did not provide an adequate review of the literature, did not mention any contemporary authors outside the former USSR, did not describe the methodology of the study and did not use data processed by the authors themselves (Zheriobkina and others, 2018). To add more, most Ukrainian scientific journals charge a fee for the publication of their articles, although the quality of the review process is of poor quality. This is an example of how science in Ukraine has a long way to go yet.

Comparing with other countries, media studies and journalism studies are highly developed in those countries which have a steady history of research. For example, as it is in the academic area of the United States. This is proved, in particular, by The QS World University Rankings by Subject in communications and journalism. American universities confidently dominate there (QS World University Rankings by Subject, 2017). Unfortunately, Ukraine does not follow this practice.

3.2. Researches of Ukrainian journalism education: national concern

To start with, solid and scientific research that accurately represented the state of Ukrainian journalism education up until 2016 largely did not exist. Ecological Journalism (Eco-journalism)

The Ukrainian NGO Detector Media conducted a pilot analysis of the state of journalism education in Ukraine in 2016. The results underlined that criticism from journalism departments' graduates concerning teaching practices in Ukraine cannot be ignored while reforming higher education (NGO Detector media; 2016). Also, later in 2016, Sirinyok-Dolgaryova, a professor from Zaporizhzhya, surveyed ninety-four graduates from journalism departments in the

Ukrainian capital Kyiv, Lviv city in Western Ukraine, and Zaporizhzhya city in Eastern Ukraine. The results of her study showed that Ukrainian journalism education needs to offer more practical courses and address the needs of the market-driven media industry in Ukraine (Sirinyok-Dolgaryova, 2016). Meanwhile, Ukrainian journalists stated that non-formal journalism education offers more practical skills than the overwhelming majority of Ukrainian departments of journalism (Kutovenko, 2016).

3.2.1. The first research of journalism education in Ukraine

As there has not been achieved a constructive dialog and successful collaboration among educators, representatives of media market, the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, graduates and journalists, a national discussion in terms of an unsatisfactory state of an educational system at Ukrainian journalism departments was organized in February 2016 by Ukrainian NGO *Telekrytyka*, which was in March 2016 renamed into *Detector media*. Later, in June 2016 till August 2016 a pilot research was conducted in order to revise the educational process at Ukrainian journalism departments. On the 24-th of October 2016, a report *The state of journalism education at journalism departments in Ukraine (Pilot Survey Findings)* was presented and published at *detector.media* website (NGO Detector media, 2016).

The study was comprised of several components: journalism departments rating, polling of media industry representatives and journalism departments graduates from Kyiv and Kyiv oblast (a type of administrative division in Ukraine, the same as region). Nineteen out of thirty-nine Ukrainian departments of journalism, which were training prospective journalists in the academic year 2016, responded to the inquiry. The inquiry included issues related to curricula, educational process, inclusion of the department into the international educational process, the system of teacher and student mobility, etc. (NGO Detector media, 2016:8).

As the data analysis has shown, from a formal perspective, available curricula for training future journalists looked fairly balanced in terms of practical and theoretical courses. However,

the content of training programs stirred much controversy and plenty of criticism from graduates and media industry representatives. The vast majority of respondents were dissatisfied with the curricula content, insufficient focus on practical skills and the quality of training in general. As for the teaching approach in Ukrainian institutions of higher education (IsHE), it is often predetermined by the legacy of philological tradition (NGO Detector media, 2016:6).

The analysis of activities of journalism departments has shown their weak integration in the international context. Most of them had but few cooperation projects with international partners, and even when they had, they would often have no direct relation to journalism. Only four of all IsHE that responded had guest courses taught by foreign specialists. Departments also lack initiative in developing new projects and raising grants. The level of students' international mobility remains pretty low, despite increasing opportunities offered by international programs (NGO Detector media, 2016:6).

Another typical problem lied in the lack of communication of chairs and departments with outside audience. Out of thirty-nine journalism departments and chairs that train future journalists only twenty have their own website. Of these twenty websites, only two contain comprehensive information about the faculty, students, alumni, educational process, curriculum, department activities, etc. Information in most of the sites was sketchy and poorly updated. The situation with representation of journalism department in social networks is pretty much the same: their pages lacked dynamic page features; the content was mostly made up by announcements of upcoming events, with little information that would help students in their professional development (NGO Detector media, 2016:6).

According to the survey of media representatives, staff members of editorial offices would often have no record of journalism education and would not feel that to be an issue. Nevertheless, the analysis of the work of Ukrainian journalism departments revealed a positive trend of growing practice to involve media practitioners through such activities as workshops and guest lectures. However, the relationship of journalism departments and the media seem to

be limited to such contacts and cooperation in student internships, with little or practically no significant cooperation projects (NGO Detector media, 2016:6).

The results of the first study conducted by NGO *Detector media* provoked a large discussion both in the professional and in the educational environment during the nationwide conference *Journalism education in Ukraine: what we have and where we are moving towards?* on the 25-th of October 2016. Most of those who participated in it agreed that journalism education was in urgent need of modernization, expansion of the practical component, and adaptation to the needs of the industry. Still, there was a little interest on the part of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine in these results and in encouraging changes in Ukrainian journalism education.

3.2.2. The second research of journalism education

In order to compare changes that either have been or have not been made over the two years (2016-2018) the second study was organized by NGO *Detector media* in 2018 and a report with its' results *Journalism education in Ukraine: does the system work?* was published on the 6th of November 2018. The study was comprised of several components: journalism departments' rating, polling of media industry representatives, journalism departments' students and journalism departments' graduates from eight Ukrainian oblasts.

Only thirteen out of forty-six universities in which there is a department of journalism agreed to provide detailed information that can be used to assess the quality of their work. Refusal of other universities, or the decision to ignore the inquiry, is a worrying sign of a reluctance to work transparently and to respond to the current challenges (NGO Detector media, 2018).

According to the results of the second study conducted by NGO *Detector media*, the content of training courses is often outdated, and information is not relevant. Over the two years (2016-2018), journalism departments have introduced new modern training courses, although

some still consider the Internet to be a "new type of media." Not only students and graduates, but also employers see the need to increase the number of applied courses, practical tasks, and lecturers with experience in journalism, as theoretical disciplines prevail in the curricula of master's programs at many universities (NGO Detector media, 2018:5-6).

In the previous study (2016), there was an excessive number of philological disciplines in the curricula of bachelor educational programs in Ukrainian journalism departments. In 2018, as the research shows, the share of the philological component in the total number of academic hours over 4 years of training is currently from 10% to 35%. The situation with the master's educational programs is somewhat ambiguous. Even though in official documents they are considered to be educational-professional, that is, practice-oriented, in fact, they include an excessive number of various theoretical pedagogical and scientific disciplines (NGO Detector media, 2018:11).

One more problem which this research identified is a significant number of universities that do not have narrow specializations. Still, institutions of higher education have recently started using the so-called internal student mobility more actively, thanks to which the latter can attend classes at other faculties of their university, thus obtaining narrowly specialized knowledge (NGO Detector media, 2018:14).

3.3. Journalism Education: Comments from the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine

The question of who should teach journalism and whether there should be more scientists or practitioners at the departments remains controversial in Ukraine. From the employers' point of view, most of the lecturers at the departments of journalism should be "practicing coaches". And such specialists are in no hurry to get academic degrees. At the same time, changes to the licensing conditions from the Ministry of Education and Science require an increase in the number of lecturers with academic degrees, and, in addition, the specialty must be in line with

the profession. This means that both doctors and candidates of philological sciences in the specialty 10.08.01 – "journalism" or scientists who have received a "social communications" degree can be lecturers at the departments of journalism. So, shortly Ukrainian departments of journalism will need universal soldiers, that is, "practicing coaches" with a candidate or doctorate degree. Meanwhile, the situation in the institutions of higher education is as follows: the share of teachers with academic degrees on average is about 65% of the total number of teachers of the departments (NGO Detector media, 2018:16-17).

When asking representative of the Ministry of Education and science of Ukraine about improvements of Ukrainian journalism education during the last five years (2014 – 2018), Oleh Sharov, general director of the Directorate of Higher Education and Adult Education under the Ministry of Education and Science, starts describing positive changes of the mentioned above licensing conditions: *"In terms of these conditions, a person has the right to enter a lecture hall if he or she meets the rules of so-called scientific and professional activity for the last 3-5 years"* (Zubchenko, 2018 c).

Meanwhile, these conditions complicate the access of journalists to the educational process (Zubchenko, 2018 c). However, such a practice when Ukrainian journalists are involved in the educational process as lecturers and do not have formal employment at work is widespread. And it is very appreciated by students of journalism departments themselves as the latest research conducted by NGO Detector media has shown (NGO Detector media, 2018), because practitioners describe professional life from the practical point of view. As a result, students receive more skills and knowledge when are taught by those who are doing the job every day, face and overcome different professional challenges in a practical, not theoretical world. Journalists can show and explain examples from their own professional experience, and this is better than only reading books about how the journalistic world works, develops, and changes.

According to Oleh Sharov, students must acquire practical skills by working in the media (Zubchenko, 2018 b) but only 35% of students questioned say that their lecturers support this idea, because in this case students who already work do not attend many lectures (NGO Detector media, 2018:49). Thus, journalists should be involved in the educational process as at least guest lecturers.

As results have shown in both types of research (2016 and 2018) conducted by *NGO Detector media*, not all departments have sufficient technical facilities, in many universities, it is either out of order or obsolete, and sometimes students do not have free access to it. As a rule, higher education institutions which have proper technical facilities it is because of the money provided by foreign funds and organizations (NGO Detector media, 2018:23-25). When showing the results of students' answers that confirm poor technical support at overwhelming majority of Ukrainian journalism departments, Mr.Sharov declares that journalism departments are not in the Ministry's priority concerning improvements of technical basis: *“Every year we plan to improve the situation. Unfortunately, the Ministry of Finance does not find funds for it. Therefore, we can not promise what will happen. But, if it does, it will be for the pedagogical higher schools first, because there are laboratories that train teachers of physics, chemistry of the 50's. Then the technical higher schools, because often there is equipment of the Khrushchev time. And, in the end, there will be journalism departments, because there is a much more significant, let's say, a more powerful professional community with good contacts in the relevant business and business can share something»* (Zubchenko, 2018 c).

3.4. Ukrainian Higher Education system

Once Ukraine gained its independence in 1991, the country had to write and adopt new laws. The educational sphere was not an exception. Nowadays Ukraine's system of higher education is regulated by the Constitution of Ukraine, the Laws of Ukraine “On Education,” “On Higher Education,” “On Scientific, Research and Development Activity,” by ministerial and

central government orders, and by international agreements which Ukraine made in compliance with domestic and international law.

Since 1991, many changes have been made to Ukraine's educational system. The most significant happened in 2005 when Ukraine joined the Bologna process and signed the Bologna Declaration, obliging the country to reform the educational system and adjust itself to European standards (Kovtun and Stick, 2009). As it is written in the Implementation Report of Bologna Process, among the main tasks of the Bologna Process at the institutional level is to support the modernization of education and training systems to make sure these meet the needs of a changing labor market (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). Unfortunately, the Ukrainian education system is still far from these standards, because there is a significant gap between the demands of employers and the level of education in Ukraine (Repko, 2016).

To illustrate this, Maksym Karpash, a Ukrainian professor, supports this idea by stressing on the fact that “the whole Ukrainian education system of the last 12 years is a non-cooperative game (one of the components of a game theory developed by a Nobel Prize winner, mathematician John Nash). He explains it by the following argument: “The system of knowledge transmission in Ukraine is a system with a zero-sum that in the recent time tends to transfer into a negative one...” (Karpash, 2016). Ukrainian entrants choose the most prestigious universities to study, though this privilege to be called “prestigious” very often does not mean the quality of the knowledge taught. As a result, graduates receive a poor basis of preparation and their employers are not satisfied with the skills they have gained (Karpash, 2016). The same situation happens with journalism departments in Ukraine (NGO Detector media, 2018).

That is a negative result because the educational system fails to fulfill obligations towards students. Thus, this failure leads to another one – young graduates lack skills which job market demands. And here, as Karpash stresses, the job market even does not try to formulate and work out specific job criteria for universities to be oriented on them in the educational process. Thus, none of the involved players wins (Karpash, 2016). Though, as Klaus Schwab, the

founder and executive chairman of the World Economic Forum, in *The Future of Jobs Report 2018* underlined “prosperity and progress of each society depend on the ability of all concerned stakeholders to instigate reform in education and training systems” (World Economic Forum, 2018:v).

3.5. Formal journalism education in Ukraine: how educational process is regulated and organized

In Ukraine, there is a Commission within the Ministry of Education and Science that sets standards for higher education. The team of educators in journalism who make up the Commission based work done in 2017 on the following legislation: the law “On Higher Education” (2014), the National Qualifications Framework (Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, 2011), the List of Specializations (Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, 2015 b), two draft documents of *Passport of Profession* project: Professional Standards for Qualifications of Multimedia Journalists (SCM, 2012 a) and Professional Standards for Qualifications of Multimedia Editors (SCM, 2012 b), and the draft document of competencies and qualifications for specialization 061 “journalism” (Rizun et al., 2017). On June 20, 2020, the educational standard for bachelor’s programs in journalism was approved by the order of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, 2019). On the contrary, the standard for master’s programs in journalism has not yet been approved.

It is not known exactly how many journalism departments existed in Ukraine before 2015 because the information was not accessed publically. The number varies from 39 to 71 departments (Rizun, 2012). According to data from the national higher education entrance system “Konkurs” (*Contest*), in the 2015-2016 academic year, journalism was taught at 39 Ukrainian universities (Pidubna, 2016). Of these, 30 offered both bachelor’s and master’s degrees in journalism, while two of them offered a master’s degree only, and 37 offered only a bachelor’s degree.

In the 2017-2018 academic year, 58 Ukrainian institutions of higher education (IsHE) (Table 1) were licensed to offer the journalism specialization “061” (Appendix 3) Of these, 12 have bachelor degree programs in journalism, 43 offer bachelor’s and master’s degrees, and 3 offered only a master’s degree in journalism (Table 2). Based on this information, we can see that, over two years, 19 new journalism departments were opened in Ukraine.



Table 1. Institutions of higher education (IsHE) licensed in 061journalism specialization (2017-2018 academic year) in Ukraine. Author: Karolina Uskakovych

The educational process at Ukrainian journalism departments lasts from 4 years (bachelor program) to 1,5-2 years (master program). Two types of research conducted by NGO Detector media in 2016 and 2018 confirmed that the overwhelming majority of Ukrainian graduates and

top managers of Ukrainian media thought that 5,5 or 6 years for university preparation of journalists was useless. Moreover, they are convinced that the bachelor preparation of journalists in Ukraine is unsatisfied and those departments should be closed or reformed. Oleh Sharov, general director of the Directorate of Higher Education and Adult Education under the Ministry of Education and Science agrees with the statement that bachelor's education in its current form is ineffective and continues that changes are unlikely to come from the Ministry of Education, but only from a professional community: "If a professional community comes to the point that bachelor's education is unnecessary, I assure you, the Ministry of Education and Science will quickly remove it" (Zubchenko, 2018 c). Nevertheless, the Ministry has not yet reacted to the media industry's request to close those departments of journalism which have been criticized for a long period of time.

To get an education at Ukrainian journalism departments, one can do it on a free of charge or a self-funding basis. In order not to pay for the education, an applicant must get a budget place on a competitive basis. The entrance procedure differs. Applicants of a bachelor's degree are enrolled according to the results they receive after passing external independent testing (EIT). EIT is an examination for admission to universities (tested from 2004 to 2007 and adopted as a prerequisite of entry to higher education in 2008) (Ukrainian Centre for Educational Quality Assessment, 2016).

According to the official reply of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine to the MediaSapiens' inquiry, in a 2017-2018 academic year, Ukrainian universities admitted 2 824 persons at bachelor's programs in journalism among 20 309 applicants and 1 337 persons were admitted to the master's programs in journalism, whereas two years ago (2015-2016 academic year) this figure was a thousand less. Thus, in a 2017-2018 academic year, the admissions process had almost 10 candidates per 1 student seat (MediaSapiens, 2017).

Degree programs in journalism, 2017-2018 academic year, Ukraine

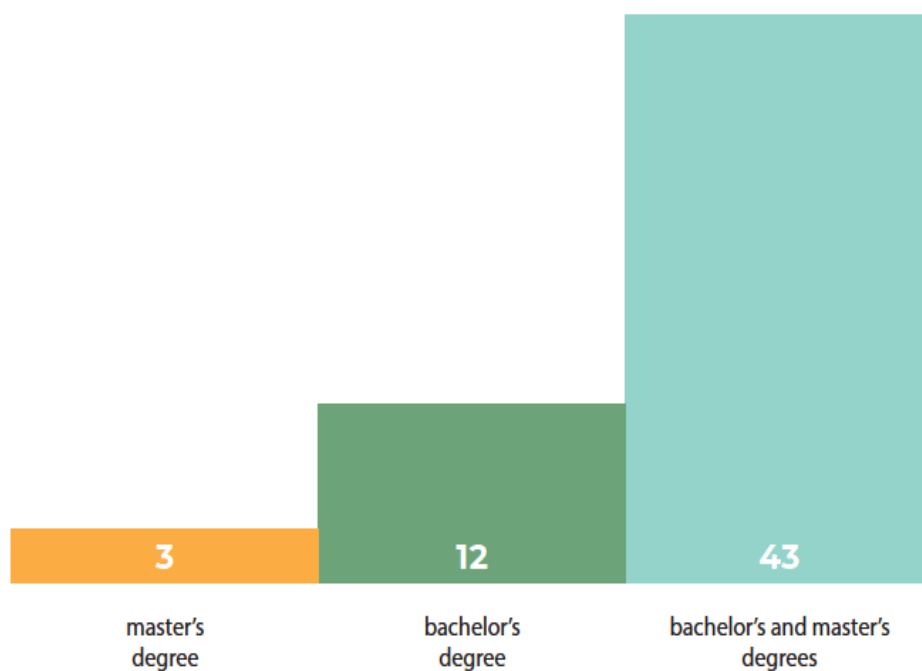


Table 2. Degree programs in journalism, 2017-2018 academic year, Ukraine. Author: Karolina Uskakovich

Nowadays applicants who want to study at a master's program should have a bachelor's degree in journalism or another specialty and pass a series of entrance exams (written, oral and a presentation of their achievements in journalism).

