



## Durham E-Theses

---

# *A Case Study of the Conception of Curriculum Internationalisation in a Secondary School in Kazakhstan.*

KHASSENEYEVA, ALIYA

### How to cite:

---

KHASSENEYEVA, ALIYA (2018) *A Case Study of the Conception of Curriculum Internationalisation in a Secondary School in Kazakhstan.*, Durham theses, Durham University. Available at Durham E-Theses Online: <http://etheses.dur.ac.uk/12559/>

### Use policy

---

The full-text may be used and/or reproduced, and given to third parties in any format or medium, without prior permission or charge, for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes provided that:

- a full bibliographic reference is made to the original source
- a [link](#) is made to the metadata record in Durham E-Theses
- the full-text is not changed in any way

The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.

Please consult the [full Durham E-Theses policy](#) for further details.

---

Academic Support Office, Durham University, University Office, Old Elvet, Durham DH1 3HP  
e-mail: [e-theses.admin@dur.ac.uk](mailto:e-theses.admin@dur.ac.uk) Tel: +44 0191 334 6107  
<http://etheses.dur.ac.uk>

**A Case Study of the Conception of Curriculum Internationalisation in a  
Secondary School in Kazakhstan.**

By Aliya Khasseneyeva

First Supervisor: Dr Oakleigh Welply

Second Supervisor: Dr Nicola Reimann

A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctorate of Education

School of Education

Durham University

2017



**Abstract**

Curriculum internationalisation has been long associated with higher educational institutions (e.g. Knight, 2012, 2003; De Haan, 2013; Deardorff, de Wit & Heyl, 2012; Brewer, E. & Teekens, H., 2007; James, 2005; Wilkinson, 1998; Starr, 1979). However, globalisation and the growing interconnectedness of the world have led to the urgent need for internationalising the curriculum of national secondary education. Therefore, the importance of research in secondary education curriculum internationalisation has been recognised (Yemini, 2014). This thesis aims at exploring the perception of school curriculum internationalisation within one secondary school in Kazakhstan. In order to achieve that aim this research employed interpretative case study methodology to explore the phenomenon under examination. Thematic analysis of the interviews with the school stakeholders and the school policies was applied. The sampling was purposeful and included school stakeholders at different levels: senior management, local and international teachers, students and parents. The school policies and documents were selected on the basis of the interviews.

The selected school is notable for being an experimental platform for educational reforms of secondary education in Kazakhstan. The research revealed that the perceptions can be divided into two converging definitions of school curriculum internationalisation in terms of the outcome: educating a global citizen and educating a competitive graduate. Those definitions were supplemented with the perceived strategies or aspects that can help achieve the aim of curriculum internationalisation.

Furthermore, the participants identified the challenges associated with curriculum internationalisation. Those challenges included tension between national identity and global citizenship education, the challenge of innovating a teaching and learning approach, and the difficulty in diversifying the staff and student body.

## Table of contents

|  |    |
|--|----|
| Abstract.....  | 2  |
| Table of contents.....   | 3  |
| List of the figures and tables.....                                      | 6  |
| Glossary of acronyms.....  | 7  |
| Declaration.....   | 8  |
| Copyright statement.....   | 8  |
| Acknowledgements.....  | 8  |
| Introduction.....  | 9  |
| 1.1 Context.....   | 9  |
| 1.2 Rationale and significance.....                                      | 11 |
| 1.3 Research questions.....  | 11 |
| 1.4 Thesis organisation.....   | 12 |
| Part 1 Substantive theoretical and methodological background.....        | 13 |
| Review of the literature.....  | 13 |
| 2.1 Internationalisation of higher and secondary education.....          | 13 |
| 2.1.1 <i>Internationalisation and globalisation</i> .....                | 15 |
| 2.2 Curriculum internationalisation.....                                 | 20 |
| 2.2.1 <i>Global citizenship education and internationalisation</i> ..... | 27 |
| 2.2.2 <i>Neoliberal ideology in education</i> .....                      | 36 |
| Conclusion.....  | 42 |
| The context of education in Kazakhstan.....                              | 44 |
| 3.1 Kazakhstan and russification.....                                    | 44 |
| 3.2 The current language policy.....                                     | 45 |
| 3.3 Secondary education of Kazakhstan.....                               | 46 |
| 3.4 Ethnic composition.....  | 48 |
| Conclusion.....  | 49 |
| Methodology and research design.....                                     | 51 |
| 4.1 Introduction.....  | 51 |
| 4.2 Research methodology and design.....                                 | 51 |
| 4.2.1 An interpretive research approach.....                             | 51 |
| 4.2.2 Rationale for the research approach.....                           | 52 |
| 4.2.3 Case study research design.....                                    | 55 |
| 4.3 Fieldwork and setting.....   | 56 |

|   |     |
|---|-----|
| 4.3.1 The research site information .....                                   | 56  |
| 4.3.2 Research sample .....   | 57  |
| 4.4 Data collection methods .....   | 61  |
| 4.4.1 Interviews.....   | 61  |
| 4.4.2 Focus group interviews .....  | 62  |
| 4.4.3 Interview schedule and pilot interviews .....                         | 64  |
| 4.4.4 Interview process .....   | 65  |
| 4.4.5 Documentary research .....  | 65  |
| 4.5 Data analysis .....   | 67  |
| 4.6 Research considerations: issues and reflections .....                   | 70  |
| 4.6.1 <i>Researcher position</i> .....                                      | 70  |
| 4.6.2 <i>Researching multilingually</i> .....                               | 70  |
| 4.6.3 <i>Ethical considerations</i> .....                                   | 73  |
| 4.6.4 <i>Research trustworthiness</i> .....                                 | 76  |
| Conclusion.....   | 78  |
| Part 2. Findings.....   | 79  |
| Research question 1a.....   | 79  |
| 5.1 Competitive graduate education.....                                     | 80  |
| 5.1.2 Compliance of the school curriculum with international standards..... | 85  |
| 5.1.3 Cultural diversity in the staff and student body.....                 | 93  |
| 5.1.4 Teaching and learning improvement.....                                | 95  |
| 5.1.5 Establishment of international partnerships .....                     | 101 |
| Conclusion.....   | 105 |
| Research question 1b.....   | 109 |
| 6.1 Global citizenship education .....                                      | 110 |
| 6.1.1 <i>Intercultural competence</i> .....                                 | 115 |
| 6.1.2 <i>Integrated educational programme</i> .....                         | 123 |
| 6.1.3 <i>Cultural diversity in the staff and student body</i> .....         | 126 |
| 6.1.4 <i>Multilingualism</i> .....  | 129 |
| 6.1.5 <i>Patriotism and the Kazakh national identity development</i> .....  | 131 |
| Conclusion.....   | 134 |
| Research question 2.....  | 136 |
| 7.1 Cosmopolitanism versus nationalism .....                                | 136 |
| 7.1.2 The national language revival .....                                   | 141 |
| 7.2 Challenges in teaching and learning innovation .....                    | 148 |

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| 7.3 Cultural diversity in the staff and student body ..... | 153 |
| Conclusion.....  | 156 |
| Discussion and conclusion .....                            | 159 |
| 8.1 Introduction.....                                      | 159 |
| 8.2 Contribution to knowledge.....                         | 159 |
| 8.2.1 <i>Research question 1</i> .....                     | 161 |
| 8.2.2 <i>Research question 2</i> .....                     | 167 |
| 8.3 Implications and recommendations .....                 | 169 |
| 8.3.1 Theoretical implications.....                        | 169 |
| 8.3.2 Methodological implications.....                     | 170 |
| 8.3.3 Implications for policy .....                        | 174 |
| 8.4 Recommendations for future research.....               | 176 |
| Bibliography .....   | 177 |
| Appendix 1 Interview protocol for SMT.....                 | 215 |
| Appendix 2 Interview protocol for teachers.....            | 217 |
| Appendix 3 Interview protocol for parents.....             | 220 |
| Appendix 4 Interview protocol for students .....           | 221 |
| Appendix 5 Ethics approval form.....                       | 223 |
| Appendix 6 Letter to the school head teacher .....         | 224 |
| Appendix 8 School principal consent form .....             | 225 |
| Appendix 7 Research Information statement.....             | 226 |
| Appendix 9 Informed consent form for the participants..... | 227 |
| a) Adults .....  | 227 |
| b) Minors (students).....                                  | 228 |

### List of the figures and tables

|  |  |
|--|--|
| Figure 1 The relationship of the themes  | <b>Ошибка! Закладка не определена.</b> |
| Figure 2 The location of the innovative schools in Kazakhstan.....   | 25                                     |
| Figure 3 The perceived aspects of international education (adapted from Hayden, Thompson & Williams (2003)). | <b>Ошибка! Закладка не определена.</b> |
| Figure 4 The model of intercultural competence .....   | 30                                     |
| Figure 5 Overview of the research methodology.....   | 52                                     |
| Figure 6 Subjects of the teachers .....  | 60                                     |
| Figure 7 The term ‘internationalisation’ in English, Russian and Kazakh..                                    | 72                                     |
| Figure 8 Internationalisation as global citizenship education .....  | 109                                    |
| Figure 9 Internationalisation as competitive graduate education .....  | 80                                     |
| Figure 10 Curriculum internationalisation challenges.....  | 136                                    |
| Figure 11 The research findings .....  | 160                                    |
|  |  |
| Table 1 Age group of the participants (SMT, teachers, students) .....  | 59                                     |
| Table 2 Work experience (SMT, teachers) .....  | 59                                     |
| Table 3 Experience of the school (SMT, teachers, parents, students).....                                     | 59                                     |
| Table 4 Timeline of data collection and data analysis.....   | 60                                     |
| Table 5 List of the school documents.....  | 66                                     |



## **Glossary of acronyms**

APID – Advanced Placement International Diploma

APK – Assembly of the People of Kazakhstan

CIE – Cambridge International Examinations

CIS – Commonwealth of Independent States

CIS – Council of International Schools

CLIL – Content Language Integrated Learning

ELF – English as Lingua Franca

GCSE – General Certificate of Secondary Education

IB DP – International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme

IBMYP – International Baccalaureate Primary Years Programme

IBO – International Baccalaureate Organisation

IBPYP – International Baccalaureate Primary Years Programme

ICT – Information and Communication Technology

IELTS – International English Language Test System

L1 – First Language

L2 – Second Language

L3 – Third Language

PISA – Programme for International Student Assessment

SAT – Scholastic Aptitude Test

SET – Scientist Entry Test

SMT – Senior Management Team

TIMSS – Trends in Mathematics and Science Study

TOEFL – Test of English as a Foreign Language

USSR – Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

WW2 – the World War II

**Declaration**

This thesis is the result of my own work and has not been submitted previously at this or any other university.

**Copyright statement**

*“The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. No quotation from it should be published without the author's prior written consent and information derived from it should be acknowledged.”*

**Acknowledgements**

My sincere gratitude goes to my supervisor Dr Oakleigh Welply for her constant support and encouragement during the research. She made me believe in myself and my research.