On 29 April 2015, the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine approved the new list of education departments, which took effect on 1 September 2016. Many professions were converted into educational programs. For example, journalism became profession 061 "journalism," which encompasses educational programs "journalism," "advertising and public relations," "publishing and editing," and "media communications" (Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, 2015). This news was and continues to be criticized by Ukrainian educators and media experts because many of them are convinced that public relations and advertising have nothing in common with journalism and its professional values (NGO Detector media, 2018).

Journalists themselves evidence that such a combination messes up their professional field very much (NGO Detector media, 2018). These examples prove the often-discussed argument that contradictions between the media market's needs and capabilities of higher educational institutions to qualitatively trained specialists have been strengthening for years in Ukraine (Fedchenko, 2007; Dovzhenko, 2015; Holubev, 2016; Kutovenko, 2016; Hromadske radio, 2018).

Moreover, a lot of researchers all over the world in the media field do not approve of the idea to combine journalism with PR (Alterman, 2015; Viererbl & Koch, 2019). For example, as far back as in 1998, Adam stated that journalism should be a separate discipline. He did not neglect the fact that students at journalism departments should be aware of all the facts in terms of journalism, as, for instance, theory of communication, media systems, media ethics, media management etc., because they would be further included into professional environment which was a crossroad of all of these components. Still, he was convinced that journalism should not be subsumed with any other discipline (as PR, communication studies or sub-field disciplines of communication) because the vice versa the content of a profession would change (Adam, 1998:8 cited in Raudsepp, 2004). And nowadays we are experiencing this situation when journalists produce propagandistic or fake content (Fedchenko 2016).

3.6. Criticism of formal journalism education in Ukraine

The overwhelming majority of Ukrainian journalism programs are sharply criticized by graduates for containing many theoretical disciplines that very often focus on philology (for example, Ukrainian and foreign literature), as was in the Soviet era (Kutovenko, 2016). This is the case because the teaching staff is mostly a legacy of the Soviet tradition – these are people with academic degrees who were taught and defended their thesis in a Soviet teaching paradigm. The practical journalism programs are offered mostly by professional journalists who make up a new generation of journalists that were educated in the period since Ukraine's independence.

These journalists don't necessarily have university degrees in journalism (Holubev, 2016; Kutovenko, 2016). Thus, the teaching approach at Ukrainian journalism departments remains a mixed and very complicated system of Soviet legacy and pro-Western tactics (Holubev, 2016; Sirinyok-Dolgaryova, 2016).

Also, the gulf between the media market's needs and the ability of institutions of higher education to prepare well-trained specialists has grown for years in Ukraine (Fedchenko, 2007; Dovzhenko, 2015; Holubev, 2016; Kutovenko, 2016; Hromadske Radio, 2018). Media experts, journalists, and lecturers from many journalism departments in Ukraine are trying to improve the dialog between academic and professional institutions (NGO Detector media, 2016) though it is a very complicated task that requires the help of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine.

Some steps were taken between 2011-2013 to foster collaboration between universities, the media market, and the Ukrainian Ministry of Education with essential support from NGOs and foundations. For example, the project *Passport of profession* (collaboration between nine journalism departments, representatives of the media market, and the Ukrainian Ministry of Education with essential support from different NGOs) identified the skills and knowledge which Ukrainian media job market needs from students in journalism departments. This information helped lecturers from universities and media experts provide recommendations for journalism departments regarding their curricula. In parallel, the project was created on the basis of the Mohyla School of Journalism program *Digital Media for Universities (DMU)* in order to teach lecturers how to implement new skills within the developed educational standards at journalism programs. Nevertheless, as Oleksandr Vlasenko, former coordinator of the project *Passport of profession*, underlined, the attempt to improve journalism education so that it better addresses that needs of the profession was not successful. The project was not completed because of dramatic events in Eastern Ukraine in 2014: the Revolution of Dignity, the annexation by Russia of a Ukrainian Crimea, the self-proclamation of the so-called DNR

(“Donetsk People’s Republic”) and LNR (“Luhansk People’s Republic”) the ongoing war between Ukraine and Russia in Eastern Ukraine (NGO Telekrytyka, 2016).

Meanwhile, as Holubev noted, one-time teaching methods at journalism departments continue to prevail in Ukraine. They originate from the Soviet period and new methods that address the present-day needs of the profession have not been adopted (Holubev, 2016). Another fact also complicates the process of improving the content of journalism education in Ukraine: different stakeholders (students, lecturers, deans of journalism departments, journalists and the heads of media organizations) who are involved in the process of journalism education and the profession have different views of how journalism education in Ukraine should be organized. Still, these ideas exist in divergent realities, and the communication among those participants mentioned above does not take place regularly and it is very often negative (Kutovenko, 2016).

A high level of dependence on media owners is still dominating among media in Ukraine, and different media have their own view of professional standards (although very often they violate ethical principles of Code of Ethics of Ukrainian Journalist) (NGO Detector media, 2019). And it usually happens, as Minke precisely underlines, that the educational programs have to live with an increasing tension between practical reality ‘out there’ and the good practice and idealistic morals ‘in here’ (Minke, 2009:117).

That is why many Ukrainian graduates from journalism departments often have “professional shock” when they start working as journalists, because the professional reality often neglects many of ethical and moral principles they were taught about facing instead with censorship, propaganda or entertaining content (Kutovenko, 2016).

3.7. Non-formal journalism education in Ukraine

Non-formal journalism education in Ukraine began several years after the collapse of the Soviet Union when Ukraine became an independent state in 1991. Different NGOs with international financial support and locally-granted projects started to work in Ukraine, conducting a new style and approach to teaching. The following are examples of such organizations conducting non-formal training in Ukraine: Academy of Ukrainian Press (AUP), 2001; Internews Ukraine, 1992; Centre for Democracy and Rule of Law (CEDEM) – formerly MLI, 2005; Institute of Mass Information (IMI), 2002; Digital Future of Journalism (DFJ), 2007 – 2015; The New Ukraine School of Professional Journalism, 2008-2014; Digital Media for Universities (DMU), 2011-2014) among others. International donors supporting journalism education in Ukraine helped reorient the field in terms of applying internationally accepted best practices. These programs have received high praise from Ukrainian journalists because they focus on teaching the practical skills required by the profession in Ukraine (Kutovenko, 2016).

Moreover, Ukrainian mass media does not trust the education provided by journalism departments throughout the country (Kutovenko, 2016; NGO Detector media, 2018), and many editors in the country refuse to employ students who graduate from many journalism departments because they are poorly prepared. Thus, big Ukrainian media holding companies started to offer non-formal journalism education. For example, the television channels *Ukraina*, *Inter*, *1+1* (though these television channels are owned by Ukrainian oligarchs and their content is criticized as propaganda and they very often do not uphold professional standards (Zubchenko, 2018), and the newspaper *Day* provide on-the-job training. Following this mission today, Ukrainian NGOs also organize trainings, workshops, on-line distance courses, and long-term schooling to cover different substantial issues in the field of journalism. This includes activities towards the improvement of legislation, up-to-date technology used in journalism, ethical professional topics, media literacy, investigative journalism, war journalism and so on.

Let us briefly describe Ukrainian NGOs and institutions that provided participants of focus groups selected for this paper with non-formal journalism education and which were highly appreciated for their outputs.

3.7.1. Academy of Ukrainian Press (AUP)

International Charity Foundation *Academy of Ukrainian Press* (AUP) is a non-profit, independent NGO located in Kyiv and represented in Ukrainian regions. It was founded in 2001 and is supported by a wide spectrum of international donor organizations. Its program is aimed at implementing in Ukraine the international standards of high quality, professional journalism and promoting the development of independent media in Ukraine (Academy of Ukrainian Press, 2001).

The *Academy of Ukrainian Press* offers training and further education for journalists from all media branches. There is a wide range of proposed courses: Basis journalistic skills and techniques; News; Local journalism; Search for information, including online research; Photojournalism; Media and law; Media as a business, Media literacy and others. They last from two to five days. Participants are selected on the competitive basis (Academy of Ukrainian Press, 2001).

3.7.2. Internews Ukraine

Internews has been working continuously in Ukraine since 1993. Through trainings, consultations, and grants, *Internews Ukraine* helps mass media build their own organizational capacity in finance, administration, digital security, and other areas (Internews Ukraine, 2005).

Internews Ukraine proposes a lot of trainings and seminars which correspond with their main goals. It has six directions in the media sphere: online media, education for journalists, EU-

Ukraine, social projects, media law, other initiatives. The participation is free of charge. The selection of journalists is conducted on a competitive basis.

3.7.3. Centre for Democracy and Rule of Law (CEDEM) – former Media Law Institute (MLI)

The former *Media Law Institute* is a civil society organization, set up in 2005. As it is written on an official website of MLI, “it is a think tank pooling together media lawyers and experts specializing in media policy and human rights protection” (Media Law Institute, 2005).

Speaking about non-formal journalism education, CEDEM has two directions in this sphere: distance learning courses and summer schools. To become a participant, students should fill in a registration form and be selected on a competitive basis. The participants represent different media from different regions of Ukraine. Participation in all of the educational programs of Media Law Institute is free of charge. Among the distance courses proposed are the following: “Transparency of authority: access to information and participation in decision-making process”, “Media law for journalists” and others. Each course lasts for a period of 3-4 months, consists of 18-23 lessons, and has in-between tests, a final test, and a questionnaire about the content, organizational moments and educational process of the course (Media Law Institute, 2005).

3.7.4. Digital Future of Journalism (DFJ)

Digital Future of Journalism was a post-degree professional program organized in 2007 with the help of a financial support of the local *Development of Ukraine* Foundation and was realized till 2015 by the Mohyla School of Journalism. In 2015 the *Development of Ukraine* Foundation stopped financing DFG. During the seven years more than 150 participants of national and regional media have taken part in a non-formal journalism education.

Ukrainian journalists under 35 years with a university degree in any field of science and a one or three-year experience in journalism had a possibility to become a participant of this

educational program which lasted for ten months (from November till June of the next year). The selection was conducted on a competitive basis. They had to fill in an online registration form and pass a personal communication with an examination committee (DFJ, 2012).

The aim of the program was to train young journalists through engaging them in the digital culture of the new media. It combined all types of media and helped adapt their work to new digital technologies (DFJ, 2012). The participants had a possibility to improve their professional skills in a multiplatform environment that corresponded with new demands of a profession. Lecturers from abroad helped a lot in this teaching process and enriched their students with many advices in practical things. After the end of the program those who successfully passed all the practical assessments and exams were given diplomas and had a two-week professional journey abroad to visit different media (DFJ, 2012).

3.7.5. The New Ukraine School of Professional Journalism

As it is written at website of *The New Ukraine School of Professional Journalism*, it was the platform for communication among professional journalists, exchange of knowledge, experience, ideas, and initiatives, as well as at deepening professional knowledge and working practices in various genres in order to educate competent leaders in Ukrainian journalism that would share and stand up for the highest standards of journalism, observe the ethical principles, understand the essence and nature of the journalist profession, and adhere to the ideals of independent media in a democratic society, uphold European values.

It existed from 2008 till 2014. This project was called to stimulate professional and world outlook development of journalists, promote competition mechanisms and encourage the use of best practices and implementation of innovation projects in the media. The project was implemented by the *Agency for Legislative Initiatives*. The main financial support was provided by the *International Renaissance Foundation*; additional costs were also given by *Konrad*

Adenauer Stiftung Office in Ukraine, Council of Europe, Euromedia company, the Network Media Program of Open Society Foundation, and the Council of Europe.

It has been organizing four annual educational sessions in different regions of Ukraine (Kyiv, Crimea, Odesa, and Lviv). The programs covered both general humanitarian topics (60-70%) and professional subjects (40-30%), as well as the number of academic sessions and consistent support to the network communication in the intersession period (homework, additional meetings etc). Also, it regularly provided meeting of School's alumni during the Alumni Conference. It helped journalists from different regional media speak about their problems, achievements and organize joint projects. For example, among one of them was the *New Ukraine* website where journalists published their materials and discussed professional issues (The New Ukraine School of Professional Journalism, 2010).

3.7.6. NGO Detector Media

Non-governmental organization Detector Media is an influential think-tank and media platform in Ukraine. NGO Detector Media (DM) is a successor of NGO Telekritika launched back in 2004.

Detector Media is one of Ukraine's leading institutions dealing with media issues and media literacy. Its web-site www.detector.media is a Ukrainian key media to cover the operation of media outlets and media market in the country. It is a popular resource focused on media literacy (with average annual audience of 700 users) and journalism education issues.

The organization unites leading Ukrainian media experts and, at the same time, produces masses of content for mainstream audience. For over 10 years, the DM's team has been consistently contributing to journalism standards observation in Ukrainian media, improvements to the national legislation on media and information, journalist professional capacity building, bringing-up of democratic media-consumption culture among Ukrainians.

Detector Media produces its own media products (movies, talk-shows, analytics, graphics etc.), takes part in working groups and consulting bodies for public authorities, runs monitoring and researches, trainings for journalists and different public events (Detector Media, 2016 a).

3.7.7. The School for regional journalists (The Media Development Foundation)

The Media Development Foundation (MDF) is Ukrainian Center of Excellence and a Media Expertise hub focused on empowering journalists and media organizations. The School for regional journalists (SRJ) was launched in 2015 and has already organized 5 schools of 55 participants. It provides trainings, master classes for experienced journalists from Ukraine's oblasts. The School consists of three parts. Participants are selected on a competitive basis.

The first one is a five-day course which consists of master classes from top experts from the following areas: content, digital, financial and management (leadership). The second part is a two-week paid internship at a leading newsroom. Here participants test earlier learnings and get hands-on experience working in some of Ukraine's best media teams. Finally, participants hold post-training sessions at their home outlets ("train the trainer" model), sharing their new knowledge and skills (MDF, 2018).

3.7.8. High school Media & Production (1+1 media company)

High School of Media & Production is an educational project proposed by 1+1 media company since September 12, 2013. As it is written at their website, their main goal is to provide a high-quality world-class media education in Ukraine. It offers courses and trainings both for beginners and for qualified practitioners who want to improve their skills.

The School's team proposes the following educational programs:

- TV production;
- Media management;

- Journalism and news;
- Presenters of programs and entertainment shows;
- New media;
- Children’s media school.

According to its official information, since 2013 more than 600 students have graduated the School and a lot of graduates joined 1+1 media team (High school Media & Production, 2019).

3.7.9. Inter TV Channel’s Intershkola (Interschool)

Intershkola (Interschool) was created on the basis of nationwide Ukrainian Inter TV channel in 2006. Intershkola (Interschool) delivers training for 12 media profiles:

Producer	Cameraman	Videograph
Editor	TV-presenter	Digital in media
Sound producer	Journalist	TV Kid, children contest
Script-writing editor	Picture editor	Media Star, teenage course

The lecturers are successful Ukrainian and foreign journalists. Intershkola’s (Interschool’s) intentions are the following:

- To train promising young people about the fundamentals of quality media content production;
- To improve professional skills of the Inter Media Group staff and of colleagues from other media;
- To develop Ukrainian media following the international media experience;

This school has different programs: comprehensive media specializations, practice workshops, master classes, open events and joint cultural projects. While training, the students produce their own media projects for portfolio. Within the graduate assignment, students may

produce videos in original format and express their vision. Certificates of participation in the Intershkola (Interschool) program are awarded to graduates. Successful students may join the Inter Media Group team (Interschool, 2019)

3.7.10. Ukraina (Ukraine) TV channel's MediaMaysternya

MediaMaysternya (Media Workshop) is a free-of-charge educational project of the Siogodni (Today) information platform and the Ukraina (Ukraine) TV channel; it started in 2016. They specialize in one area: TV journalism.

The main purpose of MediaMaysternya is to share the high-quality skills with those who wish to work in journalism. Master classes and trainings are held by well-known TV-presenters, experienced journalists, media managers and media trainers. This knowledge may be tested in practice: the students may have internships at the channel's shows: Siogodni (Today) news, Holovna Tema (Main Subject), Ranok Z Ukrainoyu (Morning with Ukraine) etc. The best-performing students get a job offer.

The project is popular. The summer 2018 season had over 30 applications per opening. Since 2016, the MediaMaysternya had 39 students in total, 8 of them got employed by channels within the Media Group Ukraine (Kanal Ukraina, 2018).

3.7.11. The "Day" newspaper's Summer School of Journalism

The "Day" newspaper's Summer School of Journalism was founded by chief editor of "Day" Larysa Ivshyna in 2002 with understanding that universities do not meet the demands to cultivate intelligent journalism. There have been more than 600 graduates from the School since its foundation. In the last three years (2016-2018), the School is supported by the NATO's Information and Documentation Centre in Ukraine.

First of all, the School is designed for contemporary young people who seek to become journalists. This "Day's" project sets a valuable and meaningful "frame of reference" for their

further activities. Their task is to bring up not a "stand to the dictaphone", but thoughtful journalists with a civic stance, who are open, unbiased and at the same time aimed at building up their own strong state.

The "Day" newspaper's Summer School of Journalism is held on the basis of the editorial office where the participants selected in the competition (students of different courses and specialties (although mostly journalism) from different Ukrainian universities and abroad acquire practical journalism skills while working with the editorial staff and meeting with the invited lecturers. The duration of the School is usually a month during which students have meetings in an interview format with approximately 30 lecturers, visit the Committee on Foreign Affairs of the Verkhovna Rada, the editorial office of one of the leading Ukrainian TV channels, certain NGOs, etc. for acquaintance with their work. Students are also attached to editorial units (in particular, departments of politics, economics, international information, society, media and web publishing, correspondent, culture, "History and "I") and prepare, under the guidance of the editors, their own journalistic articles on different topics, published in the newspaper and on the website of the "Day", in addition to materials on meetings with lecturers. This School encourages their students to write their own blogs. For this purpose a separate section is allocated on the site at <http://day.kyiv.ua/uk/article/blog-lshzh>. The "Day's" Summer School of Journalism aims to train competent beginner journalists with the knowledge of the current socio-political situation, who give weight to historical knowledge, have a value-oriented outlook and active civic stance. In addition, security issues have become of special importance in recent years (Kharchenko, 2019).