I am grateful to the participants of this research. This research would be impossible without them. Thanks for sharing your time, thoughts and opinions. Special thank you to my friends whose support helped me complete my studies. Thank you to those who encouraged and helped me enter Durham University. Thank you to those who has always been there for me for a friendly advice and support. Thank you to those who looked after my daughter so that I could attend conferences.

I would also like to thank my parents and my five siblings who supported me throughout my studies.

Finally, my deepest gratitude goes to my daughter, Aruzhan, who has been with me during my studies, supported and helped me. Thanks for being understanding and patient.

## **Introduction**

### **1.1 Context**

The purpose of this research was to explore the conception of curriculum internationalisation of secondary education in Kazakhstan. In the last few years there has been an increasing interest in secondary education internationalisation which can be explained by several factors: the growing interconnectedness of the people all over the world, the development of information technologies and Internet and the increasing rate of immigration and emigration (Yemini, 2014). Curriculum internationalisation is broadly viewed as a strategy to meet the demands of globalisation (Yan, Han & Cai, 2015; Mendis, 2007; Giulianotti & Robertson, 2006; Ross & Lou, 2005). However, this raises the question of what those demands are. On the one hand, globalisation leading to marketization of education and economic liberalisation (Henze, 2014; Myers, 2010; Bobrov, 2009) demands for educating a competitive graduate (Leask, 2015; Wiseman & Baker, 2015; Palmer & Cho, 2012). On the other hand, globalisation leading to the increased interaction between people and international conflicts being solved regardless of nationalities and religions requires global citizenship education in a secondary school (Doherty & McLaughlin, 2015; Leask, 2015; Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Andreotti, 2011a,b; Carber, 2009; Cambridge, 2002; Langley, Villarreal & Columbia, 1997). Thus, it can be concluded that curriculum internationalisation is associated with educating both internationally competitive and interculturally competent students. Though, it is not as straightforward as it seems. The complexity of the notion of curriculum internationalisation will be discussed below.

The literature on curriculum internationalisation shows at least two approaches to curriculum internationalisation as mentioned above. Those approaches reflect the juxtaposition of internationalisation and globalisation. Firstly, globalisation as the driving force of curriculum internationalisation represents neoliberal view on education. “Intensification of market competition in the new global economic order” (Wiseman & Baker, 2015, p. 9) has led to regarding internationalisation of education as a way to enhance the economic and academic competitiveness of the graduates and the country (Henze, 2014; Knight, 2010; Bobrov, 2009; Jonathan, 1997). Education is believed to

contribute significantly to the economic development of nations (Hannum & Buchmann, 2003; Benavot, 1992; Fuller & Rubinson, 1992; McMahon & Boediono, 1992). Therefore, the governments invest money in curriculum internationalisation of education. Kazakhstan is no exception. It has invested in the creation of a system of innovative schools that will pioneer the educational reforms in Kazakhstan. According to the President of Kazakhstan, the aim of education is to educate globally competitive graduates (Nazarbayev, 2007). The quality of education is now measured in terms of the students' performance at the high-stakes tests (Wiseman & Baker, 2015). So, internationalisation is sometimes viewed as an attempt to copy the educational practice of the countries that perform better at the international tests (Wiseman & Baker, 2015). However, it is necessary to take into account the national context when internationalising the curriculum so that internationalisation is not turned into a form of imperialism and colonisation by wealthier countries.

Secondly, curriculum internationalisation is closely associated with providing global citizenship and international education (Doherty & McLaughlin, 2015; Leask, 2015; Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Andreotti, 2011; Carber, 2009; Cambridge, 2002). Until recently, the latter was believed to be limited to international schools because international education was believed to happen only in the culturally diverse environment (Hill, 2007a). This is especially difficult to achieve in the context of Kazakhstan as the overwhelming majority of the staff and student body is local students. Even if Kazakhstani secondary schools were open for international students, it is hard to attract international students to Kazakhstan. Firstly, it can be explained by the low economic status of Kazakhstan being a developing country. Secondly, Kazakhstan lacks an English-speaking environment which will make the life of English-speaking students harder. Thus, Kazakhstan is rarely a popular destination for international students to obtain secondary education. However, now it is argued that any national school can provide global citizenship education even with no or small percentage of international students (Hill, 2007a; Lucas, 1998). Henceforth, internationalisation of national systems of education has been gaining importance in recent years (Hayden, 2011).

## **1.2 Rationale and significance**

The rationale for this study comes from the idea that international education is associated with providing quality education as it is believed to be “a reliable product conforming to consistent quality standards throughout the world” (Cambridge, 2002, p. 227). Internationalisation can help create an environment and conditions for international education to happen in a public secondary school. Therefore, it can be available for all the students regardless of their social status. This subsequently might help fight discrimination and segregation in education and increase students’ social mobility. An increased understanding of internationalisation may result in the change of the school practice. Therefore, it may improve education quality in national schools. Initially, internationalisation was the prerogative of higher education institutions. Therefore, the focus of research on curriculum internationalisation has been on higher education (e.g. Knight, 2012, 2010, 2004, 2003, 1997; De Haan, 2014; Deardorff, De Wit, Heyl & Adams, 2012; James, 2005). However, very few publications are available in the literature that address the issue of curriculum internationalisation of secondary education, especially in the context of post-Soviet countries. Hence, this research will shed light on the concept of curriculum internationalisation as perceived by the stakeholders of a secondary school in Kazakhstan.

It was anticipated that the knowledge discovered by this study can inform research on secondary education internationalisation. Moreover, the findings of this study can inform judgements and decisions of the practitioners and policy-makers concerning the reforms and improvement of the curriculum of secondary schools in terms of its internationalisation in Kazakhstan and post-Soviet Asian countries. Researching the perceptions and interpretations of curriculum internationalisation of secondary school stakeholders can shed light on teaching and curriculum development efforts within education internationalisation. Ultimately, this research can contribute to the understanding of how secondary schooling can prepare its graduates and staff members to meet the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

## **1.3 Research questions**

In seeking to understand the phenomenon of curriculum internationalisation in the context of a Kazakhstani secondary school, the study addressed the following research questions:

1. How is curriculum internationalisation of a secondary school perceived by the school stakeholders (senior management team members, teachers, students and parents) and conceptualised in the school documents and policies in Kazakhstan?
2. What are the perceived challenges of curriculum internationalisation of a secondary school in Kazakhstan?

#### **1.4 Thesis organisation**

This thesis is divided into two parts. Part 1 of this thesis focuses on the literature in the area of curriculum internationalisation in secondary education and explains the methodological background of this research. Within Part 1, Chapter 1 provides a review of literature on curriculum internationalisation. Chapter 2 presents contextual information about Kazakhstan and its education. Chapter 3 presents and discusses the methodology and research design of this study. Part 2 presents and discusses the research findings and concludes with the discussion, implications and contribution of this research. Within Part 2, Chapter 4 explores the definition of curriculum internationalisation as the competitive graduate education. Chapter 5 explores the perception of curriculum internationalisation as global citizenship education. Chapter 6 discusses the perceived challenges of curriculum internationalisation in secondary education in Kazakhstan.

## **Part 1 Substantive theoretical and methodological background**

### **Review of the literature**

The purpose of this research is to explore the conception of curriculum internationalisation in a Kazakhstani secondary school through the perceptions of the school stakeholders and school documents and policies. This chapter is aimed at providing a review of the existing literature on curriculum internationalisation in order to situate the current research and identify the gap that this research is addressing. It is argued that there is a growing interest in internationalising national secondary education due to globalisation. However, to my knowledge, curriculum internationalisation has been scarcely investigated from the point of view of the stakeholders of secondary schools in Central Asia, not to mention Kazakhstan.

The chapter starts with discussing research on internationalisation both in higher and secondary education. The second section reviews the literature on curriculum internationalisation including the overview of the existing knowledge on the perceptions of (curriculum) internationalisation at secondary schools, internationally and in Kazakhstan, and on perceived challenges of (curriculum) internationalisation at secondary schools. The two sections have subsections on internationalisation from global citizenship and neoliberal perspectives which reflects the structure of the findings chapters. The chapter concludes with the identified gap in the existing research on curriculum internationalisation of national secondary education that this research can address.

### **2.1 Internationalisation of higher and secondary education**

Guided by the aim of the research to explore the conception of curriculum internationalisation in a secondary school, this section will discuss research on internationalisation of higher and secondary education and the relationship between internationalisation and globalisation in order to identify the niche for this research. The research on higher education internationalisation was included due to the lack of research on internationalisation in national secondary schools.

A review of the literature shows that there has been huge research work in the field of internationalisation of higher education (e.g. Knight, 2012, 2010, 2004, 2003, 1994; De Haan, 2013; Deardorff, de Wit & Heyl, 2012; James, 2005) as well as in the field of international education and international schools (e.g.

Cambridge, 2012, 2002; Hill, 2007a,b, 2000; Cambridge & Carthew, 2007; Sylvester, 2002; Heyward, 2002; Matthews, 2002; Hayden & Thompson, 2001, 2000, 1997, 1995; Walker, 2000; Hayden & Wong, 1997). Since the 20<sup>th</sup> century, there has been a trend towards internationalisation of higher education in Western Europe and the USA. It started with diversifying the staff and student body and then turned to curriculum internationalisation (Leask, 2015). As for the USSR, during the Cold War, international higher education was viewed as the way to maintain the expansion and influence of the Soviet Union. The Soviet Union admitted international students from the countries that promoted socialist ideologies like Africa (Dolby & Rahman, 2008).

The most popular definition found in the research on internationalisation of higher education published in English is the one given by Knight (2003). She (ibid.) defined internationalisation as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (p. 2). Internationalisation focusses on cultural and linguistic diversity of the staff and student body, international research, intercultural teaching and learning and the development of intercultural competence (Rizvi, 2015; Jones & Killick, 2007; Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003; Nilsson, 2000; Langley, Villarreal & Columbia, 1997). In addition, De Wit, Hunter, Howard & Egron-Polak (2015) and Leask (2009) incorporated an idea of the service to the local society in the definition of internationalisation. In this view, internationalisation of education is perceived to incorporate citizenship education into curriculum. Students are supposed to organise and take part in charity events for the local community. Thus, they could feel connected to the local environment and culture. In this view, education internationalisation is believed to unite global and national citizenship education (Nussbaum, 1996; Appiah, 2006; Osler, 2011).

Concerning internationalisation of secondary education, as it was stated above, there is not much research on it. Therefore, the definitions presented above can be applied to secondary education as well (Yemini, 2012) at the moment because secondary schools can provide diversity, research and intercultural competence for the staff and students as well. Moreover, secondary schools are believed to have more power and facilities to develop students' international and intercultural awareness, global education and global citizenship (Myers, 2010;



Loveland, Miyakawa & Hirayama, 2004; Tucker, 1991). This proves that secondary schools represent an appropriate platform for curriculum internationalisation. Furthermore, in the light of the current armed conflicts in Iran, Iraq, Syria, the increase of terrorist attacks in Europe and an intolerant politics of the USA president, students need to be educated in terms of intercultural awareness and global citizenship. Therefore, there is a need for internationalising secondary education (Palmer & Cho, 2012).