Conclusion

The current (2018) formal Ukrainian journalism education remains highly criticized for its quality by journalists, the media industry and educators. While educators accuse the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine of its ineffective reforms, the media industry and NGOs offer effective non-formal training for journalists.

So, it's time to observe how journalists put their knowledge and skills into practice and what the professional environment in Ukraine is like. The next part will shed light on these questions.

CHAPTER 4

MEDIA ENVIRONMENT IN UKRAINE AS OF 2018

The quality of future journalists' preparation is considered important, as we have already observed in the three previous chapters. Still, there is no unified algorithm, which can suit all the countries within different media system classifications to help improve their journalism education. If not ideal, then the proper preparation to let journalists do quality work should exist. However, the job market should operate within transparent and proper frameworks to accomplish this task.

Whether the condition of the Ukrainian media market and journalistic profession is adequate for all the skills and knowledge taught, we are going to check in this chapter.

4.1. Ukrainian journalism under pressure of historical, political, and nowadays circumstances

From 1922 till 1991, during the period of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), the profession of journalist in Ukraine was developed in accordance to the Soviet Communist model. In that model, as Siebert, Peterson and Schramm wrote in their book *Four theories of the press*, journalists were instruments of retelling messages from Communist Party and profession of journalism fulfilled mostly functions of propaganda with rare critics towards ruling party. The main task of journalism was to unify public opinion and campaign in the favor of the ruling party; private ownership in the media was impossible, all the existing media were established and controlled by the state (Siebert, Peterson and Schramm, 1963:105). Hence, Ukrainian media like all Soviet media functioned as ideological voices of the communist regime instead of providing an independent communication platform for society and government (Orlova, 2013:35).

The pro-Russian influence was framing Ukraine on different levels of its evolution, because during a long period Ukraine has been the part of the USSR (1922-1991), playing the

role of “younger brother”. As a result, Russia treated Ukraine as its territorial appendage or “okraina” (outskirt) (Yermolenko, 2019).

Much harm was done – starting from prohibition to speak, write and read in Ukrainian (for example, in 1922) and ending by holodomors (derived from "to kill by starvation") – 1921-1923, 1932-1933, 1946-1947. Such facts were hushed up and were not widespread via Ukrainian mass media, because they were under control of the communist party. Those of the few foreign journalists, who visited Ukraine during holodomors and reported the truth, were accused of telling lies (Tereshchuk, 2018).

Though there were dissidents among Ukrainian journalists who produced *samvydavy* (self-published materials) – in Ukrainian tradition this term was proposed by Ukrainian writer Ivan Bahrianyi (real name - Ivan Lozoviaha) in 1929, as Ukrainian historian and journalist Vakhtanh Kipiani admits. *Samvydavy* signifies newspapers which were published illegally and contained censored and patriotic information. Such partisans were traced and harshly punished by the Soviet authorities (Lesnevskaya, 2011).

Even having become independent in 1991, Ukraine remained under Russia’s control. For example, Russian agents since the Soviet period have been embedded into high positions at different administrative levels in Ukraine and with the help of political parties continue to disseminate pro-Russian messages nowadays (Yermolenko, 2019). Many of these agents became owners of Ukrainian mass media – for example, Victor Medvedchuk (Zubchenko, 2018).

As a post-soviet country, Ukraine is still struggling with its soviet heritage at many institutional levels. In particular, dramatic events in 2013 were primarily connected with a strong desire of many Ukrainians to change a vector of Ukraine’s development from a pro-Russian with its pro-soviet authoritarian policy to a Western one. Ukrainian students were first protestors who came in late November of 2013 to the Square of Independence in Kyiv, capital of Ukraine, to declare to the president of that time Viktor Yanukovych that his decision not to enter the EU had nothing common with their own.

A clash between representatives of a new generation and pro-soviet people has occurred. As well as Ukrainian journalism environment has divided into two parts: those who supported protestors and the idea of a pro-Western approach of their state's development and others who maintained a pro-Russian position and covered events of 2014 accordingly.

The protest in Kyiv which started in late 2013 was called the Revolution of Dignity. During that time, young people were beaten; some girls and boys have been announced missing for a long period. Later on, the 20-th of February 2014, 105 people were killed on the Square of Independence in Kyiv, and they were called "Nebesna sotnia" (Heavenly Hundred Heroes) (Ministry of Information Policy of Ukraine, 2015).

In spring 2014 Russia annexed Ukrainian Crimea and some Donbas territories (Luhansk and Donetsk cities) and the war in Ukraine has begun. This was the result of the Russian hybrid war and neo-imperial aggressive geopolitics of the Kremlin, as many Ukrainian scientists state (Razumkov Centre, 2019:4). According to data as of February 2019 provided in the report by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) on the human rights situation in Ukraine, "some 13,000 people have been killed, a quarter of them civilians, and as many as 30,000 wounded in the war in eastern Ukraine since it broke out in April 2014" (Radio Liberty, 2019). About 1.8 million inhabitants of Donbas and Crimea became internally displaced, 43.7 thousand km² of Ukrainian territories remain occupied, as data evidence in the report *The Donbas War: Realities and Prospects for Settlement* (Razumkov Centre, 2019:3).

The mentioned above horrible crimes, violations and their results were prepared (Smee, 2016) and reported with the help of manipulation created by Russian domestic mass media, social media (Lange-Ionatamišvili, 2015; Wasiuta, O, Wasiuta, S, 2016) and those media which are financed by Russia and cover many countries all over the world (Alandete, 2018; Eu vs Disinfo, 2017).

Still, there are media in Ukraine, which also distort facts and the meaning of many events, as national researches prove (IMI, 2019 a). It is a direct result of an unhealthy media

environment in Ukraine because Ukrainian journalism remains under political pressure, media owners' dependence (Ryabinska, 2014; IMI, 2018), regional differences in working conditions (Kutovenko, 2014; Honchenko, 2019; Telekritika, 2020); with breaking professional standards (IMI, 2018; Pylyp Orlyk Institute for Democracy, 2019; Zubchenko, 2018) and not efficient preparation of students at Ukrainian journalism departments (Demchenko, 2018; NGO Detector media, 2018). Nevertheless, as Brogi indicates, problems with adherence to professional standards and media owner's policy remain in many countries all over the world (Brogi et al., 2018).

Ukrainian journalists have faced a lot of challenges since 2014 when the annexation of Crimea by Russia happened and the war between Ukraine and Russia started. For example, they had to be taught how to behave in a war area, how to protect themselves to save lives. Also, fact-checking and verification techniques, knowledge and skills of how to analyze and present data became very important for Ukrainian journalists because they began to resist Russian propaganda and fakes. Unfortunately, these skills are not in the focus of curricula at overwhelming Ukrainian departments of journalism as an analysis of curricula's content shows (NGO Detector media, 2018).

Moreover, students at the journalism department should be taught how to report about events that occur in the Eastern part of Ukraine balancing between professional standards and their own personal attitude, as many media experts state (NGO Detector media, 2018). Still, the question is open among Ukrainian journalists whether to report as professional journalists or as patriots of the country which was aggressively and treacherously attacked by its neighbor (Budiwska, 2015). As a result, as Fedchenko indicates, the so-called 'patriotic journalism' – "a form of journalism that eschews the traditional standards of conventional journalism in favor of overt support for a country's chosen narrative as a tool for legitimizing propaganda" – has become another challenge (Fedchenko, 2016:57).

4.2. Ukrainian media environment

Ukraine's media system underwent tremendous changes since Ukraine has become an independent democratic state, as Dyczok states: it went from being part of a closed, highly centralized, state owned soviet media system, to a geographically re-territorialized, diverse, modern media environment integrated into global communication networks. But during the period of Ukrainian independence Ukrainian media play a real role in the development of business and media market, but not a democratic one (Dyczok, 2009). Currently (2019), Ukrainian media continue to implement a function of influence with an aim to achieve political goals and business interests (Kravets, 2018; Movchan, 2016).

Large media holdings were established in the mid-90s of the twentieth century. That was the time when the financial-industrial groups (nowadays they are called oligarchic) accumulated their original assets; over the independence years, they got stronger and started influencing many processes in the country. And media in their hands became a political struggle tool (especially, in election periods) (NGO Detector media, 2019). As a result, the political polarization of the media environment remains one of the undisputed issues (PACE, 2018).

As a rule, the majority of large media owners possess enterprises in different industrial sectors (refining, chemical, heavy machinery construction, etc.) and, therefore, those businessmen are often loyal to the authorities in order to save their businesses. These facts impact the editorial policy of Ukrainian media and media content contains propaganda, manipulation or even the lie, as national reports confirm (NGO Detector media, 2019).

The *Hromadske TV* and *Hromadske Radio* founded by journalists in late 2013 and supported by Western donors don't fit in this oligarchic frame. Neither do the representatives of foreign media in Ukraine, like *Radio Liberty (USA)*, *BBC (UK)*, *Deutsche Welle (Germany)* funded by tax-payers of their countries of origin. But they are not strong enough to compete with the oligarchic media (Dutsyk, 2017).

Media like Ukrayinska Pravda, Hromadske.ua, Hromadske Radio, *Novoe Vremya*, *Krayina*, and *Tyzhden*, as well as media projects like *Detector media* and *StopFake*, are truly independent, and one should expect their numbers to only increase (Rybak, 2018).



Sources: National Council on Television and Radio Broadcasting — <http://bit.ly/TV-rating>
 Ukrainian Internet Association — <http://bit.ly/news-websites-rating>
 Kantar TNS — <http://bit.ly/print-media-rating>

Source: Euromaidan Press, 2018: <http://euromaidanpress.com/2018/02/07/paid-word-who-owns-ukrainian-media/>

According to data provided by Television Industry Committee (TIC, 2019), among top-10 channels in Ukraine with share (%) and rating (%) variables are the following mass media which are financed by Ukrainian oligarchs:

№	Channel	Age 18-54 cities 50+	
		rat%	shr%
1	Channel Ukraine	1,18	10,74
2	ICTV	1,15	10,48

3	1+1	1,06	9,62
4	STB	0,73	6,61
5	New channel	0,66	6,04
6	Inter	0,61	5,53
7	2+2	0,46	4,18
8	TET	0,36	3,25
9	NTN	0,25	2,26
10	NLO-TV	0,24	2,17

Table 2. Rating and share of top-10 Ukrainian TV channels in cities with population 50.000 and more, aged 18-54. Source: <http://tampanel.com.ua/en/rubrics/canals/>.

Professional standards for ethical and accountable journalism are an important defense against disinformation and misinformation (Ireton & Posetti, 2018:21), as well as against media barons' pressure (Kus, Rus-Mohl, & Szynol, 2013). Nevertheless, as regular Ukrainian analyzes of media's content provided by national media NGOs confirm, Ukrainian mass media violate professional standards and many of them produce pro-Russian content (Zubchenko, 2018; IMI, 2019).

This situation is verified by IREX in its international annual reports. For example, in 2018 they wrote: "Panelists observed a deterioration of professional standards and ethical observance, noting the continued profusion of jeansa (commissioned stories and hidden advertising conferred on political or business interests for pay) and widespread self-censorship" (IREX, 2018:225).

4.3. How much Ukrainian journalists are paid?

Low salaries for Ukrainian journalists are another urgent problem in a profession of a journalist because this situation, as Grynko underlined in 2012, was the reason for paid-for materials and a high level of self-censorship in Ukraine (Grynko, 2012:267). In 2013 Ukrainian NGO IMI in their report appealed with the demand to increase salaries for Ukrainian journalists, especially in regions, in order to end up with this negative trend in Ukrainian journalism (IMI, 2013).

Nevertheless, in Ukraine the situation with salaries among journalists has not been improved till nowadays (2018): salaries of Ukrainian journalists varied greatly in comparison with region to region, on the one hand, and region to Kyiv, capital of Ukraine, on the other. For example, a journalist from Western part of Ukraine at an average earned 230\$, while in Eastern Ukraine regional journalist was paid at an average 180 \$ (Trud.com, 2018). In the capital city of Kyiv salaries were higher – nearly 600 \$ (Trud.com, 2018).

Three factors affect the salary of those who work in journalism in Ukraine: professional position, location, and gender. One may get data on the salary of Ukrainian journalists from three sources: State Statistics Service of Ukraine, official websites of Ukrainian media outlets and websites of Ukrainian recruiting companies. But comparing the data from these sources gives contrasting figures: according to the official statistics, the journalists' salaries in the country are growing almost in geometric progression, while employers offer lower salaries on job vacancies websites. For example, official statistics says that in January 2018 the average monthly salary of a media employee was nearly 450 \$ (12,248 ₴) (the rate change in 2018 was 1 dollar (\$) = nearly 27 hryvnias (₴), and in December it increased to 515 \$ (13,912 ₴) (State Statistics Service of Ukraine, 2018).

At the same time, the information taken from the job search sites rabota.ua, hh.ua and work.ua shows that Ukrainian mass media labor market has an opposite trend: as it turned out, the media workers' salaries in the country, unadjusted for inflation, started dropping down over the 2018. If in January 2017 a journalist in Ukraine earned 207 \$ (5,600 ₴) on an average, then in December 2018 their remuneration dropped to 200 \$ (5,400 ₴) (the rate change in 2018 was 1 dollar (\$) = nearly 27 hryvnias (₴), according to the statistics of the website trud.com (Trud.com, 2018). Kyiv with nearly 600 \$ (16,250 ₴) on an average had the highest salaries for media professionals in 2018 (Trud.com, 2018).

Over 70% of central offices of key media outlets are located in Kyiv. In all regions, the highest salaries are offered to the television workers, the lowest ones are in the print media (Trud.com, 2018).

As for gender pay gap in Ukraine, this question remained disputed in 2018, too. For instance, on average Ukrainian women got 23, 9% less than men at the same positions in all professions (Sogodni, 2018), though no official statistics is available in terms of a journalistic profession. We can only observe data about Ukraine described in 2012 by three international institutions: The Wage Indicator Foundation in collaboration with The International Federation of Journalists (IFJ) and Central European Labour Studies Institute (CELSI). In 2012 they presented a report “Gender Pay Gap in Journalism. Wage Indicator Global Report 2012”. They used the following formula to compare gender pay gap among journalists from 16 countries (Argentina, Belarus, Belgium, Brazil, Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, Mexico, Netherlands, Russian Federation, South Africa, Spain, Ukraine and United Kingdom):

$$\text{Pay gap} = \frac{\text{Median wage}_{\text{female}} - \text{Median wage}_{\text{male}}}{\text{Median wage}_{\text{male}}} * 100\%$$

The main conclusion was that male wages exceeded female wages in all 16 studied countries. As for Ukraine, it received the worst wage rate among post-Soviet studied countries: 5232 ₴ (654 \$) (the rate change in 2011 was 1 dollar (\$) = nearly 8 hryvnias (₴)) (Wage Indicator Foundation:2012:10) and gender pay gap with a disadvantage for women was between -33% (raw pay gap) to -18% (equivalent pay gap) (Wage Indicator Foundation:2012:12).

Unfortunately, no international research with gender pay gap comparison in the journalistic profession has been conducted again till 2018, though this problem continued to be discussed in many countries worldwide. For instance, a scandal in the BBC has alarmed profoundly the journalistic environment not only in Great Britain. In late January 2018 a campaign group of 170 BBC women (Allsop, 2018) declared results of auditors' report which evidenced gender bias pay gap at the BBC: "Not everyone is paid the same, and in some cases men and women in comparable roles are paid differently. While there are some differences to address, we have not seen anything in our work which leads us to believe this is as a result of gender bias in the setting of pay" (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2018:2).

Conclusion

The "oligarcazation" of Ukrainian media, non-compliance of ethical and professional standards, and low salaries of Ukrainian journalists remain the main trends of the Ukrainian media environment. Whether efficient journalism education can improve this situation is a disputed issue in Ukraine.

CHAPTER 5

EPISTEMOLOGICAL BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Introduction

Philosophical worldview or scientific paradigm explains the background of the study and identifies the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study. According to Creswell, philosophical ideas influence the practice of research and thus they need to be identified. Moreover, every research is guided by epistemological assumptions which help in creating a world of knowledge in terms of a particular researched field (Creswell, 2014:33-37).

There are two major philosophical epistemological traditions—positivist and interpretivist (Williamson, 2006:84). Interpretivist philosophy which deals with meanings and experiences of human beings (Williamson, 2006) was guided by data analysis process. According to this approach, researchers gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon and its complexity in its unique context (Pham, 2018). In our case, journalists' answers during focus groups will help make sense of Ukrainian journalism education within its specific educational paradigm that has not yet got rid of the Soviet heritage and simultaneously is trying to implement pro-Western teaching approaches.

We are going to use a constructionism theory to put into practice this task. It originated as an attempt to come to terms with the nature of the reality (Andrews, 2012) and is typically seen as an approach to qualitative research (Creswell, 2014:37) in order to understand the context or setting of the participants through visiting this context and gathering information personally (Crotty, 1998:13).

Social constructivists believe that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. Individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences— meanings directed toward certain objects or things. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the

researcher to look for the complexity of views (Creswell, 2014:37). Thus, this theory will help in knowing how Ukrainian journalists' educational experience was being formed and how it reflects their current professional field.

In our case, Ukrainian journalists shared their experience during focus groups in terms of their educational background. They evaluated the educational process at their journalism departments, the non-formal education and identified its advantages and disadvantages, gave vivid examples and methods of teaching approaches, and explained why their knowledge was or was not used in their profession.

5.1. Methodology

Qualitative research is establishing itself in many social sciences, in psychology, in nursing, and the like. To answer the research questions, it deals with text. Methods for collecting information within it —interviews or observations—produce data, which are transformed into texts by recording and transcription. Methods of interpretation start from the texts (Flick, 2009:4). Qualitative research explains how it may be useful for exploring “why” rather “how many” (Grundey, Stancu & Zaharia, 2008:279). Doing qualitative research is about putting oneself in another person's shoes and seeing the world from that person's perspective, the most important part of data analysis and management is to be true to the participants (Austin, Z., & Sutton, J., 2015). In other words, the goal of qualitative research can be stated as “*in-depth understanding*” (Nastasi, 2015:1).

In qualitative research descriptive data are applied. The data take the form of words or pictures rather than numbers. Often the descriptive data contain quotations said by informants to illustrate and substantiate the presenting findings (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007:1). In this thesis results achieved are divided into categories. While describing them, direct quotations from focus groups are presented.

Data are analyzed inductively, as it is envisaged by qualitative study. As the hypothesis was not the starting point in this research, the researcher did not prove or disprove something. The aim was to find out whether journalism education in Ukraine works in practice by using journalists' answers about advantages and disadvantages of Ukrainian journalism education (both formal and non-formal).

Thus, as Bogdan and Biklen recommended, results in this thesis came from the bottom of the data (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007:2) – ten focus groups were encoded and analyzed according to identified categories. Things were more open at the beginning and more directed and specific at the end of the analysis. Common patterns in terms of the researched field which helped group results and recommendations were identified.

Procedures such as how to construct a questionnaire, how to design an experiment, and how to statistically analyze data have become increasingly refined (Flick, 2009:13). The essential features of qualitative research are the recognition and analysis of different perspectives; the researchers' reflections on their research as part of the process of knowledge production; and the variety of approaches and methods (Flick, 2009:14). Qualitative methods take the researcher's communication with the field and its members as an explicit part of knowledge (Flick, 2009:16).

To make this communication comfortable and in order not to harm somebody, codes of ethics for conducting research exist. Their aim is to regulate the relations of researchers with the people and fields they intend to study. As Flick observes, principles of research ethics identify that researchers avoid harming participants involved in the process by respecting and taking into account their needs and interests (Flick, 2009:36).

In this thesis ethical principles worked out by *The British Sociological Association (BSA)* were carefully read and taken into account at different stages of organizing and conducting the research (The British Sociological Association, 2002). Along with the recommendation mentioned above by Flick, they underline that all respondents should be treated equally; their

values and decisions should be taken into account during all the stages of research - while gathering, interpreting, and publishing results. So did the researcher of this thesis.

5.2. Methods of research

Method of focus groups discussions with Ukrainian journalists who entered the profession of a journalist with formal and/or non-formal journalism preparation was used in order to understand the main features of Ukrainian journalism education.

A focus group typically consists of 7-10 people who are usually unfamiliar with each other. The group discussion is conducted several times with similar types of participants to identify trends and patterns in perceptions. Careful and systematic analysis of the discussions provide clues and insights as to how a product, service, or opportunity is perceived by the group (Marczak & Sewell, 2011). Group discussion is particularly appropriate when the interviewer has a series of open ended questions (Kitzinger, 1995:299).

While analyzing data gathered, the researcher draws together and compares discussions of similar themes (Kitzinger, 1995:301) in order to make generalizations. Interpretation of the material proceeds sequentially, with the aim of arriving at more general statements from the comparison of cases (Flick, 2009:207). In coding the script of a group discussion, it is worth using special categories for certain types of narrative (Kitzinger, 1995:302)

The theoretical background of the method is the joint construction of reality. The aim is the development of theories grounded in these constructions (Flick, 2009:207). According to Berger, reality is socially constructed and that the sociology of knowledge must analyze the process in which this occurs. The key terms in these contentions are reality and knowledge (Berger & Luckmann, 1991:13). In this research, journalists will construct their educational reality with the help of the knowledge and experience they received while entering the professional field. Their experience will be the first-hand source data.

While reading the literature about focus groups, the answer on the question about representative sample size was not clear. Researchers very often relied on rules of thumb or personal judgment (Guest, G., Namey, E., & McKenna, K., 2016). For example, as Morgan says, “the most common rule of thumb is that most projects consist of four to six focus groups” (Morgan, 1996:144). Meanwhile Nastasi writes, “as some researchers say the size of the sample should be large enough to leave you with “nothing left to learn” (Nastasi, 2015).

According to result of a thematic analysis conducted by Guest, Namey and McKenna, “more than 80% of all themes were discoverable within two to three focus groups, and 90% were discoverable within three to six focus groups” (Guest, G., Namey, E., & McKenna, K. , 2016). A lot of researchers support this statement by empirical experiments. For instance, as Morgan cites Zeller, “the data become “saturated” and little new information emerges after the first few focus groups” (Zeller, cited in Morgan, 1996:144).

The same tendency was observed during the third focus group and was confirmed later during other focus groups in different parts of Ukraine. To add more, as 10 focus groups for this research were conducted during 2015-2018, and journalists’ age differed, interpretivist approach proved that journalism educational reality in Ukraine constructed by those who had experienced it has a lot of common features.

Thus, taking into consideration the mentioned above, 10 focus groups in our case was a proper sample size to identify common categories and to have less left to learn.

5.3. Sampling of the Study and Data Collection

Theoretical sampling means selecting subjects who represent the important characteristics that researchers consider of interest to the study (Williamson, 2006:86). Qualitative studies often use purposeful or criterion-based sampling (Nastasi, 2015).

For this research purposive sample was applied. A purposive sample is a non-probability sample that is selected based on characteristics of a population and the objective of the study.

Purposive sampling is also known as judgmental, selective, or subjective sampling, as Crossman describes (Crossman, 2018). As there are some types of this sample, an expert purposive sample was chosen according to the purpose and research questions of this study.

Expert sampling is a form of purposive sampling used when research requires one to capture knowledge rooted in a particular form of expertise. It is common to use this form of purposive sampling technique in the early stages of a research process, when the researcher is seeking to become better informed about the topic at hand before embarking on a study. Doing this kind of early-stage expert-based research can shape research questions and research design in important ways (Crossman, 2018). In this research we assume that Ukrainian journalists are our experts because as recipients of skills and knowledge from different educational institutions (formal and non-formal) they can know what advantages and disadvantages both types of journalism education in Ukraine has.

In our case focus groups with Ukrainian journalists who entered the profession with formal and/or non-formal journalism education were set up to explore whether either type of education is more efficient for contemporary journalists in Ukraine. To collect data, 10 focus groups comprised of 92 Ukrainian journalists were completed.

The respondents of the first five focus groups (comprised of 46 journalists) were journalists with or without formal journalism education who took part in non-formal, vocational education provided by the following Ukrainian NGOs and educational programs:

- Internews Ukraine (<http://www.internews.ua/>),
- DFJ (<http://j-school.kiev.ua/dfj/about/>),
- Centre for Democracy and Rule of Law (CEDEM) – former MLI (<http://cedem.org.ua/>),
- Academy of Ukrainian Press (<http://www.aup.com.ua/en/mission/>), and
- The New Ukraine School of Professional Journalism.

Participants were selected according to the following criteria: age, sex, region where they live, company in which they work, and their personal motivation to take part in training. The selection was made proportionally to every criterion, according to the organizers of non-formal journalism education. The first five focus groups (numbers 1-5) were organized with the help of these NGOs and educational programs.

The remaining five focus groups (numbers 6-10) comprised of 46 graduates from 18 Ukrainian departments of journalism. They were conducted by the researcher with the help of personal contacts in the following Ukrainian cities: Kyiv (capital of Ukraine), Cherkasy (central Ukraine), Lviv (western Ukraine), Mariupol (eastern Ukraine), and Odesa (southern Ukraine). Forty-six participants represented Ukrainian departments of journalism from the following universities:

- the Kyiv-Mohyla School of Journalism, National University Kyiv-Mohyla academy, Kyiv
- Institute of Journalism, Kyiv International University, Kyiv
- Department of Trade and Marketing, Chair of Marketing and Advertising, Kyiv National University of Trade and Economics, Kyiv
- Institute of Journalism, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Kyiv
- Department of Journalism and International Relations, Kyiv National University of Culture and Arts, Kyiv
- Institute of Journalism, Borys Grinchenko, Kyiv University, Kyiv
- Department of International Relations, Chair of Journalism, Advertising and PR, National Aviation University, Kyiv
- Department of Ukrainian Philology and Writing, Andrii Malyshko, Chair of Journalism, Mykhailo Dragomanov National Pedagogical University, Kyiv
- Institute of Publishing and Printing, Chair of Publishing, National Technical University of Ukraine “Kyiv Polytechnic Institute”, Kyiv
- Department of Journalism, Odesa National Academy of Law, Odesa

- Institute of Information Society Issues, Chair of Political Science, Sociology and Social Communications, O. Popov Odessa National Academy of Telecommunication, Odessa
- Department of Humanities, Chair of Information Activities and Media Communications, Odessa National Polytechnic University, Odessa
- Department of Journalism, Advertising and Publishing, I. Mechnykov Odessa National University, Odessa
- Department of Journalism, Ivan Franko Lviv National University, Lviv
- Institute of Law and Psychology, Chair of Journalism and Mass Media, Lviv Polytechnic National University, Lviv
- UCU School of Journalism, Ukrainian Catholic University, Lviv
- Department of Philology and Mass Communications, Mariupol State University, Mariupol, Donetsk Oblast
- Institute of Ukrainian Philology and Social Communications, Chair of Journalism, Advertising and PR Technologies, Bohdan Khmelnytsky Cherkasy National University, Cherkasy.

Respondents who participated in these 10 focus groups ranged in age from 22 to 33 and represented different regions of all parts of Ukraine. They graduated from universities during the following period: 2007 – 2017 years. Thus, data received helped compare quality of journalism preparation in Ukraine during the ten-year span. Our respondents worked in different types of Ukrainian media (private and state-owned): television, radio, online media, and print media (weekly, monthly, and daily). There were journalists who worked in news production or investigative journalism, while others were interested in social, cultural, economic, or political topics, and some were involved in entertainment journalism.

As for gender composition, there were more women than men:

Gender composition of focus groups

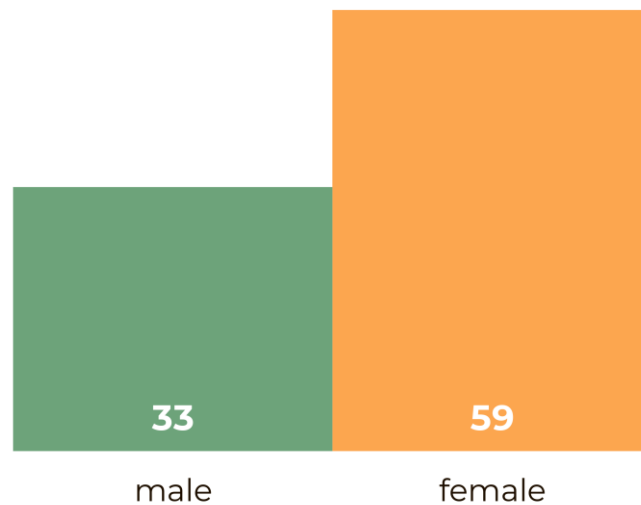


Table 3. Gender composition of focus groups conducted with Ukrainian journalists in 2015-2018.

Author: Karolina Uskakovych.

10 focus groups comprised of 92 Ukrainian journalists were conducted between January 2015 and April 2018 (see Appendix 4). This time span was chosen to see whether results of two reform projects that started in 2011 unfolded their effects on journalism education. These projects were 1) *Passport of profession* (a collaboration between nine Ukrainian journalism departments, representatives of the media market, and the Ukrainian Ministry of Education with essential support from NGOs, started in 2011 and ended in 2014), 2) the *Digital Media for Universities (DMU)* program, a project on the basis of the Mohyla School of Journalism in order to teach lecturers how to implement new skills within the developed educational standards in journalism programs.

However, both projects were stopped in 2014 due to war between Ukraine and Russia in eastern Ukraine, and their preliminary results were ignored by the Ukrainian Ministry of Education. Thus, the long-time span chosen was initially meant to reflect possible changes in education, however, now it rather shows the continuing problems of journalism education.

Each focus group discussion took nearly 1 hour and 45 minutes. Only those journalists who agreed to take part in the research were involved in the focus groups. All the focus groups were recorded with the help of dictaphone and smartphone. Two gadgets were used in order to have the second version of information in case the first is damaged. As respondents of focus groups were Ukrainians, the transcribed texts were in Ukrainian. Only common categories identified, and the most vivid examples and citations were translated into English.

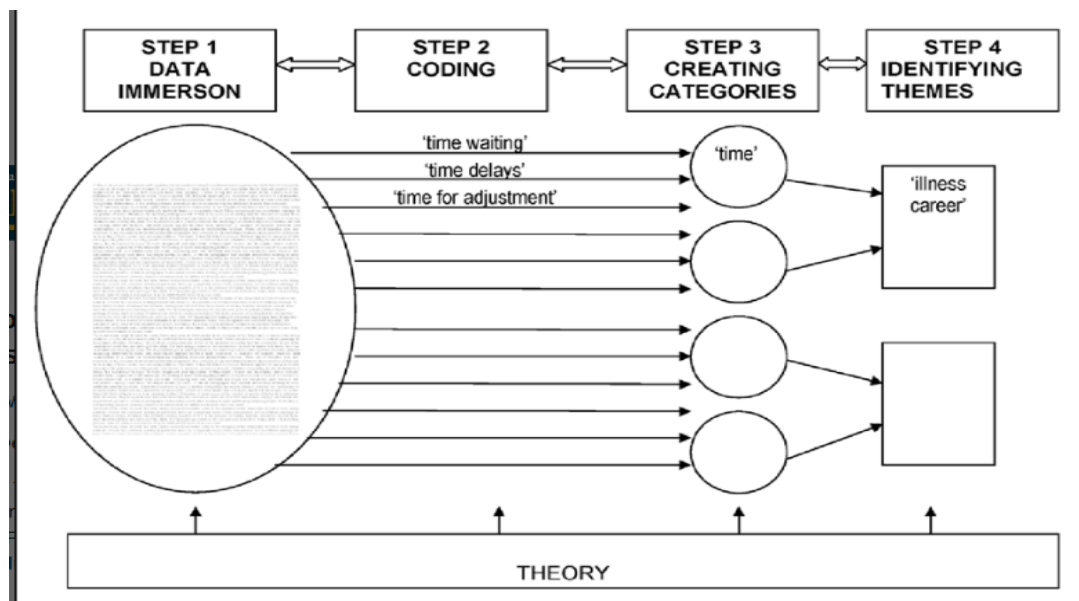
In order to give answers on all questions, a proper questionnaire should be prepared. The construction of a good questionnaire is a complex process, as Williamson writes. If a semi-structured interview schedule is used, it should be piloted (Williamson, 2006:88). In this research a semi-structured questionnaire was prepared and tested during one focus group in December 2014. It was added regarding some topics which appeared and were critically commented by respondents.

After a pilot focus group, some corrections were made into a list of questions. As journalists with non-formal journalistic background took part in focus groups, they could not compare formal journalism education with non-formal, but instead gave a lot of examples about their non-formal journalism educational experience. Thus, a section about formal journalism education was narrowed; and more space was left for a discussion of a non-formal journalism education and journalists' discussion of their educational background and how it helps or not in their professional environment. The final variant of the list of questions for conducting focus groups was used (see Appendix 5).

5.4. Data Analysis Process

Data analysis is a systematic and essentially taxonomic process of sorting and classifying the data that have been collected. It consists of four key steps: immersion in the data, coding, creating categories, and the identification of themes. Nevertheless, very often the fourth step may

not be applied. In systematically making sense of a whole dataset, the researcher moves back and forth through the mentioned above research steps (Green et al., 2007:546):



Source: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/epdf/10.1111/j.1753-6405.2007.00141.x>

Immersion into qualitative data in this research means precise and detailed reading and re-reading of focus groups discussions' answers. Alongside the answers, the context of the answers means a lot. It enables, as Green et al. evidence, subsequent interpretation to fully account for the research context beyond transcripts (Green et al., 2007:547). Thus, as the researcher is a journalist and educator, she understands Ukrainian educational and professional environments. Moreover, during the focus groups discussions researcher asked additional questions to clarify details. Also, during each focus group discussion, the researcher was taking field notes. They helped in tagging each voice and in providing "important context to the interpretation of audio-taped data reminding the researcher of situational factors that may be important during data analysis" (Austin & Sutton, 2015). Thus, while decoding and transcribing each focus group, field notes helped a lot in coding. Such notes need not be formal, but they should be maintained and secured in a similar manner to audio tapes and transcripts, as they contain sensitive information and are relevant to the research (Austin & Sutton, 2015).

The second step of data analysis is coding, that is, the process of examining and organizing the information contained in each focus group and the whole dataset. Codes are descriptive labels that are applied to segments of the transcript (Green et al., 2007:548). This process enables the researcher to begin to understand the world from each participant's perspective (Austin & Sutton, 2015). After the focus groups were conducted, records encoded and data transcribed, the texts of respondents' answers were printed. While reading respondents' answers, the researcher labeled words, phrases or sentences that contained information about particular experience or case being mentioned or described. While coding data, some researchers make notes in the margins of the transcript, or color code using markers, or note line numbers relating to particular items on a separate sheet. Other researchers use a software package to keep track of codes. Whatever the method, coding consists of researchers effectively conducting a detailed, taxonomic process of sorting and tagging data (Green et al., 2007:548). In this research notes were made in the printed texts and codes were marked with the help of different colors (Appendix 6).

The third step in data analysis process is creation of coherent categories. It is concerned with looking for a 'good fit' between codes that share a relationship (Green et al., 2007:548). After detailed reading and re-reading of the respondents' answers, the data were carried out to categorize the ways in which participants of focus groups spoke about aspects of the issue under investigation – advantages and disadvantages of formal and non-formal journalism education in Ukraine.

Many researchers stop at this step and report findings based on categories. This is acceptable if made explicit (Green et al., 2007:548). In our case data were gathered according to research limitations and it helped along finish analysis on this level. At this level the focus was made on dominant categories with presentation of illustrative quotes. But the researcher took into account recommendations from Green et al. and identified themes which can give evidence to social phenomena (Green et al., 2007:548) that should be researched more precisely. They are

the following: higher education, professional standards, corruption, ethical values, and bureaucracy.

5.5. Research Limitations

In terms of this research, there were limitations concerning methodological approach and resources.