As it was mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, internationalisation and globalisation play an important role in internationalisation. The relationship between curriculum internationalisation and globalisation will be discussed below.

### ***2.1.1 Internationalisation and globalisation***

According to the literature on internationalisation of secondary and higher education, the tendency for curriculum internationalisation is influenced by two concepts: internationalisation and globalisation. There is a common belief that these concepts are dichotomous where internationalisation is viewed as 'good' and globalisation as 'evil' (Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011; Myers, 2010). This means that internationalisation is believed to promote the values of quality and excellence, cooperation and mobility, while globalisation is guided by a more competitive approach and leads to marketization of education (Van Vught, Van der Wende & Westerheijden, 2002; Cambridge, 2002; Gardner, 2000). Internationalisation is often juxtaposed to globalisation because the former is believed to oppose marketization, performativity and commodification of education which are considered to be the integral aspects of the latter (Killick, 2015; Cambridge, 2002). Both of these trends are believed to be present in internationalisation in Kazakhstan as the latter aims at educating global professionals and global citizens as is stated in the President's addresses to the people of Kazakhstan (Nazarbayev, 2010, 2009, 2007, 2006, 2004). The government of Kazakhstan invests into reforming education in order to increase the competitiveness of Kazakhstan and Kazakhstani citizens on the global scale which is discussed in Chapter 2 (p. ***Ошибка! Залка не определена.***). The innovation of national secondary education in order to meet the requirements of the global society is delegated to the school where this study took place. There is more information about the school in Chapter 3 (p. 56).

Internationalisation can be closely associated with global citizenship education as it leads to a shift in thinking and attitudes of the students and staff making them more open and tolerant towards the diversity of cultures and opinions (Caruana, 2007). Furthermore, internationalisation is supposed to “extend beyond national or even supra-national boundaries, must equip our students with the ethical foundations for action among diverse peoples and in diverse contexts, and must contain some notion of making our way in the world in the ways which do not make it a better place for me/us at the expense of you/them” (Killick, 2015, p.18). Thus, internationalisation is believed to contribute to the development of global citizenship among the students and teachers (Killick, 2015; Henze, 2014) through cultural and linguistic diversity, international cooperation and an internationally minded outlook (Cambridge, 2002). It can be inferred that internationalisation is perceived as an idealistic approach to curriculum internationalisation designed to develop such graduate qualities as intercultural competence, international mindedness, tolerance and respect to others and cooperation and collaboration skills.

On the contrary, globalisation is viewed to be driven by neoliberal policies (Myers, 2010). It is advertised as being economically beneficial for everyone because it brings free markets, competition and economic liberalisation (Myers, 2010) as discussed on p. 33 later in this chapter. However, this view on globalisation has been contested. Globalisation is likely to contribute to the expansion of the hegemony of the USA and Western European universities as well as their values and graduate qualities (Killick, 2015; Leask, 2015). For instance, Chankseliani (2016) and Chankseliani & Hessel (2016a,b) discovered that the main destinations for the students from post-Soviet countries were post-Soviet countries, Europe and the USA. The students from Kazakhstan, particularly, targeted the UK universities (ibid.). It implies that there is a demand for secondary education to be internationalised in order to be able to educate graduates who meet the requirements of the universities of those countries.

On the negative side, such neoliberal view on internationalisation can lead to an uneven distribution of social and economic goods between developed and developing countries (Leask, 2015) because globalised education “serves first and foremost the interests of developed, rather than developing, countries” (Feniger, Livneh & Yogev, 2012, p.333). Hence, higher education has become

one of the most profitable branches of the economy of the Anglophone developed countries (Bates, 2011; Bobrov, 2009; Haigh, 2002). For example, approximately £3 billion a year goes into the UK local economy due to undergraduate fees and expenditures (Chankseliani & Hessel, 2016b). In this context, globalisation can be associated with the imperialistic expansion of powerful nations and organisation and the imposition of their ideology on the rest of the world (Dervin, 2016; Palmer & Cho, 2012; Andrews & Ritzer, 2007). As for education internationalisation in the context of globalisation, it can be viewed as colonisation, as soft imperialism (Marginson, 1999), as westernisation (Al Farra, 2000). International education accompanying globalisation can lead to the promotion of the values and attitudes of the developed neoliberal countries which do not always correspond with Asian values and attitudes (Poore, 2005; James, 2005) especially of the post-Soviet countries. This issue has to be addressed by the developed countries when internationalising its education.

As a counterweight to the expansion of the influence of Western or Anglophone educational institutions there appeared a glocalisation theory. Glocalisation is defined as the reaction of the peripheral countries to globalisation (Mendis, 2007; Giulianotti & Robertson, 2006; Ross & Lou, 2005). According to it, the developing or less powerful countries seek to educate students who can successfully compete with others in the global arena (Palmer & Cho, 2012). According to the world systems theory, peripheries are economically disadvantaged countries (Chankseliani, 2016). She (ibid.) states that the majority of the post-Soviet countries can be categorised as peripheral. So, educating competitive graduates is believed to help the peripheral nations resist the colonisation by richer countries (Al Farra, 2000). Yet, this can lead to quite controversial results because the credentials of Western higher education are an accepted index of competitiveness. This is supported by the increasing spread of the English language as the means of communication generally and as the instruction medium in educational institutions worldwide (Weenink, 2009; Carder, 2007; Mok, 2007; Andrews & Ritzer, 2007; Altbach & Teichler, 2001). Moreover, it is claimed that the development of peripheral countries is “extremely unlikely” (Chankseliani, 2016, p. 302) because the core countries (economically advanced countries) have all the resources and power to retain

their position as the leading countries in the world. However, the President of Kazakhstan believes that the investment in human capital through education can contribute to increasing economic competitiveness of the country (Nazarbayev, 2007, 2012, 2014, 2017). Thus, internationalisation of secondary and higher education can be viewed as a way to increase competitiveness of Kazakhstani graduates on the global scale.

Despite the differences between globalisation and internationalisation, both of them are believed to improve the quality of education (Leask, 2015; Henze, 2014; Krasnoshchyokov, 2014; Yemini, 2012; Bobrov, 2009; Mok, 2007; Haigh, 2002). Thus, they both are economically profitable for a country. Henze (2014) and Bobrov (2009) say that economic growth and competitiveness are one of the main rationales for education internationalisation. "The double role of internationalization in furthering both cooperation and competition among countries is a new reality of our more globalized world" (Knight, 2010, p. 216). Internationalisation is becoming more influenced by the global knowledge economy which leads to a more competitive approach rather than cooperative (Teichler, 2004). In this respect, internationalisation and globalisation have the same target: the development of a competitive graduate which will be discussed later in this chapter. However, it cannot be separated from another aim of education – global citizenship education, which will be discussed on p.20.

In terms of cultural encounters, there are different views on this in the context of globalisation and internationalisation. On the negative side, they are claimed to bring uniformity. Globalisation is named as the process "by which the peoples of the world are incorporated into a single world society, a global society" (Albrow, 1990, p. 9). Globalisation is not a neutral process (Room, 2000). Instead, it is a culturally loaded process. As a result, globalisation and internationalisation can threaten national identity of the students (De Wit & Adams, 2010; Cenoz, 2009; Byram & Grundy, 2002). Therefore, globalisation might be viewed as a form of westernisation because it might promote the so-called Western values (Hoppers, 2014; Wylie, 2011; Myers, 2010; Pieterse, 2006). Nevertheless, due the current interconnectedness of the world, it is hard to define what 'Western' and 'Western culture' actually mean (Sen, 2007). Culture is defined as fluid and socially constructed concept (Holliday, 2016;

Kelly, 2004; Crane, 1994) which is not always geographically and/or nationally restricted.

Indeed, the juxtaposition of the global and the national is often disputed (Welply, 2015). Globalisation is not a homogenous phenomenon. In fact, Appadurai (2006) argues that globalisation leads to heterogeneous dialogues between the local/national and the global. The effects of globalisation often depend on the contextual factors such as the local political and cultural economies (Appadurai, 2006). Therefore, globalisation may bring both oppressive and emancipatory opportunities. According to Rizvi & Lingard (2010), it is important to develop “ethical and responsible local citizens who appreciate the connections between the local, the national, and the global” (p. 31). Thus, it is necessary to accept the heterogeneous character of globalisation and to react to it in a proper way. Furthermore, the claim that globalization imposes cultural uniformity can be contested because internationalisation and globalisation are believed to promote cultural diversity and otherness (Streiwieser, 2014). Indeed, globalisation and the development of ICT have led to the increase in the cultural contact with people all over the world (Streiwieser, 2014; Myers, 2010; Appadurai, 2006). Hence, globalisation is believed to have emancipatory potential and can unite people all over the world and lead to the development of the global citizenship education (Appadurai, 2006; Weber, 2003) which is believed to be one of the main targets of internationalisation (Doherty & McLaughlin, 2015; Orloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; James, 2005).

Another issue rooting from the misconception of globalisation is that some countries may justify their nationhood and national identity strengthening politics by the threat of globalisation (Appadurai, 2006). As schools often transmit the culture of the country where they are located, learning in the national schools might challenge the minor ethnic and national groups (Kelly, 2004). This is true in case of Kazakhstan. Such politics can lead to discrimination of the minorities living on the territory of Kazakhstan. For example, “The Trinity of Languages” emphasises the importance of the three languages only (Kazakh, Russian and English). Teaching the languages and cultures of the minorities living in Kazakhstan is a rare case. That is why, globalisation and the reaction to it need to be treated with caution. It is necessary to take into account the cultural

diversity of the classroom and the local community when researching and implementing internationalisation of secondary education.

## **2.2 Curriculum internationalisation**

Before moving to curriculum internationalisation, it is helpful to give a brief overview of how curriculum is defined in this research. Curriculum includes “content, pedagogy, assessment, and competencies; planned and unplanned experiences; and intention and actuality” (Leask, 2015, p.7). Any school curriculum consists of formal, informal and hidden curricula. The formal curriculum is defined as a syllabus of the planned activities, the informal curriculum as the extracurricular activities organised by the school to support the learning process, and the hidden curriculum as the hidden ideology implicitly promoted by the school (Leask, 2015; Kelly, 2004, 1999) and the school culture (Banks, 2001). Overall, the curriculum of the secondary school in Kazakhstan consists of the formal school programme with an academic programme for each subject with the suggested content, learning outcomes and resources. There is a designated programme for extracurricular activities which includes exchange trips, voluntary and charity work, hobby clubs and social events. Finally, school stakeholders (senior management team members, teachers, students and parents) are considered as a part of the curriculum.