The first limitation is connected with qualitative methodology and method of focus groups which were used to gather, analyze and describe data. Qualitative methodology is criticized by many researches that it is not “as well understood and accepted as quantitative research within the scientific community”, “researcher’s presence during data gathering, which is often unavoidable in qualitative research, can affect the subjects’ responses” (Anderson, 2010:2). Or it is accused of “reading into” texts things that are not here or of having...interpretations that seem odd, excessive” (Berger, 2000:28). Also, one of the questions that arise in qualitative research relates to the reliability of the interpretation and representation of the participants’ narratives. There are no statistical tests that can be used to check reliability and validity as there are in quantitative research (Austin & Sutton, 2015). Still, it has its own pluses. For instance, qualitative research gives the possibility to gather first-hand data and observe the process of discussion in order to moderate it.

As the aim of this research was to show by examples of respondents’ (journalists with formal or/ and non-formal journalism background) answers advantages and disadvantages of Ukrainian journalism education, qualitative research method justified its’ aim. Of course, the mixed research of quantitative and qualitative data analysis would have provided more details and proofs, but it demanded more resources and researchers involved in data gathering and analyzing processes.

As for the number of respondents, 92 journalists’ experience does not represent all the departments of journalism and NGOs or mass media which conduct non-formal journalism

education in Ukraine. Nevertheless, the sample geographically represented all parts of Ukraine: Central, Northern, Southern, Western, and Eastern. The Crimea which is occupied by Russia since 2014 was not included into the scope of this research as it was impossible to contact graduates from journalism departments and/or journalists who would have agreed to take part in focus groups.

As bias and subjectivity are not inherently negative but they are unavoidable in a qualitative research (Austin & Sutton, 2015), the researcher did not share her experience (because she was a student and is currently a senior lecturer at one of the Ukrainian journalism department) and was impartial during focus groups, though there were a lot of things which affected her. Instead the researcher created a friendly atmosphere and took into account respondent' request not to mention their surnames, though a lot of participants were not against it.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the description of the respondents' answers. Organization of the journalism educational process as a whole, the content of subjects taught, the professionalism of lecturers, technical support at Ukrainian journalism departments will be discussed. Also, data will evidence how useful formal journalism education was for graduates after graduating from the university and what things they lacked during their studies.

Journalists who took part in a non-formal journalism education only and entered the profession of the journalist with a non-journalism degree will explain why they chose non-formal education instead of formal and will share their arguments.

All the 92 respondents had common experience in non-formal journalism education, so they will discuss it and compare their thoughts with those who studied journalism in Ukrainian universities. Finally, respondents will share their own vision of changes in Ukrainian journalism education.

6.1. Formal journalism education at Ukrainian journalism departments: results of focus groups discussions

6.1.1. Educational background of Ukrainian journalists surveyed

The first section of focus groups’ discussion was devoted to the educational background which Ukrainian journalists had before entering the professional field and diploma in what field of science of higher education prevailed among Ukrainian journalists. The following categories were distinguished (Table 4):

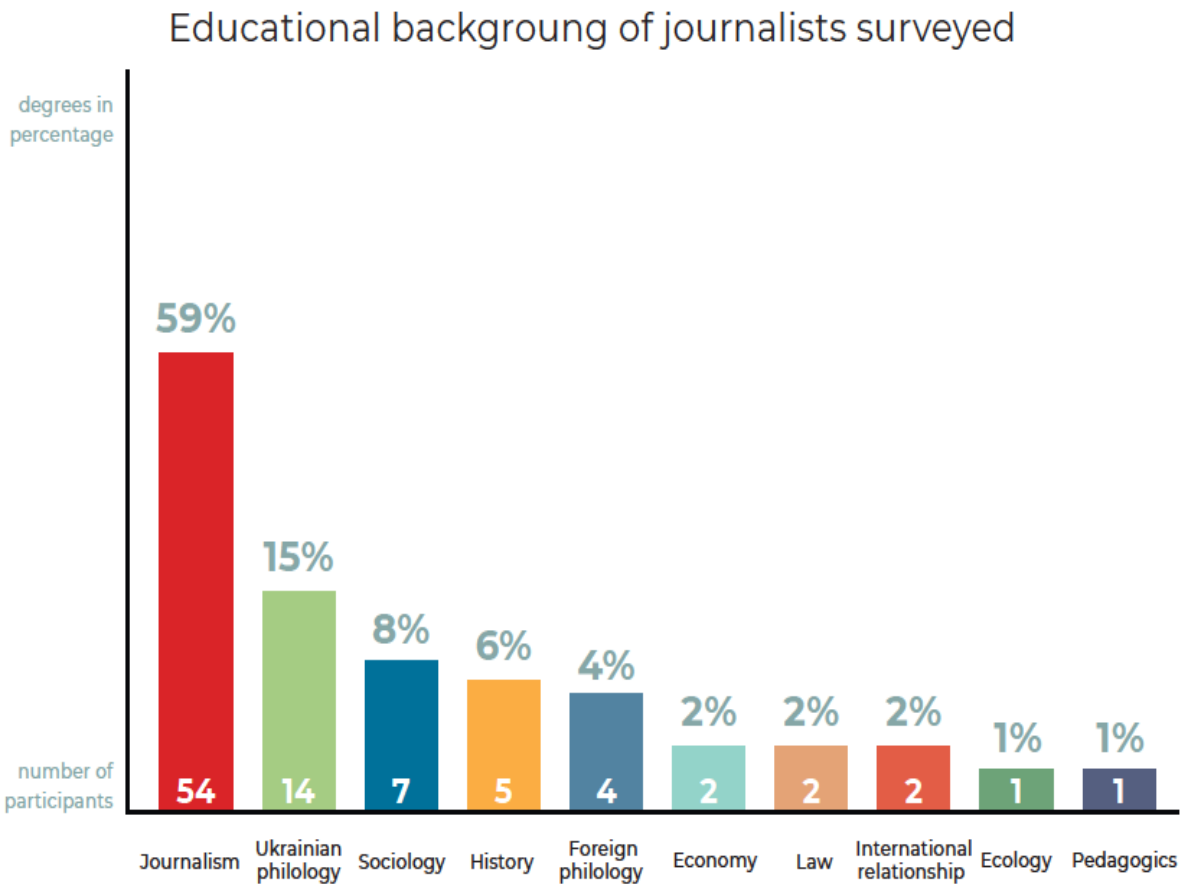


Table 4. Educational background of journalists surveyed. Author: Karolina Uskakovych

At first glance, we can notice that the overwhelming majority of respondents were Ukrainian journalists with formal journalism background. Still, taking into account that focus

groups 6-10 were conducted with 46 graduates from Ukrainian journalism departments from Kyiv, Lviv, Odesa, Mariupol and Cherkasy cities (representing geographically all parts of Ukraine), we can observe that among focus groups 1-5 conducted with 46 Ukrainian journalists who participated in non-formal journalism education, only 8 journalists had university degree in journalism, while 38 journalists had not.

Moreover, among 46 graduates who took part in our focus groups only 21 currently (2018) work as journalists, others changed their professional occupation and work as PR-specialists, managers of communication, project managers, or are studying abroad to receive new specialization and return to the journalistic profession. Thus, we can assume that nowadays (2018) graduates of journalism departments do not necessarily become journalists.

Also, as we can note, journalists with non-formal educational background prevail in the Ukrainian profession of a journalist. What is more, this tendency supports the Ukrainian employers' persuasion that the only thing relevant and important in a professional field is the graduate's skills and knowledge required by occupational standards that can be received with the help of non-formal journalism education, too. Also, it proves a well-known fact that journalism is an open profession in Ukraine, and anyone can join it.

6.1.2. Motivation to study at Ukrainian journalism departments

Motivation to choose journalism among other specialties differed greatly. For example, there were people who dreamt to become journalists since their childhood, others decided to study journalism because of its prestige, while some chose it unconsciously. Moreover, their motivation is rooted in different perceptions of journalism itself:

“I graduated with the bachelor's and master's degree in journalism, because I decided in school to become a journalist. I liked to report about news, write stories. So, I entered the journalism department because I wanted to become a military correspondent. While studying I changed my mind about this and I am currently working as a political journalist” (female, focus group 6).

“I graduated with a master’s degree in journalism and bachelor’s degree in political science. I chose journalism because I have been interested in politics since the 10th form, and we all know that journalism is the fourth power. I liked to cover the information; I wanted to learn all methods, techniques, to master this very area, to work with famous people, professionals from different areas. I thought that by entering journalism I will manage to achieve this” (male, focus group 3).

“I have both bachelor and master’s degree in journalism. When I was a little girl, I liked watching Alla Mazur at 1+1 TV channel; she was a well-known and a famous woman. Thus, I wanted to have a prestigious job, too. I did not think about helping people or changing something, because journalism is about telling, not changing or helping” (female, focus group 9).

“Journalism was something new for me, we were not taught it at school. Thus, I decided to become a journalist. And only after the first year I realized that it is a great responsibility. So, I decided to be responsible and changed the university and the specialty. I studied philosophy for 4 years and then entered a master program in Lviv city at Ukrainian Catholic University” (male, focus group 10).

6.1.3. Educational process: how knowledge and skills are taught at Ukrainian journalism departments

The quality of educational process was evaluated by respondents in terms of curriculum, subjects, and technical equipment they had.

Most of the graduates believe that the subjects they were taught at universities were obsolete, and the knowledge gained during studies was irrelevant:

“We had such cases when the same teacher was teaching the same subject under different names, and you did not need to change the notebook. That is, a man comes on the second year, on the third year, on the fourth year of study and teaches the same. And we had to attend his courses in order to get a mark. It was only a waste of time” (male, focus group 10).

“There is no adequate education system and we cannot feel the value base which is necessary for the system to exist at the administrative level at my department” (female, focus group 7).

“Talking about my satisfaction with my formal journalism education, I would say I am 30 percent satisfied. We studied by very old curriculum” (male, focus group 9).

“I personally lacked working with web-sites. We did not have basics about how web design works, how sites are created. Besides, we did not have such course as SMM (social media marketing). It would be extremely important to me since we live in social networks and have to adapt these texts to them because journalism is becoming social” (female, focus group 10).

One of the widespread practices at Ukrainian journalism departments was checking and grading by lecturers at the end of the course notes which students were obliged to make during lectures. In this way, lecturers controlled students’ attendance and transcription of their thoughts. Many respondents commented this practice as a Soviet legacy and thought it was a waste of time:

“Some teachers checked the noted lectures. If you had not all lectures recorded, you had a lower mark” (male, focus group 8).

“I had two or three notes for 90 pages each for one semester. Other groups can be lucky with their teachers. However, it can be that one group gets three teachers who make students write 30 pages every week and you are simply unable to cope with that. Half of the group paid money – 5 hryvnias per page – to have notes written by hand because they were checked. I personally paid 100 hryvnias for one 10-pages essay because I already worked, and I had to pay thousands every semester to solve this issue. I knew that I would earn more than 100 hryvnias for those three days of writing an essay” (male, focus group 6).

There were respondents who had both bachelor and master’s degree in journalism, but were more or less satisfied either with bachelor or master preparation:

“For myself, I divide the bachelor’s and master’s programs. As for the bachelor’s program, we had quite a lot of applied subjects that formed some basic idea about the journalist’s work. And the master’s program had more academic perception in the bad sense. For instance, we had recurrence of

disciplines when two teachers were teaching by the same curriculum. Moreover, a lot of subjects were too theoretical. My experience confirmed my point of view that master program in journalism if taught after bachelor program within the same journalism department is oriented on those who want to become scientist and continue their education by entering PhD program” (female, focus group 7).

At the same time, there were some graduates who were absolutely satisfied with the acquired skills at their journalism departments:

“I was satisfied with practical and theoretical skills and knowledge which I achieved during my master program, because I studied journalism only at a master program. Our lecturers provided us with sufficient and actual information. We had an excellent technical basis. Our lecturers were practitioners. We were told about all the problems (censorship, media owners, self-censorship, disinformation, propaganda, PR instead of journalism etc.) our profession has. I recommend my journalism department if one wants to spend fruitful and interesting 2 years of their master life” (female, focus group 6).

“I appreciate everything I was given during my master program. The bachelor’s degree in journalism I received at another journalism department. These were two different worlds: modern and post-soviet with soviet practices and traditions. My master’s degree helped me a lot. It taught me that journalism is a lifelong learning profession and time to time I attend different courses in order to update my professional needs” (male, focus group 7).

However, a lot of respondents complained that their journalism department did not have enough technical equipment:

“The group included 35 students. There were only 4 cameras at that moment (2015). We had to buy our own if we could afford it. Otherwise, we were left without journalism practice like shooting, editing, cutting, uploading etc.” (female, focus group 1).

“Upon two months, I immediately bought a voice recorder and a tab for myself. To get a camera even to shoot within the university, you had to join a queue, to sign up for the studio, and only then to work there” (male, focus group 6)

“The teachers and theory on radio were really cool. We had voice training, studied different genres, made a lot of materials. I cannot say there was a technical base but we recorded a lot of

materials on our voice recorders. The teachers checked them thoroughly, assessed, criticized, praised, told us what was good and what was bad” (female, focus group 10).

“We had very poor resources – old cameras with limitations, little of batteries, they did not record well, and the quality was poor. To get to the editing room, we had to join a very long queue. There was no technical base in the condition we wanted it to be. Most students could not get a camera on hands to use it outside the Institute of Journalism because, roughly speaking, there is a supply and maintenance manager who would better be sure that 15-year old cameras lie safely than give them to a student to practice something outside the Institute” (male, focus group 6).

“There was a full access to computers. Almost every classroom had computers, smart boards. There are full-fledged computer classrooms. But what we lack was cameras and studios for practicing radio and TV journalism” (male, focus group 8).

Some stated that they had it, but there were problems with access to it:

“The university is constantly focusing on equipment, updates it, purchases. In general, if a student wants to do some practical work, he or she will have a possibility. It is just difficult to get access to it because of a bureaucracy; you have to write some applications. It is not just you came and took” (female, focus group 6).

Still, there were journalism departments which had enough technical equipment:

“The technical base was sufficient, we had a studio, not cheap cameras and even a production board. It seems to me that the university spent quite a lot of money for technical equipment, so that it had a separate room, a separate studio. Everything was very cool” (female, focus group 7).

Speaking about competencies and qualifications, the overwhelming majority of graduates from Ukrainian journalism departments had never heard about them. They even have not been told about some international declarations or initiatives of organizations that had worked out, discussed and adopted competences and qualifications in journalism. Moreover, many of them were not aware of national projects *Passport of profession* and *Digital for media universities* which prepared competences and qualifications and their teams have been trying to implement them in some Ukrainian universities. For instance:

“I think that we were not told about competences and qualifications, because our lecturers did not just take them into account at their courses. They taught what they wanted, what was easily for them to explain. Or some just did not care” (male, focus group 6).

“Maybe, lecturers understood that competences and qualifications were useless because none checked them?” (female, focus group 7).

Some graduates said they knew they had to have particular skills and knowledge, but they did not call them as competences and qualifications:

“We called them knowledge and skills which correspond to professional demands. No matter how they are named: high or medium level to work in a team, good ability to check information while preparing for interview etc. You will not be working in every field of journalism. You need to be a professional in a specific part of a journalistic craft” (male, focus group 8)

Some of respondents mentioned that they knew about competences and qualifications because their departments have been cooperating with foreign departments and Schools of journalism and this collaboration was based on common understanding of what students have to learn:

“We were interviewed during one visit of a foreign guest lecturer in terms of competences and qualifications. And because our Mohyla School of Journalism was a partner of a team which was working them out in Ukraine, we had an opportunity to read them. Also, our courses consisted of competences and qualifications which we had to have in order to be graded. Though this system is not strict and is not officially adopted by our Ministry, it does not influence us a lot. And it does not help while searching for a job, because you are interviewed and asked to fulfill some tasks. That is enough for an employer to recruit you or refuse. Employers do not check your skills according to a list of competences or qualifications, though in some countries, as I’ve heard, it is very hard to enter profession of a journalist without external exams which thoroughly check one’s competences and qualifications” (female, focus group 6).

6.1.4. Philological teaching approach: USSR heritage

In addition, there is still a problem of an excessively philological approach to journalism and duplication of the same disciplines under different names.

“Mass media are very mobile and dynamic now, but a journalism education is still at the “Soviet” level at most Ukrainian journalism departments” (male, focus group 3).

“There were a lot of subjects not related with journalism, for example, literature, some history of aviation, ethics but not a journalistic one, general, religious studies, etc. Besides, they tell us that this is a Bologna system but at the same time, they do not allow choosing these subjects. There are 20% of subjects relating to journalism and 80% of them not relating to journalism. This is about philology, then why is it called “journalism department?” (male, focus group 6).

“When I entered a journalism department, it was a pile of theory, very Soviet theory. For example, we studied history of foreign literature a lot. We studied it for a year and a half and journalistic disciplines for a semester. The students got bored; it lasted for long. We all came there not for that at that moment” (female, focus group 7).

“I studied at the private institute, we had many different subjects, but still they were full of philological elements. They did not make me understand what I would do when I come to an editorial office” (female, focus group 8).

6.1.5. Students’ mobility and exchange programs

The practice of student exchanges with the journalism departments of other countries is less common in Ukraine. So, a foreign exchange program, which is one of the conditions of the Bologna process, has not yet been implemented in the field of formal journalism training in Ukraine. The practice of Ukrainian students studying at foreign universities has usually taken place on the students’ own initiative, according to many of the respondents:

“We were not allowed to attend courses or programs abroad during our academic year. Instead, we were asked to do it during our holidays in summer, but to find financial support by ourselves. Thus,

the chances to be selected to exchange programs were lower. And not everyone can do it, because most of the exchange programs were in English, and it was not taught well at our department” (male, focus group 10).

“I visited Poland twice. It happened because I was a subscriber of an international journalism FB page. I studied gender issues and investigative journalism. It was a great experience, because at my journalism department I was not taught such subjects, though it was 2016. It helped me to find a good job, and now I am an investigative journalist” (female, focus group 7).

Other respondents told that they their departments supported their intentions to take part in foreign exchange programs:

“It was a widespread practice at our department and we knew about it. Elder students shared their experience with us; our department had joint projects and contacts with foreign journalism departments. So, time to time we were informed at our FB group about different courses, programs, or schools abroad. We applied. Personally, I visited 3 exchange programs during my master program” (male, focus group 6).

6.1.6. Lecturers who teach journalism at Ukrainian journalism departments

Most of respondents admitted that they received more skills from lecturers who had experience in a profession:

“The teaching staff was rather high-level, but the only huge minus was that absolute majority of teachers had not worked in journalism for a day. I do not understand how a person not having worked as a journalist can teach it” (female, focus group 5).

Still, not all of the practitioners could teach, as some journalists said:

“There are practitioners who can teach and practitioners who can not. For instance, our department decided to invite a very famous Ukrainian investigative journalist to teach us a course of investigative journalism. Still, he was a bad lecturer. Thus, practitioners need practice on teaching others” (male, focus group 9).

Graduates were complaining about the fact that some teachers did not know the subject they were teaching, had no real experience in the profession, and did not take their duties seriously. However, students mostly like teachers who have been hired recently.

“Those teachers who taught us some professional disciplines were less demanding than those who taught us theoretical courses. It turns out that, studying the history of foreign literature for a year and a half, we talked only about it, and we had no time for other things, although we wanted to study other disciplines” (male, focus group 6).

“At the bachelor’s program, we were lucky to have teachers felt responsibility not only for what they taught but for the value of what they taught. However, everything reposed on the person teaching it. All study at our department depended on a person who taught and not on the system built there” (male, focus group 8).

“We had a teacher who intensively taught us journalistic investigations for a year and a half, but he had not made a single investigation in his life. That is why I do not understand what we were doing there” (female, focus group, 6).

6.1.7. Misbalance between theory and practice at Ukrainian journalism departments

Most of those journalists with journalism diploma were not satisfied with the balance between practical and theoretical skills they achieved during their formal education at Ukrainian journalism departments:

“This is particularly in light of changing technology in the field- there were too many theoretical disciplines and a lot of them were not about journalism at all. What is more, at my journalism departments during many courses we as students were proposed to read Russian textbooks that were used at journalism departments during USSR times’ (male, focus group 5).

“As for formal education in my city, I can say there is nowhere to take quality practice, and what we studied at our department is mostly theory and less practice. So, we went to Kyiv for non-formal education to join more modern tendencies a little” (male, focus group 9).

“We lacked more specifics, more practice. It would be good, if students of the departments of journalism received less theoretical knowledge and had more practice!” (female, focus group 8).

“When I started working, I realized that I had wasted a lot of time on the university. Because during my studies, I had no experience and I even did not look for a job and I paid all my attention to the theory since I did not have much practice. It seems to me that the girls did it right by working since the second or third year of study because they got theory and it was good to learn doing what they were told in words” (female, focus group 7).

“We had a catastrophic situation with the invasion of courses and invasion of theory. We had fourteen courses per semester and we even drew new lines in our student’s record books. In our group, we drew those additional lines and studied a huge pile of theory, and there was no time for practice in principle” (male, focus group 10).

“We need theory in the beginning, because we must understand how to write, to address to what audience, how to work with texts, how to voice texts if you are a TV journalist. But it is necessary to dilute it with the mandatory practice. So that journalists come and tell how to work at editorial offices, how to work with information agencies, about the peculiarities of work. It seems to me that there should be 30% of theory and 70% of practice” (female, focus group 10).

“If you ask students of other professions, they have the same situation with a bunch of unnecessary theory. Yes, I am disappointed with education in Ukraine. The problem is not in the journalism education, but in education in general. This seems to be changing but very slowly, in my opinion” (male, focus group 5).

Nevertheless, some respondents were satisfied with the acquired knowledge at Ukrainian journalism departments:

“Our School has a profound technical basis, well-experienced lecturers, disciplines include a lot of practice and they are coherent with media market trends. I can state that all my groupmates were satisfied by the formal education we received here!” (female, focus group, 6).

“I entered UCU after bachelor program of journalism in other university of Lviv. What can I say! These were two different realities. UCU taught me all the practical skills which our and international media markets want. I am working now at BBC thanks to practical subjects I was taught” (female, focus group 7).

6.1.8. Foreign languages at Ukrainian journalism departments

Most of graduates complained that they lacked foreign languages at their journalism departments. Many of them said they did not take this fact into account while studying at journalism departments but realized that they needed at least good level of English in order to read foreign sources and compare information when begin to work. They shared their complaints about knowledge of foreign languages:

“Teaching English for journalists was of very poor quality. We had a middle school level. And this blocked access to foreign sources. In general, the more languages a journalist speaks, the more he or she can in his profession” (male, focus group 8).

“I was shocked when realized that overwhelming majority of my groupmates do not speak and understand English at a master program. I was lucky to have a bachelor degree in foreign languages (English, German, and Spanish). And at a master level our administration did not provide us with foreign languages. It is an absurd! Their position was that journalism is not a translator” (male, focus group 7)

A foreign language is a must nowadays, but it is not a widespread practice of educational process at Ukrainian journalism departments. I had a bad chance to compare two journalism departments in two Ukrainian cities and can state that none proposes good foreign courses. Even English is not taught as English for journalists” (female, focus group 10).

The minority of respondents said it was an obligatory condition to know English in order to enter their master programs and during their study they had good disciplines of English for journalists and/ or elective courses of French or Polish:

“If you do not know English well you will not pass entrance exams. It is a good practice to select good students. Because if you know foreign languages you are able to study disciplines which are taught

in English at our department, write diploma in English, take part in exchange programs, have a well-paid job. Though at a master program you are not necessarily have to be taught foreign languages, our department had such a proposition for us. Still, I am convinced that one should study foreign languages at school and journalism department must accept only those who know at least one-two foreign languages”

6.1.9. Specialization in journalism

Many graduates stated that they were generally disappointed with the acquired knowledge and skills they received at Ukrainian journalism departments. They admitted they would not have received journalism education if started their formal education again. They would rather receive education in another specialty instead:

“Though, if I had a choice when I was a student, I would have rather studied at non-journalism department. During my education (2008-2012) it was forbidden to enter master program in journalism without a bachelor’s degree in journalism” (male, focus group 9)

“It should not be that you are told to be a universal journalist, to be able to edit, to voice a text, to ideally write a text. There is no such thing, everything is split. There should be a clear classification not only by the type of activity but also by subject specialization. For example, if you tend to economics you should be taught economics for journalists, if you tend to political disciplines you must study political science, if you are interested in cultural disciplines you should have a possibility study how to write about culture. So, journalism departments have to prepare journalists in different specialization if we want to achieve profound content” (male, focus group 3).

6.1.10. Journalism education in practice

Almost all graduates noted that the studies at the university did not prepare them for the real work in the industry: they did not receive practical knowledge and skills, relevant

information about modern technologies and trends, and awareness of the professional reality. They had to learn everything already in the workplace.

“From the third year of study, I went to work, and I saw that what we were taught did not work in practice. That is why, on the fourth year of study, when I got the bachelor’s degree, I already worked. I did not even have time for studies” (female, focus group 9).

“Teaching at the departments of journalism should be relevant to the modern challenges of the profession. If there is a war in the east of Ukraine, a hybrid war, then how one could not talk about such things. They told us something briefly but there was not enough sense in that. I intended to go to Eastern Ukraine to cover the events of 2014, but I attended the course “Work in high risk and combat actions areas” held by Internews NGO before. It helped me a lot. For example, they just kicked us out to a field and shot us from airsoft guns. They explained us what to do in such cases. They told us that when coming to the place of combat you should know the types of weaponry in order to cover the information correctly. And it was non-formal education, not at my department” (male, focus group 8).

“On the second year of study, I went to Kyiv. An editor of one edition said: “Here you have a material, go and make a journalistic investigation.” I was confused and did not know what to do, because the university did not prepare us for that, though it has already been 2015. We did not have such course. However, journalists helped me, they taught me a lot” (female, focus group 10).

Moreover, while speaking about journalism education implementation in practice, respondents often have a “professional shock” when start working as journalists, because the professional reality they enter often neglects professional principles defined by Code of Professional Ethics of Ukrainian Journalists (2002), such as to tell the truth, to follow the balance in material, to check the sources of information, to avoid censorship, self-censorship, and so on, are often not respected in practice.

6.1.11. Journalism education: misunderstanding between universities and media market

During focus groups, the question arose whether there was a connection between university education and Ukrainian mass media. The latter has so many questions both with regard to higher education institutions where journalists are trained and to the thing's students are taught. Thus, cooperation between journalism departments and media market in Ukraine was less observed, as the overwhelming majority of respondents evidenced. Answers, given by Ukrainian journalists, show that there is a substantial gap between higher education institutions and the media:

“All our formal education with its methodological aids is hopelessly lagging behind the development of the media space which a modern journalist has to work in” (male, focus group 10).

“I would most like the departments to have relations with different media. The more, the better. I think, in the ideal world, a journalistic school not only prepares good journalists but can potentially offer them the initial potential start” (female, focus group 7).

“During summer media internship which was obligatory at our department I realized that mass media are not interesting in teaching you unless you can do something for free. Of course, if you can, because very often me and my groupmates lacked a lot of skills. For example, I did not know how to work with open data and write the news based on its information. We were not prepared for a real work” (female, focus group 9).

6.1.12. Respondents' suggestions about formal journalism education: how it should be organized

Having observed common problems and disadvantages of a formal journalism education in Ukraine, respondents with formal journalism background proposed their vision of its improvement:

“I can say that formal journalism education in Ukraine lags behind world trends. And what we studied for four or six years is actually the maximum education of three years. My vision of journalism

education is that a specialist ready to collect, process and present quality information is prepared for two years of a master program” (male, focus group 8).

“One needs to study for a journalist degree not for five or six years. I think it should be three years. There were such cases when many in my class worked already from the second year of study. And you have actually worked for two years whether on radio or television, and then on the fifth year of study you are told how to write an intro correctly, and you have already known that. There really were such cases when already on the fourth year of study you learn who a journalist is within the framework of some weirdly called course” (female, focus group 9).

“If to talk about the journalism educational model itself, I would make it three years. The first year would be a general – for students having just come from school to journalism and willing to understand where to go. It is so if you are not clearly determined to go to politics, economics or culture. And then the second year of study – there a student would have the possibility to choose where to aim and develop himself in that direction. The third year of study may be the consolidation of all of that. The master’s program is unnecessary” (male, focus group 9).

Conclusions about focus groups discussions on formal journalism education in Ukraine

According to the data gathered and analyzed in this research, the core problem of formal journalism education in Ukraine is the teaching practices at Ukrainian journalism departments. This is the assertion of journalists who entered the profession with a degree in journalism. The overwhelming majority said that the years they spent studying at journalism departments was lost time.

Most of the respondents also said that journalism programs do not have enough technical equipment to match the number of students in their programs. At other journalism departments, students had either no or limited access to cameras, computers, and audio recorders.

There was an imbalance between practice and theory at many departments, with the latter often being significantly superior. What is more, many departments did not include in their curricula topics that can help journalists address professional challenges.

Mostly all the respondents agreed that Ukrainian journalism education in universities is about philology and not about journalism. For instance, many participants said they studied the history of journalism for an entire year but there was no time at all – some said one semester at most – for online journalism in the program, and lectures were comprised of a lecturer reciting information from an outdated textbook.

Many students were surprised that at the departments of journalism textbooks printed during Soviet times and republished with the same content in independent Ukraine were dominating. They said that usually these were Russian-language textbooks. Often, students themselves told teachers that foreign literature was available, showing them databases where books on the subject could be found. However, foreign sources did not appear on the list of literature for years, as many of respondents pointed out.

Many of those interviewed noted that a lot of journalism departments lack teachers and lecturers who currently practice journalism. Moreover, respondents believe that many lecturers are not qualified to teach.

However, in the opinion of the participants in this research, there was definitely a silver lining to the poor education that they felt to have received at journalism departments. They said that the situation pushed them to start looking for work in media where they could learn on the job. The situation also pushed students to engage in type of self-education. That is to say that they attended courses, trainings, and schools that offered a non-formal education.

Many practicing journalists said they had a basic knowledge of a broad swath of topics, but they did not have the knowledge how to write, for instance, about economy or medicine. According to the research participants, the curricula of bachelor's programs should be significantly reduced, and programs should focus instead on offering certain specializations after the second year of study, for example. These programs should then train students in journalism and media communications at the master's level.

Research participants listed the following as advantages of a formal journalism education in Ukraine: particular teachers, concrete interesting subjects, a wide range of acquaintances with interesting people (both classmates and guest lecturers), and opportunities for self-development (opportunities for free schedule, practice in media, and for attending different courses, exchange programs, etc.).

Only two Ukrainian institutions in formal journalism education among those which were under research were highly evaluated by respondents according to all the issues discussed: *the Mohyla School of Journalism (MSJ)* at the National University of "Kyiv-Mohyla Academy" (established in 2001 in Kyiv) and two master's programs in *the Ukrainian Catholic University (UCU)* in journalism (established in 2010) and in media communications (established in 2012 in Lviv). Research participants said that these schools offered both profound formal and non-formal education.

Graduates agreed that modern students need more subjects related to graphic design, law, media literacy, and foreign languages. At the same time, the respondents did not believe that

education should be changed drastically in the times of the hybrid war, in particular, by introducing compulsory subjects related to propaganda or military journalism.

As for the format and duration of the training, the majority of respondents believe that there is no need to study for six years to become a journalist. A master's program of journalism for students with a bachelor's degree in some other discipline, that can become a solid foundation for a future journalist (a lawyer, economist, historian, culture, foreign languages, physics, mathematics, etc.), is a great idea.

The overwhelming majority of journalist who took part in this research said that the best option for a formal journalism education in Ukraine is a bachelor's degree in a non-journalism discipline and master's degree in journalism.

6.2. Non-formal journalism education in Ukraine: results of focus group discussions

Many of those journalists who entered the profession without a degree in journalism generally believe that one can study all practical things in non-formal courses or trainings, for example, at trainings offered by Internews Ukraine, CEDEM, the Institute of Mass Information, the Academy of Ukrainian Press, the NGO Detector Media, and other Ukrainian NGOs (focus groups 1,2,3,4,5):

“The employer requires not a diploma but practical knowledge, general high level of erudition. For example, I came to work, showed that I could record, edit, write, and they took me. And only then they asked where I learned it. I told the truth that I learned it not at the university but at various courses and trainings (female, focus group 2).

“A non-formal journalism education can improve and enrich knowledge and skills in some days or a week without spending four (bachelor program) or two (master program) years at university and being taught a lot of useless courses. I became a journalist without a formal education and do believe that one can become a journalist even without a diploma in journalism” (male, focus group, 4).

“A non-formal journalism education helped me broaden my professional outlook, because with the help of new acquaintances with colleagues from other regions of Ukraine and from abroad, national

and foreign media-experts, I received new professional contacts. It helped me when I entered the profession a lot. Time to time I attend such courses, because I realize that journalism demands lifelong learning” (male, focus group 5).

However, there were respondents in this category who admitted that they lacked general theoretical knowledge about journalism. Thus, they said if they had the time, they would like to study at a one-year master’s program in journalism, so long as it was a high-quality program (focus groups 2,4,5):

“Though I had formal journalism education, but I realized that I lacked knowledge about ethics, work with sources, search techniques. Thus, I attended a two-day training. There were different speakers and I was taught much faster and better at courses than it was at university” (female, focus group 10).

Many respondents also said that a formal or non-formal journalism education, unfortunately, does not guarantee freedom within the profession in Ukraine. For example, many journalists claimed that they were shocked when they started working as journalists because the professional reality they entered neglected those ethical and moral principles they were taught at universities, or during non-formal journalism trainings or courses (focus groups 1,3,4,7,9,10):

“At the journalistic ethics course, our lecturers taught us to match the BBC standards. When I came to work, I realized: never mind BBC! You have to either adhere to the unwritten editorial code ‘a good journalist has to earn money’ or look for another place of work” (female, focus group 2).

“When they asked me to rewrite the article and delete critical remarks toward the owner of our channel, I realized how awful the things in our profession are. Who pays us, dictates us what to do. Shame of me, but I did it, because I had to earn money for my 3-year-old baby” (male, focus group 5).

All the respondents agreed on the fact that it does not matter whether one has formal or non-formal certificates in journalism education, because a journalist must follow the lifelong learning concept and devote time for upgrading his or her knowledge:

“With such rapid development of information environment, we live in now, journalism at all universities of Ukraine, in my opinion, will not catch up adapting and adapt its programs. Anyway, the

person who completed the course of journalism, irrespective of the university he studied at, he still needs to do a lot of work on himself and deepen his knowledge by himself not relying on the university” (female, focus group 1).

6.3. The importance of non-formal journalism education

As we have already observed, respondents of 10 focus groups conducted in terms of this research had different educational background before entering professional field of a journalist, but all of them mentioned about the importance of non-formal journalism education. What are the reasons of this?

1. Majority of respondents who had degree in formal journalism education determined their bad preparation at Ukrainian journalism departments as the main reason to participate in non-formal journalism education.
2. The disadvantages of formal journalism education at Ukrainian journalism departments in terms of educational process are the following, according to respondents:
 - too much useless philological courses;
 - unqualified or bad qualified lecturers;
 - imperfect technical basis (computers, cameras, dictaphones);
 - imbalance between theory and practice in curricula.
3. The lack of skills which are demanded in their profession (for instance, multimedia knowledge, investigative journalism, data journalism etc.).
4. Usually non-formal journalism education is free of charge or with a token contribution for a long-term education (10-15 euros) and during a short period of time people learn more than even during the whole period of their education at journalism departments
5. Non-formal journalism education helps broadening professional outlook, because with the help of new acquaintances with colleagues from other regions of Ukraine and from abroad,

national and foreign media-experts, journalists receive new professional contacts. They communicate with each other, collaborate and provide or ask about the information if needed very quickly, create joint projects etc.

6. It helps students and practicing journalists become aware with new tendencies in their profession (lifelong learning concept), follow and get used to it with the help of skills and knowledge received.

7. It intensifies journalism qualification.

6.4. Formal and non-formal journalism education: advantages and disadvantages from respondents' experience

According to answers of journalists who took part in 10 focus groups conducted for this research, there are more negative features than positives of Ukrainian journalism education.