All these parts of the curriculum “define students’ present learning and develop the skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed to create future opportunities for them and others within an increasingly connected and globalized society” (Leask, 2015, p. 9). This highlights the importance of curriculum for students’ learning. Curriculum can contribute to the development of intercultural and international skills, knowledge and attitudes of the staff and students. Therefore, curriculum internationalisation is a paramount aspect of internationalisation of education.

Moving to the definition of curriculum internationalisation, it is often defined as the reaction of governments and educational institutions to globalisation (Yan, Han & Cai, 2015; Tudball, 2005). It is often associated with international education because it opens access to international higher education and global labour market (Resnik, 2012a,b; Cambridge, 2002). Although internationalisation of curriculum is a global trend nowadays (Yemini, 2012; Weenink, 2009), it is still quite an ambiguous topic. Leask (2009) defined the

aim of curriculum internationalisation as to educate the university graduates as global professionals and citizens through “internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity” (p.209). Apparently, both internationalisation and curriculum internationalisation prioritise the role of cultural and linguistic diversity.

The existing literature highlights the features of internationalisation of secondary education in several countries. Bringing the examples of these countries can help shape the current situation with internationalisation of secondary education in the world and the role of curriculum internationalisation within it. These studies show that secondary education internationalisation prioritise the role of curriculum internationalisation moving away from relying only on international students and staff as presented in Table 1 below.

*Table 1 International examples of curriculum internationalisation*

| #  | Curriculum internationalisation  | Country         | Reference                         |
|----|--|-----------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. | Obligatory secondary education, learning World history and English, the possibility to choose between Humanities and Science strands, in-service training of the staff and life-long learning.   | Japan           | Gushchin (2012)                   |
| 2. | Foreign languages learning, an internationally recognized curriculum, overseas experienced teachers, commitment to human rights and respect for diversity and international exchange programmes. | The USA         | Carber (2009); Rizvi (2007, 2015) |
| 3. | Bilingual curriculum (teaching Dutch and English), exchange programmes for both teachers and students, and extracurricular activities with an international outlook.                             | The Netherlands | Weenink (2009)                    |
| 4. | International students and the development and improvement of the  | Australia       | Matthews (2002)                   |

|    |  |        |                 |
|----|--|--------|-----------------|
|    | curriculum including teaching and learning.                  |        |                 |
| 5. | The bilingual education and cultural diversity of the staff. | Jordan | Al Farra (2000) |

In summary, these examples show the consensus on languages learning and the cultural diversity of staff and students as being aspects of curriculum internationalisation.

Languages learning and teaching is believed to be one of the curriculum's aspects which has a big potential to promote international education (Hoskins & Sallah, 2011; Byram, 2006; Byram, Zarate & Neuner, 1997; Byram & Leman, 1990). "Language and culture are critical filters and lenses through which everything is experienced and learned" (Leask, 2015, p. 91). In order to understand somebody who speaks a different language we should learn their language (Bredella, 2003). But does languages learning necessarily lead to understanding those who speak that language? Languages learning goes along with learning the culture. It can contribute to educating a world citizen as it contributes to the development of attitudes of mutual tolerance and interest, of readiness for communication and exchange of viewpoints and lifestyles including the development of strategies for comprehension and interaction (Byram, Zarate & Neuner, 1997, p.48). Hoskins & Sallah (2011) also highlight the importance of learning languages, history and culture of different countries in order to develop intercultural competence which is one of the aims of international education. Ultimately, teaching languages and cultures is an important step in internationalising the curriculum of any educational institution (Rizvi, 2007). It can be summarised that curriculum development and innovation play a central role in internationalisation of secondary education.

As for Kazakhstan in particular, languages learning is a significant part of educational reforms there. The educational reforms in Kazakhstan are closely linked with curriculum internationalisation because the aim of the reforms is to bring the secondary education of Kazakhstan closer to the international standards of education. In connection with that, "The trilingual policy" has been created. This policy promotes the idea of the unity of the three languages: Kazakh, Russian and English. As a result, the schools in Kazakhstan are



required to teach the three languages. This is believed to turn Kazakhstani schools into multilingual and internationalised ones.

As for the diversity in the staff and student body, although in some countries, it is viewed as quite important, there is a growing tendency for internationalisation of the whole curriculum beyond solely staff and students' cultural diversity. This type of internationalisation can also be referred to internationalisation at home (Nilsson, 2000). Obviously, national secondary schools do not attract many international teachers and students. Therefore, curriculum internationalisation is most likely to provide students with an opportunity to experience international education without having to go abroad or having international staff. Scholars agree that the most important aspects of curriculum internationalisation are internationally informed content, cultural and linguistic diversity, an opportunity to develop international and intercultural perspectives and high quality of learning, teaching and assessment (Leask, 2015; Hoskins & Sallah, 2011; DiYanni, 2007; Jones & Killick, 2007; Rizvi, 2015, 2007; Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003; Gellar, 2002; McKillop-Ostrom, 2000). These aspects within curriculum internationalisation can help prepare students to the current social and cultural changes (Kelly, 2004). To summarise, curriculum internationalisation combines the targets of pragmatic globalisation and idealistic internationalisation: to educate a competitive professional and a global citizen.

Judging by the aim of curriculum internationalisation defined by Leask (2009) which was given in the beginning of this chapter, we can infer that the concepts of global citizenship education and neoliberal policies are believed to be interlinked. This is currently central for Kazakhstani education as the educational reforms are guided by the aim of becoming one of the developed countries, as the President of Kazakhstan announced in his annual addresses to the peoples of Kazakhstan (Nazarbayev, 2017, 2014, 2012, 2007). He stated that the innovation of education can be successful only if the graduates of Kazakhstani schools and universities were in demand in any country of the world (Nazarbayev, 2007). This involves educating students to become both the global citizen and the global professional.

Interestingly, Leask (2009) differentiates between curriculum internationalisation and an internationalised curriculum. In her view, curriculum

internationalisation is a process leading to an internationalised curriculum which is the result of that process. Hence, the latter is an outcome of the former. An internationalised curriculum "will facilitate the development in all students of the skills, knowledge, and attitudes that will equip them, as graduates, professionals, and citizens of the world to live and work effectively in a rapidly changing and increasingly connected global society" (Leask, 2015, p. 12). Thus, an internationalised curriculum may contribute to the process of preparing graduates to live, study and work in the global society through the development of graduate attributes or graduate qualities (Leask, 2015; Haigh, 2002; Nilsson, 2000). Some Australian and UK universities include global citizenship and international perspectives as their graduates' attributes (Leask, 2015). These graduate attributes can be applied to secondary school graduates as well. This implies that global citizenship and graduate perspectives are supposed to be among the skills of a secondary school graduate.

Although the adoption of globally branded curricula such as IBPYP, IBMYP, IB DP and GCSE is sometimes viewed as one of the main approaches to curriculum internationalisation (Doherty & McLaughlin, 2015; Carder, 2007), an internationalised curriculum is rarely based on any one national or international educational system or one teaching approach; it is usually a mixture of national and international practices (McKillop-Ostrom, 2000). Therefore, it is important to adapt culturally appropriate pedagogy instead of blindly copying international educational systems (Bartlett & Burton, 2012). The essence of curriculum internationalisation depends on the environment and the context of an educational institute (Leask, 2015).

Curriculum internationalisation has led to the creation of internationally minded schools where the diversity in the ethnic composition of the staff and student body is not necessary (Hill, 2000). These "schools with an 'international mind-set' might serve a local population without any formal 'international' definition, offering global or international values and goals rather than a locally oriented curriculum" (Yemini, 2012, p.153). Such schools are internationalised through learning about others and promoting so-called universal values (Hayden, Thompson & Walker, 2002). These values include the freedom from prejudices and stereotyping, understanding the value systems which differ from one's own, empathy and sympathy, promotion of peace and prosperity regardless of the

skin colour, race, religion and nationality. Thus, internationalisation of curriculum in the light of international mindedness makes an attempt to fight any form of discrimination.

For example, internationalisation of public schools in Indonesia started when the policy of International Standard School was introduced, Fahmi, Maulana & Yusuf (2011) state. That project was aimed at improving the quality of education and providing better education for the community. One of the goals of that project was to establish at least one international standard school in a primary and/or secondary school in each province (Fahmi, Maulana & Yusuf, 2011). The same situation is in Kazakhstan. There is an innovative national educational project of reforming secondary education in Kazakhstan. The aim of the project is to establish an internationally accredited state secondary school in every geographically important city of Kazakhstan. The location of these schools is represented in Figure 2. The stars represent the schools. As we can see, every province has at least one such school. As Kazakhstan is a huge country (the 9<sup>th</sup> largest country in the world), such distribution of schools is supposed to cover the whole country and facilitate smooth translation of the accumulated experience to mainstream secondary schools in Kazakhstan.

*Figure 1 The location of the innovative schools in Kazakhstan*



Nevertheless, Hayden & Thompson (1995) argue that it is not the curriculum but the environment where the children are, who they play with and what they think about other people that play an important role in internationalisation. Thus, cultural diversity is a necessity in curriculum internationalisation because an

international curriculum is supposed to enable students from a variety of national backgrounds to study together and to provide education that would be acceptable in higher educational institutions worldwide (McKilopp-Ostrom, 2000). In further research, Hayden and Thompson (1995, 1997) found that both students and teachers regarded the exposure within and outside school to students from other nations and cultures as more important to experience an international education than a formally 'international' curriculum. Moreover, Gellar (2002) suggests that the concept of international education requires a curriculum which is aimed at developing students' skills to achieve their aims as well as expanding the world perspectives through the inclusion of the subjects which are not provided in the national curriculum. As we can see, cultural diversity is significant for international education. This is one of the reasons why only international schools were believed to provide international education: international schools are designed for international students to be taught together by international staff.

As we can see, there are four main aspects of curriculum internationalisation: cultural diversity, formal and informal curricula and the local culture (Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003). In its turn, formal curriculum covers multilingualism, international standards in assessment, studying about one's own and other cultures, study trips abroad including exchange trips, intercultural mindedness and learning English (Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003). Then, informal curriculum involves organizing international events and extracurricular activities, being exposed to other cultures, going abroad on exchange trips and inviting international guest speakers (Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003). Finally, the local culture means learning about the local culture where the school is situated including learning the local language and service to the local community (Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003). These ideas strongly resemble the structure of the IB curriculum and represent both idealistic and pragmatic (neoliberal) views on curriculum internationalisation that will be discussed below.

In this research, curriculum internationalisation is defined as the process leading to an internationalised curriculum. Such curriculum meets the international standards and is able to deliver global citizenship education. It enables the school students and teachers to appreciate cultural diversity and become global

citizens. In addition, such curriculum provides the school students and teachers with better opportunities in terms of further education and career. Therefore, the school teachers and graduates feel comfortable in any part of the world.

However, secondary schools face some problems with implementing the above-mentioned ideas. For example, Tucker (1991) discovered that there was a lack of international outlook and awareness among students and teachers in American national secondary schools. Other challenges include the lack of qualified teachers and problems with conceptualising such terms as internationalisation, intercultural and international awareness, intercultural competence, and others (Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012). Despite the growing tendency for curriculum internationalisation in secondary education, there is insufficient research on curriculum internationalisation of national secondary education and almost non-existent in non-Western countries. Therefore, it is necessary to move away from existing models of internationalisation (Maringe, 2010), taking into account the context of different cultures (Leask, 2015) which requires research on curriculum internationalisation of secondary education in non-Western countries. This is the gap that this research aims to address.

### ***2.2.1 Global citizenship education and internationalisation***

This section will explore and critique the concept of global citizenship education within the context of curriculum internationalisation. It includes the examination of the relationship between global citizenship and interculturality, and global citizenship and cosmopolitanism.

Internationalisation seems to be inseparable from the concepts of global citizenship education as it is argued that curriculum internationalisation aims at educating global citizens (Doherty & McLaughlin, 2015; Leask, 2015; Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Andreotti, 2011a; Carber, 2009; Cambridge, 2002). The concept of a global citizen in this research is viewed as an umbrella term including not only global citizenship but also intercultural citizenship and cosmopolitanism. This is explained by the belief that cosmopolitanism and interculturality are the key components of the global citizen (Leask, 2015; Rizvi, 2005). The relationship between these concepts will be discussed later on pages 28 and 29. This section will attempt to operationalise the definitions of

the above-mentioned concepts through a critical review of the relevant literature.

### **2.2.1.1 Global citizenship education**

Globalisation is “a feature of late capitalism, or the condition of postmodernity, and, more important ... the emergence of a world system driven in large part by a global capitalist economy” (Luke & Luke, 2000, p. 287). Globalisation, the development of IT and Internet, and the consequent increase of interaction between people have resulted in a growing demand for global citizenship (Jackson, 2011). Global citizenship presupposes non-violent solution of any conflicts and any environmental issues on the global scale which have become prominent due to globalisation. This idealistic aim can be achieved through educating global citizens. This view resonates with the top-down approach to international education suggested by James (2005) who believes that developing global citizens will help address global and national issues. Therefore, literature on global citizenship emphasises the importance of building appropriate capacities. Those capacities include international understanding, tolerance, acceptance, respect and cooperation, the ability to reflect on and analyse the world and oneself and the ability to understand power relations (Parmenter, 2011; Prashby, 2011; McIntosh, 2005; James, 2005; QCA, 1998). This approach also includes the development of international-mindedness which means elimination of any form of discrimination (James, 2005). Hence, it is clear that global citizenship education is closely connected with curriculum internationalisation (Leask, 2015) because it implies the development of critical thinking skills, intercultural competence, problem-solving skills and the ability to apply these skills in the real-life situations (Leask, 2015). Such education prepares the students to live in the interdependent world to solve global and international problems.

Schools are believed to have the power to promote global citizenship education (Tucker, 1991). Specifically, Kerr (2000) and Lawton (2000) support active citizenship education which means “educating the future citizen for active participation in a democratic society” (p.9). Active citizens are supposed to actively exercise their rights and responsibilities in the global society. Students need to understand the consequences and responsibilities that their behaviour involves. Gundara (2000) believes that global citizenship education is learnt

through the students' "actual experiences at school which contribute to their understanding of their rights and responsibilities as future citizens" (p.15). Global citizenship education is supposed to "prepare students to be ethical and responsible citizens and human beings in this globalized world" (Leask, 2015, p. 30; Kerr, 2000) at the local, or national, and international, or global, levels (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010; Crick, 2000). This view is supported by Parmenter (2006) who argues that citizenship education is usually taught through the hidden curriculum, through the underlying culture of the school. In addition, Leask (2015) states that global citizenship is cultivated through education and experience. It includes History, Geography and Ethics learning (Osler & Starkey, 2003; Andrews, 1994). Accessing various international perspectives to be able to question the existing authority is believed to be another important aspect of global citizenship education (Bottery, 1992).

Judging by these conceptions of global citizenship education, it can be concluded that it has both local, or national, and international, or global, focusses. Consequently, global citizenship education can help establish positive relationship among people from various cultural backgrounds. Hence, global citizenship education requires interculturality and multiculturalism. The relationship between global citizenship and interculturality is discussed below.

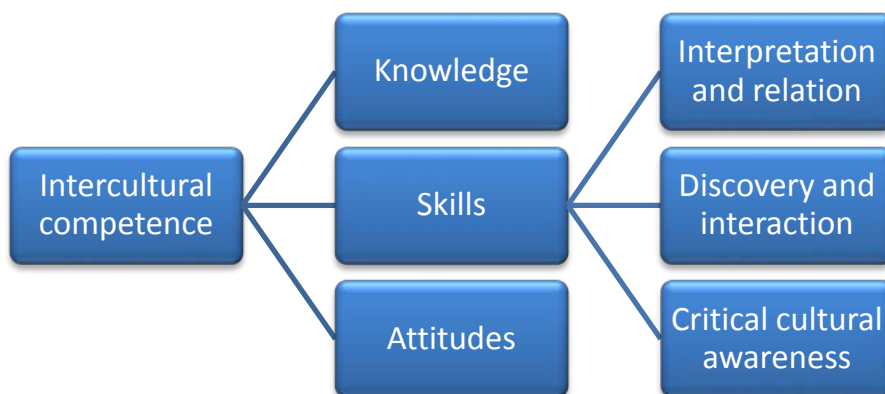
#### ***2.2.1.2 Global citizenship and interculturality***

Intercultural is often used when referring to "relationships between people from two different cultural backgrounds" (Gareis, 1995, p. 3). Although culture is common for people from the same socially defined and recognised group (Levine, Park & Kim, 2007), it is "not static and monolithic entities" (Witte & Harden, 2011, p.2). Instead, culture is a complex and dynamic notion. This means that intercultural is not limited to a person's nationality, race, or ethnicity. Hence, it is necessary to accept the presence of multiple identities beyond a nation (Parmenter, 2006). Therefore, one of the views on interculturality argues that any communication between people is likely to be intercultural and depends on the degree of heterogeneity of the individuals' background (Kim & Gudykunst, 1988). So interculturality is an integral part of curriculum internationalisation as it teaches students to communicate efficiently with people of various cultural backgrounds.

Being intercultural means being critical and reflective, being open to Others and Otherness, and being able to analyse one's own intercultural experience with the subsequent actions (Alred, Byram & Fleming, 2006; Bredella, 2003). Therefore, intercultural citizenship involves experience, reflection and action on the basis of experience, and attention to values. "An intercultural approach does not mean abandoning value positions but it means recognising the importance of understanding and negotiation" (Alred, Byram & Fleming, 2006, p.8). This means that the authors believe in the union of intercultural and national identity. Indeed, intercultural citizenship promotes meta-awareness of identity and the fact that values can conflict (Fleming, 2006). Therefore, questioning one's own values and one's own culture is central in intercultural citizenship education (Fleming, 2006). This again demonstrates the tendency to adopt an international approach to education rather than nationalistic.

Intercultural competence is believed to be one of the main qualities of global citizens (Leask, 2015). There is no clear definition of intercultural competence because it depends on the context and subject (Witte & Harden, 2011). One of the definitions of intercultural competence which summarises other definitions determines it as "the culture-specific and culture general knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for effective communication and interaction with individuals from other cultures" (Paige, Jorstad, Siaya, Klein & Colby, 2003, p. 177). This definition is complemented by the model of intercultural competence developed by Byram (1997). He (ibid.) defined it as a unity of knowledge, skills and attitudes as presented in Figure 4 below.

*Figure 2 The model of intercultural competence*





As we can see from Figure 4, intercultural competence is viewed as the unity of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Knowledge means knowing the ways people see themselves and others, the ways the social identities develop and of the interconnectedness between social groups and social identities. Attitudes include an ability to reflect on one's own beliefs, values and behaviours and being aware that there are different beliefs, values and behaviours. Judging by the model of intercultural competence, skills are categorised into three subskills: of interpretation and relation, of discovery and interaction and of critical cultural awareness. Skills of interpreting and relating imply an ability to interpret an event or a document from the point of view of another culture; skills of discovery and interaction imply being able to acquire new knowledge and apply it in the real-life situations; while critical cultural awareness means being able to evaluate perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures (Byram, 1997).

The development of intercultural competence is one of the main tasks of intercultural citizenship education as well due to its aim to encourage cross-national communication taking into account cultural and linguistic differences and commonalities (Byram, 2006). There is a need for interpretation and mediation between the speakers with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds because even in lingua franca communication people from different cultural backgrounds can misunderstand each other because "interlocutors introduce their own understandings into the language" (Byram, 2006, p.113). Therefore, a global citizen is supposed to acquire the capacities of an intercultural speaker where multilingualism together with intercultural competence play a prominent role.

To sum up, intercultural citizenship education requires engagement and action at both national and international levels (Byram, 1997). Intercultural citizenship accepts the importance of local and national affiliations but advises to be aware of the consequences of such affiliations. Judging by the definition and the characteristic features of intercultural citizenship the link between global citizenship education and intercultural citizenship education is inferred. Global citizenship embraces the ideas of intercultural citizenship as it aims at uniting the aims of national and intercultural citizenship education. It aims at educating patriots and global citizens as the world has become interconnected and no

country may stand separately from others. In order to achieve that aim, global citizenship is believed to embrace the ideas of cosmopolitanism which will be discussed below.

### **2.2.1.3 Global citizenship and cosmopolitanism**

Cosmopolitanism is claimed to be an antecedent of global citizenship education (Tarozzi & Torres, 2016). Cosmopolitan means a 'citizen of the world' in ancient Greek. A cosmopolitan was defined as "someone who was sophisticated, knew the ways of the world, and was open to other cultures, customs and ideas, and was not tied down to the traditions of his or her own nation or community" (Rizvi, 2005, p. 8). In other words, a cosmopolitan is believed to have a 'homeless mind' (Popkewitz, 2008). This means that a cosmopolitan refuses one's own local, or national, affiliations unlike intercultural citizenship. The term is often used in opposition to nationalism. However, some scholars view cosmopolitanism as a negative notion, considering cosmopolitan as a man without roots (Rizvi, 2005). Roots, or local affiliation and national identity, are considered important for people, as found by Woodward (2002) and Gundara (2000). Nevertheless, Nussbaum (1999) argues that cosmopolitanism does not presuppose rejection of local affiliations. Moreover, local, or national, identity is believed to compose one of the circles of a cosmopolitan citizen (Nussbaum, 1996; Appiah, 2006). Osler (2011) claims that cosmopolitan citizenship education requires critical patriotism and solidarity with other people of the world.