The majority of respondents was not satisfied with the level of lecturers' proficiency in disciplines they were taught. It's important to consider that the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning within the framework of the Bologna process is stated that students learning outcomes (as knowledge, skills, and competence) are directly depended on the quality of information and skills they receive from those who teach (European Commission, 2001).

Moreover, respondents mentioned about absence or poor equipped technical base: the majority of journalism departments did not have enough equipment for all students. For example, at one department of journalism there were: one PC per five students, one dictaphone per three students, no cameras for 53 students wishing to study footage. But the alumni also recall a positive aspect, because they started searching for self-education: attend courses, trainings, theme schools within non-formal education.

The content of the courses got many questions and criticism among the graduates and media industry people. The majority of interviewed was not satisfied with the content, insufficient attention to practical skills and training quality in general.

An overwhelming majority of respondents said that diploma in journalism does not guarantee that one will become a journalist. What is more, a lot of journalists were strongly convinced that BA preparation of journalists in Ukraine should be reduced to minimum (for example, 10 departments for those students who want to deepen in theory and become a Ph.D. student).

The majority of professionals believed that MA preparation is enough if one wants to receive diploma in journalism. Moreover, to their mind, the best way for journalist is to have BA degree outside of journalism and MA in journalism.

Also, a lot of journalists stated that non-formal journalism education can improve knowledge and skills in some days or a week without spending four (bachelor program) or two (master program) years at university and being taught a lot of useless courses. To their mind, one can become a journalist even without a diploma in journalism.

Most of respondents who graduated from journalism departments said that if they had a chance to start their higher education again, they would have chosen other departments (ecology, economics, law, PR and public relations, psychology, physics etc.). They further argued they would rather have attended journalism educational programs or trainings proposed by Ukrainian NGOs. They explained it by the fact that a lot of Ukrainian media very often seek a specific journalist's understanding of specialized themes (culture, economy, agriculture etc.).

Thus, non-formal journalism education becomes an alternative variant of formal journalism education in Ukraine. As results from focus groups confirmed, specialized training programs in journalism organized by NGOs and/or national mass media are becoming increasingly popular in Ukraine.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

CONCLUSIONS

Different types of journalism education are proposed in Ukraine – from standard BA and MA programs in universities (a formal journalism education) to various summer schools, short-term courses, lectures and pieces of training proposed by different NGOs and mass media (a non-formal journalism education).

As we have observed, formal journalism education in Ukraine has been criticized for quite a long time and discussion about its quality continues to be critical (Demchenko, 2018; NGO Detector media, 2016; NGO Detector media, 2018; Holubev, 2016; Hromadske Radio, 2018; Kutovenko, 2016). For example, the media market in Ukraine is mostly not satisfied with the educational level of those who have diploma in journalism because their formal journalism preparation does not correspond with professional needs. There is a widely spread opinion that today higher education in journalism in Ukraine is almost useless – its goals, principles, and content are alien to practitioners because they consider education too academic (Demchenko, 2018; NGO Detector media, 2018). The data of this research confirms this opinion among Ukrainian journalists. Our focus groups with Ukrainian journalists led to the conclusion that the current Ukrainian university system at most journalism departments inadequately prepares the future professionals.

The qualitative content analysis of the ten focus groups identified many gaps that exist in formal journalism education in Ukraine. Ukrainian graduates mostly noted the following disadvantages in their education: the programs and study materials were obsolete, there was too much focus on the study of theory, there was a lack of technical equipment, and educators did not have the requisite skills needed to teach their courses.

Nearly half of the respondents said they lacked the practice they believed they should have. Specifically, they said that they did not have the skills needed to work with photo and video editors, to work with sources, social media marketing, and to do data and investigative journalism. That is why graduates had to fill gaps in their knowledge by attending non-formal journalism courses and lectures proposed by NGOs and mass media.

As respondents evidenced, formal journalism education in Ukraine has not yet got rid itself of a philological style of education. Graduates, for example, stated that the approach to teaching in journalism departments was predetermined by a philological style that originated in the Soviet era (1922-1991), and they believed that philology should not be a part of journalism education.

Thus, an overwhelming majority of journalism departments in Ukraine do not provide their students with an education that meets the skills of the contemporary professional media market according to the perception of journalists. At the moment, non-formal journalism education is still better suited to address the challenges, skills, and tendencies of the media market in Ukraine, the journalists who attended the focus groups are convinced. Still, journalists are troubled by blurred ethical standards of the Ukrainian media environment and conditions of work that question professionalism even of those journalists who are trained well but have to say/write what the media's owner(s) wants to be disseminated to the public.

As we have observed in the literature review chapter, there have been worked out competencies and qualifications with particular skills and knowledge for future journalists by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the European Journalism Training Association (EJTA), the Poynter Institute for Media Studies. Based on them and having taken into account educators', researchers, and media experts' comments and propositions during World Journalism Education Congresses, UNESCO developed and published four curricula with detailed syllabi (in 2007, 2013, 2015, and 2018) corresponding with topical changes of the media market and geopolitical situation. Unfortunately, most of the

respondents stated that the curricula of their journalism departments had nothing common with the UNESCO curricula. Moreover, many of the proposed courses were not included in educational programs at the overwhelming majority of journalism departments in Ukraine. Still, there have been several journalism departments that follow UNESCO curricula and their students are aware of UNESCO's initiatives because its textbooks were listed in some courses they were taught.

As we have noticed in chapter 2, the influence of globalization, new technologies development, new approaches in media content production and consumption can not be omitted as they have influenced the sources of information that people tend to use. Nevertheless, many of the respondents stated that they did not have enough or at all technical basis and professionals who could teach them these skills.

As a result, theoretical with philological orientation formal education at journalism departments and the absence of communication with foreign educators do not allow students to achieve the professional competencies and qualifications needed in the profession, according to focus groups. On the whole, it seems that journalism educational system in Ukraine is not well-rooted in international educational framework and practice.

The debate over theory and practice has existed since the very beginning of journalism education (Pinto & Marinho, 2009:308), as we have already observed in literature review chapter. As results of focus groups evidenced, there is also misbalance between theoretical and practical disciplines in curricula at overwhelming majority of Ukrainian journalism departments with orientation on theoretical courses.

Thus, it seems that teaching practices at most of Ukrainian journalism departments are of a poor quality, because it is a symbiosis of Soviet legacy and pro-Western methods of teaching. The struggle between soviet syndrome and J-school model within journalism education in Ukraine continues, though the first variant prevails. Yet, as the answers of focus groups with

Ukrainian graduates and journalists have proved, formal journalism education still has a long way to go in dealing with many issues resulting from the post-soviet heritage.

That is why, according to national study, the majority of editors surveyed are dissatisfied with the quality of students' preparation at Ukrainian journalism departments. Only 22% would rather hire a person with a diploma in journalism. As for students of Ukrainian journalism departments, 64% of the students surveyed plan to be journalists. So, Ukrainian journalism departments need to provide better understanding of possible career choices (NGO Detector media, 2018:34-42). Perhaps, given the very high dynamics of journalistic specialization, formal journalism education programs based on different bachelor's degrees can offer a solution, and in fact, they provide already professional training, like those of respondents, who had this positive experience, confirmed.

Many of the respondents supported the idea that journalism education could be improved if educators in their educational process "make some fundamental shifts, recognizing the realities of the twenty-first century" (Gillmor, 2016: 815). Indeed, the role of those who teach is fundamental and a crucial one. The starting point of reforming goes from people, not institutions or even laws enacted by the government, as graduates underlined.

Meanwhile, most of the respondents in this research were convinced that it was not necessary to have a journalism degree to become a journalist, largely because there are now many NGOs and mass media in Ukraine that provide journalists with high-quality training. As a result, many journalists in Ukraine still enter the profession without a formal journalism education.

Graduates from many Ukrainian departments tended to see journalism merely as an area of vocational education and often deny the status of an academic area. Thus, these research participants said that they prefer non-formal journalism preparation, and therefore non-formal journalism education currently offers a promising alternative to formal journalism education in Ukraine.

Although Ukrainian journalists are convinced that profession of a journalist is an open profession and anyone can enter professional field, they realize that those who want to become journalists must have a high level of knowledge and skills which are demanded by professional environment.

The freedom to use the learning provided is one of the journalism education-related freedom (UNESCO, 2013:7). Still, as Ukrainian journalism professional field is not healthy itself and shows negative tendencies in neglecting professional ethical principles, dependence on interests of media's owners, producing paid-for materials, lack of attention to ordinary people's topics etc., very often journalism is not about skills, but about a moral choice. Thus, the proposed educational system is simply not working in those professional surroundings where professional philosophy does not correspond with educational paradigm.

By last, journalism education is a part of the Ukrainian higher education system and its quality also depends on the policy of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine. Currently, it is characterized by excessive bureaucracy and a post-soviet style of teaching that has nothing common with professional life. Ukrainian education system is only now (2018) experiencing new reforms that are expecting to help convert into a fact all the obligations which Ukraine agreed to implement as early as 2005, having joined to a Bologna process. Thus, it is clear that little will be cardinally improved rapidly in formal journalism education in Ukraine.

DISCUSSION

Journalism education is still a field crossed by tensions and dichotomies: academia vs. newsroom; theory vs. practice (Pinto & Marinho, 2009:303). Teaching journalism is not an easy task, as teaching itself. According to our focus group participants, nowadays (2018) there are more people without any diploma in journalism at the Ukrainian journalism labor market than those who studied journalism during four (BA programs) or five/six years (BA+MA programs).

Data achieved with the help of ten focus groups with practicing Ukrainian journalists helped to analyze the main features of Ukrainian journalism education. Yet, formal journalism education in Ukraine is at a crossroads, as analysis of respondents' answers showed.

It is explained by a crisis in a whole higher education system in Ukraine, lack of funds to supply journalism departments with a good technical basis, and a Soviet style of education that is still used and followed by many Ukrainian lecturers in journalism departments in Ukraine. Thus, further initiatives from the Ukrainian Ministry of Education and Ukrainian journalism departments themselves are needed in order to improve formal journalism education and take into account graduates' critical comments.

There are a lot of possibilities for improving formal journalism education in Ukrainian journalism departments. The revision of curriculum, the content of disciplines and methods of teaching according to the international framework is one of the tools in changing the training process. Moreover, the collaboration between educators and practitioners has to be integrated into the decision-making process in order to make the curriculum meet the media industry's demands (Deuze, 2006), as competencies should not be studied in isolation from occupation-specific contexts (Frison and others, 2016). That is to be called work-related learning – when educators cooperate with practitioners and this allows the student to observe authentic work of a workplace (Dirkx, 2011).

Another way is the remuneration of educators. When educators have only self-motivation to educate, they may faster face with professional burnout. Thus, to avoid it, they may be involved in in-company and team-building training to improve their professional skills and methods of teaching. Also, these activities help the team of educators to discuss their demands and problems with external mentors. Still, remuneration is not about improving professional qualifications and emotional workplace balance. Financial support also influences lecturers' attitudes towards their professional duties. For instance, Ukrainian educators describe their salaries as “humiliatingly low” (Khomenko, 2019). So, their salaries should be updated.

As for non-formal journalism education, it does not correspond with academic approaches of teaching giving better preparation for journalists, and this is a big plus. Still, some Ukrainian media which provide journalists with non-formal education are sharply criticized for its' media owners' dependence and violation of ethical standards.

So, the Ukrainian professional environment should also pay attention to this situation and work out rules which can regulate the non-formal educational process. For instance, if mass media are not well-respected, they should be prohibited to train students, because in this case, they prepare propagandists or PR-manager, not journalists.

Representatives of non-formal education say: the demand for their courses and training is growing year over year. And this, they believe, indicates a deep crisis of formal journalism education in Ukraine (Demchenko, 2018). In order to find a solution, the whole journalism industry – departments of journalism, the Ministry of Education, top-managers of media, journalists, graduates and media experts – should cooperate in order to improve journalism education. The professors should review the training courses and programs and leave outdated subjects. The Ministry of Education should rather decrease the number of journalism higher schools. But this needs an efficient policy to filter the universities able to provide with the training that correspond with international journalism standards.

Media market community should assist academics: that is, to set out their expectations towards the graduates and requirements to prospective journalists. That is, for example, to continue the endeavor of the *Passport of Profession* project.

Taking into consideration global media and educational changes, critical remarks and negative experience of graduates from Ukrainian journalism departments, the following solutions for journalism education in Ukraine may be the following:

- decrease of journalism departments;
- redesign of curricula according to international practices (for instance, UNESCO's models of curricula);
- enhancement of research and scientific activities in the field of journalism;
- internationalization of journalism education through joint study programmes at both BA and MA levels;
- emphasis on hands-on learning.

It is very hard not to support the idea that “rapidly changing circumstances in a profession of a journalist, as in society, induce an element of *anomie* that means confused and unclear social and/or moral norms” (Hovden, Nygren & Zilliacus-Tikkanen, 2016:7). This concept was introduced by a sociologist Emile Durkheim (1858-1917) in 1893 which he had discovered in the writings of Jean-Marie Guyau (1854-1888) who was a writer on a moral theory (Deflem, 2015:719). Indeed, we all observe the decline of traditions/rules and morality on the globe. When borders are blurred, it is very hard to set up common changes in professional and educational fields. Still, it does not mean that we should not try at least to make some positive shifts.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Ten competences and fifty qualifications in journalism of the Tartu Declaration

1. The competence to reflect on the societal role:

- 1.1 have a commitment to society
- 1.2 have insight in the influence of journalism in society
- 1.3 be able to develop a grounded view of journalism
- 1.4 understand the values that underlie professional choices
- 1.5 be able to reflect on a future career

2. The competence to find relevant issues and angles:

- 2.1 know current events
- 2.2 know the characteristics of different media
- 2.3 determine the relevance of a subject for a specific audience
- 2.4 be able to stimulate debate
- 2.5 discover newsworthy issues on the basis of in-depth research

3. The competence to organise and plan journalistic work:

- 3.1 be able to make a realistic work plan
- 3.2 be able to work under time pressure
- 3.3 be able to adjust to unforeseen situations
- 3.4 be able to organise contributions from the public
- 3.5 be able to work within budget limits

4. The competence to gather information swiftly:

- 4.1 have a good general knowledge
- 4.2 have a more specialised knowledge in a field
- 4.3 be able to use all required sources effectively
- 4.4 have the ability to balance the stories
- 4.5 have the will to interact with the public

5. The competence to select the essential information:

- 5.1 be able to distinguish between main and side issues
- 5.2 be able to select information on the basis of reliability

5.3 be able to interpret the selected information

5.4 be able to select information in accordance with the genre

5.5 be aware of the impact of your information on the public

6. The competence to structure information in a journalistic manner:

6.1 be able to use different types of narrative structures

6.2 be able to fine-tune content & form

6.3 be able to structure in accordance with the genre

6.4 be able to structure on the basis of relevance

6.5 be able use new media structuring techniques

7. The competence to present information in an effective journalistic form:

7.1 have an outstanding linguistic competence

7.2 present information in combinations of words/sounds /images

7.3 master the basics of layout

7.4 be able to work with technical infrastructure

7.5 be able to cooperate with technicians

8. The competence to account for journalistic work:

8.1 have a clear idea of the required quality of products

8.2 be able to evaluate own work

8.3 be willing to take criticism

8.4 take responsibility for the choices made during the process

8.5 be able to take responsibility for the product

9. The competence to cooperate in a team:

9.1 have good social skills

9.2 be reliable

9.3 show initiative

9.4 show insight in own strengths and weaknesses

9.5 show insight in relations within a team

10. The competence to be aware of the own role in a media-organisation and as a freelancer:

10.1 be able to present ideas convincingly

10.2 know the rights & obligations within an organisation

10.3 know the market conditions

10.4 be able to evaluate the editorial policy

10.5 know the practical aspects of being a freelancer

Appendix 2. WJEC's Principles of Journalism Education

1. At the heart of journalism education is a balance of conceptual, philosophical and skills-based content. While it is also interdisciplinary, journalism education is an academic field in its own right with a distinctive body of knowledge and theory.
2. Journalism is a field appropriate for university study from undergraduate to postgraduate levels. Journalism programs offer a full range of academic degrees including bachelors, masters and Doctor of Philosophy degrees as well as certificate, specialized and mid-career training.
3. Journalism educators should be a blend of academics and practitioners; it is important that educators have experience working as journalists.
4. Journalism curriculum includes a variety of skills courses and the study of journalism ethics, history, media structures/institutions at national and international level, critical analysis of media content and journalism as a profession. It includes coursework on the social, political and cultural role of media in society and sometimes includes coursework dealing with media management and economics. In some countries, journalism education includes allied fields like public relations, advertising, and broadcast production.
5. Journalism educators have an important outreach mission to promote media literacy among the public generally and within their academic institutions specifically.
6. Journalism program graduates should be prepared to work as highly informed, strongly committed practitioners who have high ethical principles and are able to fulfill the public interest obligations that are central to their work.
7. Most undergraduate and many masters programs in journalism have a strong vocational orientation. In these programs experiential learning, provided by classroom laboratories and on-the-job internships, is a key component.
8. Journalism educators should maintain strong links to media industries. They should critically reflect on industry practices and offer advice to industry based on this reflection.
9. Journalism is a technologically intensive field. Practitioners will need to master a variety of computer-based tools. Where practical, journalism education provides an orientation to these tools.
10. Journalism is a global endeavor; journalism students should learn that despite political and cultural differences, they share important values and professional goals with peers in other nations. Where practical, journalism education provides students with first-hand experience of the way that journalism is practiced in other nations.
11. Journalism educators have an obligation to collaborate with colleagues worldwide to provide assistance and support so that journalism education can gain strength as an

academic discipline and play a more effective role in helping journalism to reach its full potential.