In the field of education, cosmopolitanism is connected with global citizenship education (Langmann, 2011) because global citizenship promotes the values of cosmopolitanism counterfeiting ethnocentrism and nationalism (Marshall, 2011). The concept of 'global cosmopolitan' has been introduced as the union of the ideas of global citizenship and cosmopolitanism (Marshall, 2011). Consequently, global citizenship embraces the ideas of cosmopolitan citizenship education. However, cosmopolitanism seems too narrow because it focusses only on the difference between national citizenship and global citizenship. Meanwhile, global citizenship celebrates the unity of the global and local. It embraces the ideas of cosmopolitanism and interculturality because one needs to be cosmopolitan in order to accept the world as one's own home and to be intercultural in order to keep local affiliations. Therefore, as this research

aims at exploring the phenomenon of curriculum internationalisation instead of mere juxtaposition of the global and the national, in this research I use the global citizen instead of the cosmopolitan.

#### **2.2.1.4 Critique of global citizenship education**

Overall, global citizenship education has two approaches: pragmatic and idealistic. From a pragmatic point of view, global citizenship is aimed at educating a competitive graduate with the relevant qualities that will help him/her successfully compete at the global level. However, there is an increasing concern over the growing hegemony of the legitimacy of the Western educational institutions. Andreotti (2011) and Parmenter (2011) claim that mainstream literature conceptualises global citizenship education from the Western point of view. This means that the graduate qualities needed to be competitive are mostly shaped by the so-called Western values and ideologies. For example, Palmer & Cho (2012) found that universities in South Korea provided an incentives scheme for the teachers teaching in English and/or having graduated from a Western university. In this case, global citizenship implies the universality of the Western values for the whole world. This understanding of the concept of global citizenship can lead to the promotion of neo-colonial or neo-liberal ideologies which prejudice the rights of the non-Western population (Tarozzi & Torres, 2016; Abdi, Shultz & Pillay, 2015; Andreotti, 2014; Camicia & Franklin, 2011; Prashby, 2011). Therefore, critical literacy is crucial for global citizenship education (Andreotti, 2014). Critical literacy is conceptualised as “a level of reading the word and the world that involves the development of skills of critical engagement and reflexivity: the analysis and critique of the relationships among perspectives, language, power, social groups and social practices by the learners” (Andreotti, 2014, p. 30). Thus, critical literacy will help the global citizens question the values and ideologies imposed on them by the Western world. Thus, it could result in the emancipatory potential of global citizenship education. This is crucial for this case study as Kazakhstan has already experienced colonisation from Russia. Therefore, the people of Kazakhstan treat internationalisation with caution. From an idealistic view, global citizenship education is supposed to unite both the general feeling of interconnectedness and respect for diversity and differences. So, instead of promoting the values and ideologies imposed by the

developed countries, global citizenship education celebrates diversity of cultures and opinions while having the feeling of belonging to the global society. Global citizenship education is supposed to educate for global social justice which promotes basic human rights of any citizen irrespective of his/her location (Tarozzi & Torres, 2016; Abdi, Shultz & Pillay, 2015; Khoo, 2011). This means that people are expected to define their own values, ideologies and paths of development on their own, basing on the peculiarities, concerns and the context of their own country and taking into account the wider context of the interconnected world. It demonstrates the unity of the global and the local promoted by global citizenship.

Camicia & Franklin (2011) categorise these opposing views as neoliberal cosmopolitanism and critical democracy which are not binary. "Students are being prepared as global citizens, but the meaning of this citizenship is complicated by a tension and blending between neoliberal and critical democratic discourses" (Camicia & Franklin, 2011, p.321). Neoliberal cosmopolitanism is guided by market rationality and promotes individual autonomy of the citizens while critical democracy is guided by the principles of social justice, multiculturalism, critical awareness of global power asymmetries and emancipation (Tarozzi & Torres, 2016; Andreotti, 2014; Camicia & Franklin, 2011; Khoo, 2011). The latter is believed to involve collaborative work for the common good (Khoo, 2011). Working for the common good is a familiar notion for Kazakhstan as it was one of the main driving forces of the Soviet regime and one of the main features of Soviet internationalism.

The Soviet internationalism promoted friendship between the countries of the USSR in order to build a powerful state under the pretence of the common good. However, it is argued that Soviet internationalism denied the right of the peoples to shape the future of their own country. All the policies of the USSR were issued by the civil servants located in Moscow. Moreover, the Soviet Union policies promoted the Russian language thus discriminating the languages of other states in the USSR. In this case, it follows the ideas of neoliberalism and neo-colonialism when a more powerful country uses education as a soft power to subordinate less powerful countries (Bennigsen, 1969).

One of the views on internationalisation states that neoliberal cosmopolitanism promoted by globalisation and the expansion of the English language as lingua

franca may lead to the colonisation of the world by more powerful and wealthier countries (Camicia & Franklin, 2011; Khoo, 2011; Parmenter, 2011). It is argued that internationalisation may lead to the loss of the control of the developing countries over their educational systems (Tikly, 2004). Stein, Andreotti & Suša (2016) suggest that developing countries follow the example of the developed countries. Furthermore, Shiva (1998) and Dobson (2005) argue that only certain countries have globalising powers, others are globalised. Spivak (1990) calls this the “worlding of the West as world”. Thus, there is a threat that Kazakhstan having just gained its independence can fall under the influence of the developed Western countries through education internationalisation. Schools are required to educate globally competitive graduates (Marshall, 2011; Young, 2008) due to the market-driven approach to internationalisation and the view of global citizenship education as education for a competitive citizenry (Tarozzi & Torres, 2016; Khoo, 2011). This is demonstrated by the promotion of English as the language of instruction and preparation of students to such exams as IELTS, TOEFL and SAT that will help them enter an international/Western university. The UK, the USA and other Western European countries are viewed as dream destinations for the students from the developing countries (Chankseliani & Hessel, 2016a,b). However, we need to remember that there is ethically-driven internationalisation which promotes education for social justice and human rights reflecting the ideas of critical democracy. As it was mentioned above, neoliberal cosmopolitanism and critical democracy within global citizenship education are supposed to be integrated and balanced. It is necessary to take into account the local context when internationalising curriculum of secondary education.

In summary, curriculum internationalisation is often associated with global citizenship education (Doherty & McLaughlin, 2015; Leask, 2015; Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Andreotti, 2011a; Carber, 2009; Cambridge, 2002). It is viewed as an instrument to promote global social justice and mutual tolerance among the representatives of different cultures. On the other hand, global citizenship education can be viewed as a tool to increase the hegemony of Western educational institutions and systems (Leask, 2015; Killick, 2015). This is justified by the aspiration of the developing countries to develop faster and be on a par with the developed countries. This results in the demand for secondary

schools to educate competitive graduates. Nevertheless, Westgarth (2014) believes that internationalised schools are not limited to just preparing students to enter a university or a college. Instead, they are aimed at educating global citizens as education has the power to build a better world. Therefore, education internationalisation is supposed to “promote peace, mutual respect and environmental care” (Tarozzi & Torres, 2016, p.2) which is believed to be the main aim of global citizenship education. Moreover, global citizenship education may interrogate and counterfeit the increasing hegemony of the West (Prashby, 2011). This can be achieved through the development of critical cultural awareness. Critical cultural awareness is defined as “an ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one’s own and other cultures and countries” (Byram, 1997, p. 53). It is one of the main aspects of cosmopolitanism, intercultural citizenship and, consequently, of global citizenship education (Guilherme, 2007; Starkey, 2007; Byram, 2008).

To conclude, although global citizenship may increase the Western hegemony and neo-colonialism through the promotion of the English language and Western ideologies, it is still believed to help students learn and accept other cultures, understand the value of different perspectives and realise their responsibilities to the global society and the whole planet. Therefore, curriculum internationalisation of secondary education involves interculturality as was discussed in Internationalisation and globalisation (p. 13).

Another driving force of curriculum internationalisation, as mentioned above, is neoliberal ideology of education. Neoliberalism promotes the ideas of market-driven and competitive education which will be discussed below.

### ***2.2.2 Neoliberal ideology in education***

This section will review literature on neoliberalism in education including marketization of education and performativity as the main representations of neoliberal policies in education and, particularly, in the context of curriculum internationalisation.

“Education is not marginal to politics; it's central to politics!”, Giroux stated in his interview for the Truthout (Nevradakis, 2014). Thus, any political ideologies play an important part in education because schools are influenced by politics of the country. As curriculum internationalisation is often associated with such

neoliberal concept as economic competitiveness (Henze, 2014; Bobrov, 2009), this section is devoted to discussing neoliberalism and its impact on education internationalisation. Before reviewing the conception of neoliberalism, I admit that the neoliberal policies discussed below are taken in the context of such developed countries as the UK and the USA as they have a bigger impact on education in Kazakhstan. Firstly, this is explained by the fact that the universities of the UK and the USA are top ranked worldwide. Therefore, Kazakhstani graduates target to enter universities in those countries. Moreover, Kazakhstan is trying to be on a par with the developed countries. That is why it looks at the example of those countries. Finally, Tony Blair, a former Prime Minister of the UK serves as an advisor of the President of Kazakhstan. His recommendations could be based on his experience in the UK. These factors have led to the choice of those countries.

Neoliberal ideology has been present in educational discourses of capitalist societies since 1980s (Davies & Bansel, 2007). Giroux (2005) defines neoliberalism as an ideology imposing the values of a market-driven society at the expense of democratic politics. Chomsky states that “one of the paradoxes of neo-liberalism is that it’s not new and it’s not liberal” (as cited in O’Connell, 2016) because neoliberalism in fact suppresses the freedom and the right to choose of common people (Giroux, 2014 as cited in Nevradakis, 2014). Although neoliberalism is advertised as the promotion of free markets, those markets are, in fact, under control of the powerful national and international organisations. ‘[M]asters of private economy’ aka the large multinational corporations gain more control and power in the international economy and policies (Chomsky, 1998). Giroux reinforces that idea stating that neoliberalism is ‘a particular political and economic and social project that ... consolidates class power in the hands of the one percent’ (Nevradakis, 2014). Thus, neoliberals are claimed to legitimise the hegemony of the ruling class and those who have more control and power (Felluga, 2015; Wylie, 2011; Bottery, 2006; Walker, 2000). The same is believed to be happening in education. The standards of education are dictated by the requirements of the global labour market. Colcough (1996) believed that education can help developing countries improve their current state. He, however, warned against total marketization of education. Furthermore, the government can control education through creating

the official knowledge which is filtered through the political decisions (Apple, 2008). This can be achieved through altering the content of curriculum, through publishing appropriate textbooks and policies and influencing the pedagogy through adopting market values (Apple, 2008). Apple (2008) argues that curriculum-making "is not a natural or essentialist activity but ... constructed in conditions in which there are more powerful and less powerful voices" (p.70). Moreover, he (Apple, 2000) states that official curricula play an important role in making and remaking the society. Thus, it can be implied that internationalisation of curriculum in Kazakhstan is viewed as an attempt to break away from the Soviet socialistic view on education in order to bring Kazakhstan closer to the developed Western countries.

In the era of economic globalisation and neoliberal view on education, education has become "a financial sector, increasingly infused by and driven by the logic of profit" (Ball, 2012, p. 27). Marketization and performativity which accompany neoliberalism has created a policy which regards education as "the way in which policy ensembles, collections of related policies, exercise power through a production of 'truth' and 'knowledge'" (Ball, 1993, p.12). Power relations are of paramount focus in curriculum internationalisation because the latter is often viewed as westernisation (Al Farra, 2000) or 'soft power' (Marginson, 1999). It is argued that internationalisation is based on the Western models of education and Western ideology (Mok, 2007; Zeleza, 2012; Soudien, 2005). 'The legitimacy of "Western" credentials has become the accepted international norm for policymakers in every nation around the world' (Wiseman & Baker, 2015, p.6). This in turn leads to the dominance of Eurocentric practices, paradigms and programmes (Leask, 2015). Internationalisation might also impose Western values on the peoples in the developing countries due to the power imbalance. For instance, such dominant multinational economic organisations as the World Bank and OECD have the power to disseminate certain ideas about education as well as to enforce the implementation of those ideas (Wiseman & Baker, 2015). Furthermore, research on education that also influences the educational reforms and policies is mostly funded by wealthier countries and is conducted and disseminated in English (Wiseman & Baker, 2015). This leads us to the notion of power and dominance in the world and specifically in education. Thus,



curriculum internationalisation in the developing countries can be viewed as adopting the educational model of the developed countries.

Neoliberalism is closely associated with marketisation and performativity as neoliberals prioritise testing and training for the workplace (Giroux, 2014 as cited in Nevradakis, 2014). The concepts of marketization and performativity are discussed below.

### **2.2.2.1 Marketisation**

The economic globalisation results in education commodification which turns education from the public good into the private one (Bottery, 2006). Thus, education has become one of the sources of the economical income. Therefore, instead of serving the whole community without discriminating anyone by their social and economic status (Bridges, 1994; Grace, 1988), education has become a tool for wealthier and mobile people and countries to succeed in the world economic competition (Bridges, 1994; Jonathan, 1997). Knowledge is now viewed as the currency of globalisation and the measure of competitiveness (Wylie, 2011). Consequently, the countries with an advertised system of education profit more than other countries. League tables play a significant role in advertising educational institutions. As we know, the majority of the top institutions from league tables are situated in the USA and the UK. Hence, marketization results in inequality and power imbalance. For example, among post-Soviet countries, Russia is the only country that has two universities in the list of top 500 universities (ARWU, 2013). As marketization affects any aspect of education, it also influences curriculum internationalisation. Curriculum internationalisation is often associated with preparing school graduates to enter the most prestigious universities according to the league tables in spite of the current debates on their reliability.

On the other hand, market competition may lead to the improvement of education quality. Marketisation as a result of neoliberal policy provides schools with an opportunity to become autonomous and the consumers (parents and students) to make informed choices about education (Bridges & Jonathan, 2003). For instance, during the Soviet Union time parents and students were not supposed to criticise or question the work of teachers. At present, due to competition and marketization of education, schools and teachers have to develop and improve in order to stay in demand in the present neoliberal society.

However, such competition can lead to constant assessment and evaluation of teachers' performance (Shore & Wright, 1999) resulting in performativity which is discussed below.

### **2.2.2.2 Performativity**

Yeatman (1994) defines performativity as the "principle of governance which establishes strictly functional relations between a state and its inside and outside environments" (p.111). This means that the government can manipulate and control education with the help of performativity. The latter is likely to provoke educational reforms (Ball, 1998) due to the changes in the international arena.

Neoliberal view of education is expressed more explicitly in the definition of Ball (2003):

technology, a culture and a mode of regulation that employs judgements, comparisons and displays as means of incentive, control, attrition and change based on rewards and sanctions (both material and symbolic). The performances (of individual subjects or organisations) serve as measures of productivity or output, or displays of 'quality', or 'moments' of promotion or inspection (p.216).

It is clear from this definition that competitive performativity has become the leading force of modern education. Thus, educators are forced to comply with the international/Western standards in education in order to prepare competitive graduates in the international arena (Wiseman & Baker, 2015). While in some countries this leads to teaching to the test (Kelly, 2004; Lambert & Lines, 2000; Somerset, 1996; De Luca & Board, 1994), 'surface' learning and cheating (Davis, 1999), in Kazakhstan performativity is demonstrated through the desire to teach subjects in English regardless of the quality of English and distinguishing some subjects as more important than others. For instance, Science is more important than Physical Education. Ultimately, the range of the students' and teachers' choices regarding subjects and the content is limited due to the determination to enter top universities in the league table. If we look at the league tables, we can see that the majority of the top universities are situated in the USA or Western Europe. Therefore, top performance countries benefit because they can sell their practices to the countries performing worse. For instance, the government of Kazakhstan invites experts in education from the USA and Western Europe to help Kazakhstan improve the quality of education in terms of creating new curricula or innovating teaching methods. This is likely to result

in curriculum internationalisation as the experts from those countries introduce international or Western practices into the system of education of Kazakhstan. According to Giroux (as cited in Nevradakis, 2014), consumption has become “the only applicable form of citizenship”. Consumption and constant competition has changed the aim of the educational institutions. Now they are aimed at preparing competitive graduates who can successfully perform both at international universities and global labour market.

It “replaces education aimed at deepening and broadening intelligence and sensibilities, developing historical consciousness and hermeneutic adroitness, acquiring diverse knowledge and literacies, becoming theoretically capacious and politically and socially perspicacious, with education aimed at honing technically-skilled entrepreneurial actors adept at gaming any system” (Brown, 2011, p. 123).

This explains the fast-increasing amount of international schools which are believed to prepare competitive graduates (Weenink, 2009).

Neoliberalism regards education as the private good. It is the ideology that is claimed to profit the core countries while the development of peripheral countries stays slow (Chankseliani, 2016). On the one hand, education marketization is likely to improve the quality of education and encourage national and international competitiveness which opens access to global education and labour market as mentioned in the previous section (p.33). On the other hand, performativity may benefit the developed English-speaking countries because the majority of the international exams and tests such as PISA and TIMSS are conducted in English. Furthermore, internationalisation can be regarded as the process of national schools becoming international through adopting Western curricula and using English as the language of instruction. Nevertheless, it is argued that schools can be used to resist the neoliberal ideas imposed on education through the informal and hidden curriculum (Apple, 2008). Neoliberal policies directly impact curriculum internationalisation in Kazakhstan. According to the policy of the government of Kazakhstan, the country aims at becoming one of the top thirty developed countries by 2050 (Nazarbayev, 2014). This implies the enhancement of the country’s competitiveness which includes internationalisation of education both higher and secondary. As there is scarce research on curriculum internationalisation within secondary education in non-Western countries, Kazakhstan is following a trial and error method. Therefore, it is necessary to

research curriculum internationalisation of secondary schools in non-Western countries in order to explore an alternative view.

### **Conclusion**

This chapter provided a review of the literature in the area of curriculum internationalisation. The concepts of internationalisation of education, curriculum internationalisation, international education, neoliberalism, global citizenship education and the relationship between internationalisation and globalisation were explored in order to identify the gap in literature that this research addressed.

Education is not a neutral process (Killick, 2015). "Education not only has a role to play in the development of the functional knowledge and skills within and beyond the immediate educational subject area ..., but must also enable [students] to develop a set of values that transform them" (Otter, 2007, p.42). All the changes accelerated by the development in economic production, ICT and globalisation contribute to the changes in education. This chapter illustrated the influence of internationalisation and global citizenship, globalisation and neoliberalism on the process of curriculum internationalisation. It should be recognised that internationalisation is a long-term process of becoming international (Caruana, 2007). Yet, it is still hard to define what it means to become international in education.

The main aim of education internationalisation is claimed to improve the quality of education in order to prepare students to live and work in the intercultural and international society (De Wit, 2011a,b,c; Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011). Thus, internationalisation is believed to result in the increase of the country's competitiveness on the global scale. However, it is argued that curriculum internationalisation benefits the wealthy and developed countries only (Camicia & Franklin, 2011; Khoo, 2011; Parmenter, 2011). It is often associated with westernisation of the non-Western countries through imposing so-called Western views on internationalisation. On the other hand, westernisation can result in quality improvement of education in the developing countries through applying international standards in education. The review demonstrated the complexity of curriculum internationalisation, especially in the non-Western settings.

This review helped identify the gap in research on curriculum internationalisation and form the research questions. This chapter demonstrated the urgent need to research curriculum internationalisation of national secondary education, particularly in non-Western countries. This is justified by a number of reasons:

1. The problem with defining curriculum internationalisation.
2. A lack of research on curriculum internationalisation of national secondary schools and even less so in non-Western countries.
3. The problem with internationalising national secondary education in the Kazakhstani setting.
4. The tension between the global citizenship and national citizenship education especially prominent within national secondary education.

This research addresses the above-mentioned issues and makes four contributions. Firstly, this research helps to shed light on the curriculum internationalisation in the state secondary schools in Kazakhstan. Secondly, it can provide an alternative view on curriculum internationalisation from the non-Western perspective. Thirdly, the research contributes to the ongoing debate on the juxtaposition of the 'global' and 'local' in curriculum internationalisation. Finally, it reveals the challenges that a state-funded school in Kazakhstan may face in curriculum internationalisation caused by the tension between national identity and global citizen and the resistance of the post-Soviet country to internationalisation.

## **The context of education in Kazakhstan**

The understanding of the context of Kazakhstan will help gain a better understanding of curriculum internationalisation of secondary education in Kazakhstan. This chapter will provide the readers with the background information of Kazakhstan. It will particularly focus on russification of Kazakhstan, the ethnic composition of the country, an overview of secondary education and the language policy in Kazakhstan.

### **3.1 Kazakhstan and russification**

Kazakhstan is a developing country sharing borders with its economically powerful neighbours: Russia and China. Kazakhstan and Russia have been closely connected historically, politically and economically since the early 18<sup>th</sup> century (Fierman, 1998). Russian colonialism beginning in 1750 has led to cultural and demographic crisis for peoples of Central Asia by the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Johnson, 2004). One of these issues were connected with Kazakhstan switching over to the Cyrillic alphabet from the Arabic one. It facilitated the growing hegemony of Russia imposing Russian values and Russian identity (Johnson, 2004). Under the rule of the Soviet Union, in 1938, teaching and learning Russian as the language of instruction became mandatory in Kazakhstan. All the cultures in the Soviet Union were merging while the Russian culture was dominant (Fierman, 2005).

Kazakhstan as other Central Asian countries became independent as the result of the collapse of the colonising power of the USSR. Although in 1992 the aim of “establishing secular, democratic governments with market-based economies” was announced, according to the Organization for Security Cooperation in Europe (as cited in Gleason, 2004), “none of the Central Asian states has realized the full potential for democratic change during the first decade of independence” (p.13). Internal markets in Kazakhstan suffered from “excessive government control, monopolies, and political interference” (Gleason, 2004, p.12). Even now the domestic policy of Kazakhstan is directed by the importance of maintaining good relations with Russia (O Beachain & Kevlihan, 2011). Obviously, this relationship influenced the education in Kazakhstan as well. The main influence is demonstrated in the language policy in secondary education of Kazakhstan.