Appendix 3. A list of institutions of higher education (IsHE) licensed in 061 Journalism specialization in Ukraine

	Institution of higher education (IHE)	Location	Institute/department/ chair	Bachelor degree courses	Master degree courses
1	Berdiansk State Pedagogical University	Berdiansk, Zaporizhzhia oblast	Department of Philology and Social Communications	Journalism	
2	Higher educational establishment the Institute of Advertisement (registered as the limited liability company)	Kyiv	Chair of Advertising and Public Relations	Advertising	
3	Open International University of Human Development "Ukraine"	Kyiv	Institute of philology and public communications	Journalism, publishing	Publishing, media communication

4	Mykhailo Kotsiubynskyi Vinnytsia State Pedagogical University	Vinnytsia	Philology and Journalism Department, Chair of Journalism, Advertising and Public Relations	Journalism	Journalism
5	Oles Gonchar Dnipro National University	Dnipro	Department of Mass Media Systems, Chair of Public and International Communication	Journalism	Journalism, advertising, publishing, media communications
6	Vasyl' Stus National Donetsk University	Vinnytsia	Journalism Chair of Philology Department	Journalism	Journalism
7	Zhytomyr Ivan Franko State University	Zhytomyr	Institute of Philology and Journalism, Chair of Publishing, Editing, Basics of Journalism and Philology	Journalism (publishing)	Journalism
8	Zaporizhzhia National Technical University	Zaporizhzhia	Institute of Management and Law, Department of Social Sciences, Chair of Journalism	Journalism	Journalism

9	Zaporizhzhia National University	Zaporizhzhia	Department of Journalism	Journalism, advertising and PR, publishing	Journalism, media communications, advertising PR Journalism, media communications, advertising and PR
10	King Danylo University, private university	Ivano-Frankivsk	Economic Department, Chair of Advertising and PR	Advertising and PR	
11	Ivan Ohienko Kamianets-Podilskyy National University	Kamianets-Podilskyy, Khmelnytskyi oblast	Department of Ukrainian Philology and Journalism, Chair of Journalism	Journalism, advertising and PR, publishing	Journalism
12	Kyiv International University, private university	Kyiv	Institute of Journalism	Journalism	Journalism
13	Kyiv National University of Trade and Economics	Kyiv	Department of Trade and Marketing, Chair of Marketing and Advertising	Journalism	Advertising

14	Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv	Kyiv	Institute of Journalism	Journalism, publishing, advertising, media production and management	Social communications, media communications, sports journalism, international journalism and broadcasting
15	Kyiv National University of Culture and Arts	Kyiv	Department of Journalism and International Relations	Journalism (PR and advertising), publishing,	Journalism
16	Borys Grinchenko Kyiv University	Kyiv	Institute of Journalism	Journalism, publishing, advertising and PR	Journalism, media communications, advertising, publishing
17	Classic Private University	Zaporizhzhia	Institute of Journalism and Mass Communication	Journalism and mass communications, advertising and PR	Journalism, media communications, PR, publishing
18	Kremenchuk Mykhailo Ostrohradskyi National	Kremenchuk, Poltava oblast	Department of Law, Humanities and Social Sciences, Chair of Philology and	Journalism (publishing)	Journalism

	University		Publishing		
19	Taras Shevchenko Luhansk National University	Starobilsk, Luhansk oblast	Department of Ukrainian Philology and Social Communications, Chair of Journalism and Publishing	Journalism, publishing, advertising and PR	Journalism, advertising, media communications
20	Ivan Franko Lviv National University	Lviv	Department of Journalism	Journalism	Journalism
21	Lviv University of Trade and Economics	Lviv	Department of International Economic Relations and IT, Chair of Marketing	Advertising in business	
22	Lviv University of Business and Law, private	Lviv	Department of Journalism and Information, Chair of Publishing and Editing	Journalism	Journalism
23	Mariupol State University	Mariupol, Donetsk oblast	Department of Philology and Mass Communications	Journalism, advertising and PR	Journalism, PR
24	International University of Economics and Humanities	Rivne	Department of Journalism	Journalism, advertising and PR	Advertising and PR

	Named after Academician Stepan Demianchuk, private				
25	National Aviation University	Kyiv	Department of International Relations, Chair of Journalism, Advertising and PR	Journalism, advertising and PR	Journalism
26	Mykhailo Dragomanov National Pedagogical University	Kyiv	Department of Ukrainian Philology and Writing of Andrii Malyshko, Chair of Journalism	Journalism (publishing)	Journalism
27	National Technical University “Kharkiv Polytechnic Institute”	Kharkiv	Department of Business and Finance, Chair of Intercultural Communication and Foreign Language		Media communications
28	National Technical University of Ukraine “Kyiv Polytechnic	Kyiv	Institute of Publishing and Printing, Chair of Publishing	Journalism (publishing)	Publishing, advertising and PR

	Institute”				
29	National University of "Kyiv-Mohyla Academy"	Kyiv	Department of Social Sciences and Technologies, the Kyiv-Mohyla School of Journalism		Journalism, PR
30	Lviv Polytechnic National University	Lviv	Institute of Law and Psychology, Chair of Journalism and Mass Media	Journalism	Journalism
31	Odesa National Academy of Law	Odesa	Department of Journalism	Journalism, advertising and PR	International Journalism
32	National University of Ostroh Academy	Ostroh, Rivne oblast	Department of Humanities, Chair of Journalism	Journalism	Journalism
33	National University of Food Technologies	Kyiv	Institute of Economy and Management, Chair of Marketing	Journalism (advertising and PR)	Journalism
34	O.Popov Odesa National Academy of Telecommunication	Odesa	Institute of Information Society Issues, Chair of Political Science, Sociology and Social	Journalism (advertising and PR)	

			Communications		
35	Odesa National Polytechnic University	Odesa	Department of Humanities, Chair of Information Activities and Media Communications	Journalism at two departments	
36	I. Mechnykov Odesa National University	Odesa	Department of Journalism, Advertising and Publishing	Journalism (advertising and PR, publishing, Journalism)	Journalism
37	South Ukrainian Pedagogical University named after K. Ushynsky	Odesa	Department of Social Sciences and Humanities	Journalism (advertising and PR)	
38	V. Korolenko Poltava National Pedagogical University	Poltava	Department of Philology and Journalism, Chair of Journalism	Journalism	Journalism
39	Kyiv University of Culture, Private Higher Education Establishment	Kyiv	Chair of Journalism and International Relations	Journalism (Journalism; PR and advertising; publishing)	Journalism
40	Vasyl Stefanyk Precarpathian	Ivano-	Department of Philology, Chair of	Journalism	

	National University	Frankivsk	Journalism		
41	Sumy State University	Sumy	Department of Foreign Philology and Social Communications, Chair of Journalism and Philology	Journalism, advertising and PR	Journalism, advertising and PR, media communications
42	Lesya Ukrainka Eastern European National University	Lutsk	Department of Philology and Journalism, Chair of and Social Communications	Journalism and social communications, publishing	Journalism and social communications
43	Volodymyr Dahl East Ukrainian National University	Severodonetsk, Luhansk oblast	Department of Humanities, Psychology and Pedagogy, Chair of Ukrainian Philology and Journalism	Journalism, publishing	Journalism, publishing
44	Volodymyr Vernadsky Taurida National University	Kyiv	Institute of Philology and Journalism	Journalism	Journalism
45	Volodymyr Hnatiuk National Pedagogical	Ternopil	Department of Philology and Journalism, Chair of	Journalism, advertising and PR	Journalism

	University		Journalism		
46	Uzhhorod National University	Uzhhorod	Department of Philology, Chair of Journalism	Journalism, advertising and PR	Journalism
47	Ukrainian Academy of Printing	Lviv	Department of Media Communications and Business Studies, Chair of Media Communications	Journalism (book and media production; advertising & PR)	Journalism (book and media production; advertising, PR)
48	Ukrainian Institute of Arts and Sciences, private	Bucha, Kyiv oblast	Department of Humanities, Chair of Journalism	Journalism	
49	Ukrainian Catholic University	Lviv	UCU School of Journalism		Journalism, media communications
50	University of State Fiscal Service of Ukraine	Irpin, Kyiv oblast	Institute of Humanities, Chair of Ukrainian Literature and Culture	Journalism	
51	Kharkiv State Academy of Culture	Kharkiv	Department of Cultural Studies, Chair of Journalism	Advertising and PR, socio-cultural journalism	Journalism
52	Simon Kuznets	Kharkiv	Department of	Media	Media

	Kharkiv National University of Economics		Economy and Law, Chair of Social Communications Management	communications, advertising and PR	communications
53	V.N. Karazin Kharkiv State University	Kharkiv	Department of Philology, Chair of Journalism; Department of Sociology, Chair of Media Communications	Journalism, Media communications and PR	Journalism; Media communications (Department of Sociology),
54	Kherson State University	Kherson	Department of Philology and Journalism, Chair of Social Communications	Journalism	Journalism
55	Volodymyr Vynnychenko Central Ukrainian State Pedagogical University	Kropyvnytsky	Department of Philology and Journalism, Chair of Journalism, Publishing and Editing	Journalism	
56	Bohdan Khmelnytsky Cherkasy National	Cherkasy	Institute of Ukrainian Philology and Social Communications, Chair of Journalism,	Journalism, publishing and modern communication	Media communications

	University		Advertising and PR- technologies	technologies, Advertising and PR in media	
57	Yuriy Fedkovych Chernivtsi National University	Chernivtsi	Department of Philology, Chair of Journalism	Journalism and cross-media, Publishing and media editing	Journalism and cross-media, Publishing and media editing
58	Petro Mohyla Black Sea University	Mykolaiv	Institute of Philology, Chair of Journalism	Journalism	

Appendix 4. Dates and participants of the focus groups conducted for this research (January 2015 – April 2018)

Date and place of the focus group	Gender of a respondent	Type of media	City or region where the person works	Duration of a focus group
Focus group 1 30.01.2015, Kyiv city	M/F	National/local/TV/radio/online/newspaper		1 hour 45 minutes and 23 seconds
	Female	weekly newspaper (local)	Kolomyia, Ivano-Frankivsk oblast	
	Female	TV channel (local)	Ternopil, Ternopil oblast	
	Female	radio station (national)	Kyiv, capital	
	Female	online media (national)	Cherkasy, Cherkasy oblast	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Kyiv, capital	
	Male	online media (local)	Bakhmut, Donetsk oblast	
	Female	weekly newspaper	Berdiansk,	

		(national)	Zaporizhzhia oblast	
	Male	online media (local)	Mariupol, Donetsk oblast	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Chernihiv, Chernihiv oblast	
Focus group 2, 24.04.2015, Kyiv				1 hour 14 minutes and 19 seconds
	Female	TV channel (local)	Lviv, Lviv oblast	
	Female	online media (local)	Zaporizhzhia, Zaporizhzhia oblast	
	Female	regional magazine	Chernivtsi, Chernovtsi oblast	
	Male	online media (local)	Vinnytsia, Vinnytsia oblast	
	Female	online media (local)	Voznesensk, Mykolaiv oblast	
	Male	TV channel (local)	Kherson,	

			Kherson oblast	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Kyiv, capital	
	Female	weekly newspaper (local)	Boryspil, Kyiv oblast	
	Male	online media (local)	Poltava, Poltava oblast	
Focus group 3, 25.09.2015, Kyiv				1 hour 33 minutes and 18 seconds
	Male	online media (local)	Lutsk, Volyn oblast	
	Female	online media (local)	Uzhhorod, Zakarpattia oblast	
	Female	weekly newspaper (national)	Zhytomyr, Zhytomyr oblast	
	Male	TV channel (local)	Mykolaiv, Mykolaiv oblast	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Kyiv	

	Male	online media (local)	Svitlovodsk, Kirovohrad oblast	
	Female	weekly newspaper (local)	Poltava, Poltava oblast	
	Male	weekly newspaper (local)	Kostiantynivka , Donetsk oblast	
	Female	online media (local)	Smila, Cherkasy oblast	
Focus group 4, 19.02.2016, Kyiv				1 hour 56 minutes and 28 seconds
	Female	online media (local)	Irpin, Kyiv oblast	
	Male	online media (local)	Severodonetsk, Luhansk oblast	
	Female	TV channel (local)	Kryvyi Rih, Dnipropetrovsk oblast	
	Male	TV channel (national)	Kyiv, capital	

	Female	online media (local)	Mariupol, Donetsk oblast	
	Female	weekly newspaper (local)	Lviv, Lviv oblast	
	Male	online media (local)	Truskavets, Lviv oblast	
	Female	TV channel (local)	Rivne, Rivne oblast	
	Female	radio station (national)	Kyiv, capital	
Focus group 5, 22.07.2016, Kyiv				1 hour 49 minutes and 13 seconds
	Female	online media (local)	Ivano- Frankivsk, Ivano- Frankivsk oblast	
	Female	online media (national)	Lviv, Lviv oblast	
	Male	weekly newspaper	Brovary, Kyiv oblast	
	Female	radio station	Kyiv, capital	

		(national)		
	Male	weekly newspaper (local)	Bilhorod- Dnistrovskyyi, Odesa region	
	Female	TV channel (local)	Dnipro, Dnipropetrovsk oblast	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Kyiv, capital	
	Female	online media (national)	Poltava, Poltava oblast	
	Female	TV channel (local)	Sumy, Sumy oblast	
	Female	TV channel (local)	Mykolaiv, Mykolaiv oblast	
Focus group 6, 17.03.2017, Kyiv, Departments of Journalism				1 hour 52 minutes and 22 seconds
	Female	weekly newspaper (national)	Kyiv	

	Male	online media (local)	Kyiv oblast	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Kyiv	
	Male	radio station (national)	Kyiv	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Kyiv	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Kyiv	
	Female	online media (local)	Kyiv oblast	
	Female	online media and radio station (national)	Kyiv	
	Male	TV channel (national)	Kyiv	
	Male	online media (national)	Kyiv	
Focus group 7, 11.08.2017, Lviv, Departments of Journalism				1 hour 48 minutes and 43 seconds

	Female	online media (national)	Lviv	
	Male	TV channel (local)	Lviv	
	Male	weekly newspaper (local)	Lviv oblast	
	Female	online media (local)	Lviv	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Lviv	
	Male	online media (national)	Lviv	
	Male	weekly magazine (local)	Lviv	
	Female	online media (local)	Lviv	
	Male	radio station (local)	Lviv	
	Female	online media (local)	Lviv oblast	
Focus group 8, 24.11.2017, Odesa,				2 hours and 03 minutes

Departments of Journalism				
	Male	online media (local)	Odesa oblast	
	Female	TV channel (regional)	Odesa	
	Female	online media (local)	Odesa oblast	
	Male	weekly newspaper (local)	Odesa	
	Male	TV channel (national)	Odesa	
	Male	weekly magazine (local)	Odesa	
	Female	online media (local)	Odesa oblast	
	Female	TV channel (local)	Odesa	
	Female	online media (local)	Odesa	
Focus group 9, 23.03.2018,				1 hour 48 minutes and

Cherkasy, Department of Journalism				07 seconds
	Female	weekly newspaper (local)	Cherkasy	
	Female	TV channel (local)	Cherkasy	
	Male	radio station (national)	Cherkasy	
	Female	online media (local)	Cherkasy oblast	
	Male	TV channel (national)	Cherkasy	
	Female	online media (national)	Cherkasy	
	Male	online media (local)	Cherkasy	
	Female	radio station (national)	Cherkasy oblast	
	Female	online media (local)	Cherkasy	
Focus group 10,				1 hour and 42 minutes and

27. 04.2018, Mariupol, Department of Journalism				11 seconds
	Female	TV channel (local)	Mariupol	
	Female	weekly newspaper (local)	Donetsk oblast	
	Male	online media (local)	Mariupol	
	Female	TV channel (national)	Mariupol	
	Male	online media (local)	Mariupol	
	Female	online media (local)	Sloviansk, Donetsk oblast	
	Male	weekly newspaper (local)	Mariupol	
	Female	online media (local)	Kramatorsk, Donets oblast	

Section 1. General questions

1. What was your motivation to become a journalist?
2. What educational background did you have when entering the profession of a journalist?
3. To your mind, what is the main purpose of journalism education in Ukraine?
4. Does journalism education work in a professional environment?

Section 2. The educational process at journalism departments (formal journalism education) in Ukraine

1. In general, are you satisfied with the formal journalism education you received?
2. What were the pluses and minuses of your formal journalism education?
3. How was the process of education at bachelor programs organized?
4. How was the process of education at master programs organized?
5. Now I will announce to you all the courses which were added by UNESCO. Were your journalism programs recently revised and/or adopted according to UNESCO's recommendations?
6. Did you study foreign languages at journalism departments? Do you think foreign languages are obligatory for a journalist?
7. Was there a balance between theoretical and practical disciplines at your department?
8. What skills and knowledge were you lacking after graduation when you started to work as a journalist?
9. What courses did you like most of all? Why?
10. Who were the people who were teaching you at journalism departments (professors, journalists, Ph.D. candidates...)?
11. Did you take part in non-formal journalism education during your formal education? Why?
12. Has your department conducted joint projects or cooperation with other foreign journalism departments?
13. Did you participate in foreign summer schools or training? Was it in terms of students' mobility programs or was it your initiative?
14. Were you taught by foreign lecturers who arrived at your department in terms of foreign fellowship program?

15. How many disciplines were taught in a foreign language in your journalism department?

Section 3. The non-formal journalism education in Ukraine

1. Do you take part in non-formal journalism education? What is the reason for it?
2. What trainings do you attend and why?
3. Is it your own decision to take part in non-formal education or is it the policy of your mass media?
4. What do you think about formal journalism education in Ukraine? Does it guarantee a successful career of a journalist?
5. When searching for a job, what requirements did you take into account?

Section 4. Journalists' preparation and profession of a journalist in Ukraine

1. You have already read 10 competences and 50 qualifications of the Tartu Declaration. Please, identify the most important qualifications in terms of these competencies that help you in your daily work? Also, please, specify whether have you been taught them (during your formal, non-formal education in journalism or by your colleagues at your working place)?
2. Are you satisfied with the professional conditions in terms of which you are working now? What do you wish to be changed?
3. What are the negative and positive trends of your profession taking into account your own experience?
4. Do you always follow the ethical principles of the profession of a journalist?

Section 5. Reflection and discussion

1. What kind of knowledge and skills the ideal graduate from Ukrainian journalism department should possess?
2. Should education at Ukrainian journalism departments have a division into specialties or should it be general education in journalism?
3. What shall be changed in the educational process at Ukrainian journalism departments?
4. If you were the Minister of Education in Ukraine, how would you reform journalism education at universities?

Appendix 6. Examples of data analysis process.