### 3.2 The current language policy

Kazakhstan was the most Russified country of all the Central Asian republics. By the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Kazakhstan had the smallest number of the indigenous population. In addition, the population was distributed unevenly (Fierman, 1998). At the end of the Soviet era (1990s), 90% of Kazakhstan population was literate in Russian comparing to 10% Kazakh-speaking population (Yakavets, 2014; Fierman, 1998). Kazakh is still weak due to many years of its discrimination and russification (Fierman, 2005) and cannot be called the first or strongest language in Kazakhstan (Mehisto, 2015). Therefore, the language policies of Kazakhstan are aimed at reviving the Kazakh language. According to the Law on languages (1997), Kazakh is the state language, whereas Russian is the language for inter-ethnic communication.

The president of Kazakhstan emphasises the importance of the Kazakh language but admits the significance of other languages as well (Fierman, 2005). He protests against a total elimination of the Russian language unlike some other ex-members of the USSR (Nazarbayev, 2004) which could be explained by the desire to keep good relations and connections with Russia. Another reason is the belief that “educating children from different nationalities in their own and their neighbours’ languages increases social cohesion, reducing the risk of inter-ethnic violence” (Yakavets, 2014, p.16). Multilingualism can also serve as a resource in the transition from the old colonial language (Russian) to the national language (Kazakh). During this transition period both languages can be used simultaneously (Kuzhabekova, 2003). In order to maintain multilingualism, “The Trinity of Languages” (2006) project was created. This project promotes the idea of the unity of the three languages (Kazakh, Russian and English) at the official level. Thus, Kazakhstani primary and secondary schools are required to teach the three languages. Bridges & Sagintayeva (2014) summarise the strategic goals of the “Law on languages” (1997) and the cultural project “Trinity of Languages” (2006) in three main outcomes:

1. The increase of Kazakh-speaking population from 60% to 90% by 2020.
2. The increase of Russian-speaking population to 90% by 2020.
3. The increase of English-speaking population to 20% by 2020.

On the other hand, “The Trinity of Languages” seems premature in the current situation because it is more important to focus on promoting and teaching Kazakh (Zharkynbekova, Akynova & Aimoldina, 2013; Suleimenova, 2010). Currently, there is a plan to change the alphabet from Cyrillic to Latin in an attempt to reverse Russification and strengthen the Kazakh national identity (O Beachain, & Kevlihan, 2011). However, this is debatable because the Latin alphabet was used only in the period between 1929 and 1939 (Mehisto, Kambatyrova & Nurseitova, 2014). During the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the Arabic script was used on the territory of Kazakhstan (ibid.). So, if the aim of the transition to the Latin script is dictated by the aspiration to revive the national identity, it would make more sense to switch to the Arabic script. With this in mind, it can be concluded that the transition to the Latin script is initiated in order to bring Kazakhstan closer to the developed countries which is one of the perceived aims of curriculum internationalisation.

### **3.3 Secondary education of Kazakhstan**

Education is regarded as the main tool for improving the economic status of Kazakhstan. Gleason (2004) and Johnson (2004) believe that education will help the peoples of Central Asia revive their national identities and build a prosperous future. Therefore, the government of Kazakhstan has made big investments into the modernisation and innovation of both secondary and higher education.

The government of Kazakhstan has introduced several reforms of education since 1990s. The reforms in 1990s were aimed at maintaining Soviet traditions, building national identity of the new-born country and westernisation of the education. The reforms were unsystemic, uncoordinated and poorly managed (Yakavets, 2014). Later reforms in 2000s were aimed at internationalising education by applying world standards to education and cooperating with international educational providers (Yakavets & Dzhadrina, 2014; Fimyar, Yakavets & Bridges, 2014). “The main criterion of success of educational reform is to achieve such a level when any citizen of our country, having received appropriate education and qualification, can become a demanded specialist in any country in the world”, the President of Kazakhstan states (Nazarbayev, 2007). According to the TIMSS report (2008), students in Kazakhstan could solve educational problems but they were not taught how to apply the



knowledge in real-life situations. One of the first steps towards internationalisation in higher education in Kazakhstan was the transition to three-steps education: bachelor, master and PhD (Merrill, Yakubova, & Turlanbekova, 2015). However, there is still a lack of transparent quality assessment processes and tools both in higher and secondary education (Merrill, Yakubova, & Turlanbekova, 2015).

Obviously, any educational reforms face some obstacles. Heyneman (2004) identified several challenges in innovating an educational system of a post-Soviet country. First of all, as there was little contact with exterior world during the Soviet regime, it is challenging to transit from a Soviet model of education to an international (Heyneman, 2004). Internationalisation of education presupposes the transition to an international model of education. However, it needs to be done with caution in order not to lose one's own national features. Secondly, the Soviet educational system neglected the demand of the labour market. Therefore, there is an urge to change the structure of education in order to meet the requirements of the neoliberal market environment. This involves the analysis of the current demand in terms of knowledge and skills. That is believed to be one of the main premises for curriculum internationalisation (Yemini, 2014). Next, the introduction of transparent standardized tests is required in order to decrease corruption (Heyneman, 2004). With this intention, Kazakhstani secondary education is adopting international standardized tests such as SAT, SET and IELTS. For example, Nazarbayev University which is considered as one of the most prestigious universities to study requires IELTS, SAT and/or ACT as a part of the admission process (admissions.nu.edu.kz). Therefore, secondary schools are forced to prepare the graduates for those tests. On the one hand, the introduction of such tests can lead to the quality improvement of education. On the other hand, it is likely to result in teaching-to-test and performativity as discussed in *Chapter 1 (p.39)*. Overall, given the aim of the educational reforms is for Kazakhstan to become a developed country, they [the reforms] are likely to result in education internationalisation. Thus, it is important to understand the conception of curriculum internationalisation in the context of a Kazakhstani secondary school.

As it was stated in *Chapter 1 (p. Ошибка! Закладка не определена.)*, being exposed to various cultures was considered as a paramount aspect of

internationalisation. As Kazakhstan is not a popular destination for international people, the ethnic composition representing various cultures is important for school curriculum internationalisation.

### **3.4 Ethnic composition**

The features of interculturality are believed to be a part of multicultural Kazakhstan. The representatives of various cultures live peacefully in Kazakhstan. Since Kazakhstan gained its independence in 1991, there are no recorded cases of terroristic attacks on the territory of Kazakhstan. There is no open hostility to the representatives of various cultures in Kazakhstan, to my knowledge. The main role in maintaining intercultural relationship among the peoples of Kazakhstan is fulfilled by the Assembly of the People of Kazakhstan (APK). It was founded in 1995 with the aim to create favorable conditions for the further strengthening of inter-ethnic harmony, tolerance in society and the unity of the people. In addition, the APK assists state bodies in countering the manifestations of extremism and radicalism in society. The Assembly ensures the integration of the efforts of ethno-cultural associations; helps revive, preserve and develop the national cultures, languages and traditions of the peoples of Kazakhstan ([www.akorda.kz](http://www.akorda.kz)). It has the right to elect nine deputies to the 'Majilis' of the Parliament (Lower House of the Parliament) which has significantly increased the socio-political role of APK. The nine deputies from APK represent the interests of all ethnic groups of the country. In addition, Kazakhstani ethnic communities in Parliament are represented by their direct participation in the representative bodies through political parties ([www.akorda.kz](http://www.akorda.kz)). APK is a unique organisation on the territory of the post-Soviet countries.

The presence of different cultures in Kazakhstan is due to several reasons. Firstly, its geographical location: Kazakhstan is in Central Asia which makes it accessible for other peoples of Central Asia (Bridges & Sagintayeva, 2014). Moreover, according to Cenoz (2009), Asia is one of the most multilingual continents in the world. Secondly, when Kazakhstan was a member of the USSR, Stalin used it as a place of exile for people of different nationalities: Poles, Germans, Chechens, Ingushs (Bridges & Sagintayeva, 2014; Matuszkiewics, 2010). During the WW2 millions of people were evacuated to

Kazakhstan from the occupied territory of the USSR. Those people were well accepted by Kazakhs and brought multiculturalism to Kazakhstan.

However, the number of the representatives of different cultures decreased after the collapse of the USSR because the evacuated and deported went back to their motherlands. Now there are 120 nationalities in Kazakhstan: Kazakhs 63%, Russians 25%, Ukrainians 2.9%, Uzbeks 2.8%, Germans 1.5%, Tatars 1.5%, Uyghurs 1.5%. (Bridges & Sagintayeva, 2014). Although, the population is not as culturally diverse as it used to be, having hosted people from diverse cultural backgrounds must have influenced the perceptions and attitudes of the peoples of Kazakhstan.

### **Conclusion**

To sum up, Kazakhstan represents an interesting case for research due to several reasons. Apart from the fact that there was no research of this kind on this topic in Kazakhstan, the government of Kazakhstan strives to internationalise secondary education even in spite of the shortage of international staff and students. Then, the trilingual policy (the unity of Kazakh, Russian and English) is imposed from top to all levels of education although Kazakhstan lacks an English-speaking environment. At the same time, there is a growing demand for strengthening the Kazakh national identity and the Kazakh language. Thirdly, Kazakhstan represents a unique case of a secular Asian country where the majority of the population is Muslims. This fact can be explained by the influence of the historical background of the country being a member of the Soviet Union where religion was banned. Next, Kazakhstan shares borders with such big powerful countries as Russia and China that also influences the educational policies and reforms in Kazakhstan. Having such countries in the immediate neighbourhood requires the ability to negotiate and intercultural competence in order to maintain peaceful relationship. Another key point is that the President of Kazakhstan released annual addresses to the peoples of Kazakhstan where he announced the aim of Kazakhstan to become a developed country by 2050. Therefore, all the policies and reforms in education are aimed at increasing the competitiveness of the country and the graduates. Therefore, a network of secondary schools was created in order to pilot the innovative educational reforms which are likely to result in curriculum

internationalisation. That is why one of the schools from that network has been selected for this research.

In conclusion, it is clear that education innovation in Kazakhstan is influenced by several forces: russification, internationalisation, neoliberal policies of competitiveness, kazakhisation or national identity revival and global citizenship ideas. Therefore, there is a necessity to explore what is actually happening in the schools and how the concept of curriculum internationalisation is perceived by school stakeholders.

## **Methodology and research design**

### **4.1 Introduction**

In seeking to understand the phenomenon of curriculum internationalisation in the context of a Kazakhstani secondary school, the study addressed the following research questions:

3. How is curriculum internationalisation of a secondary school perceived by the school stakeholders (senior management team members, teachers, students and parents) and conceptualised in the school documents and policies in Kazakhstan?
4. What are the perceived challenges of curriculum internationalisation of a secondary school in Kazakhstan?

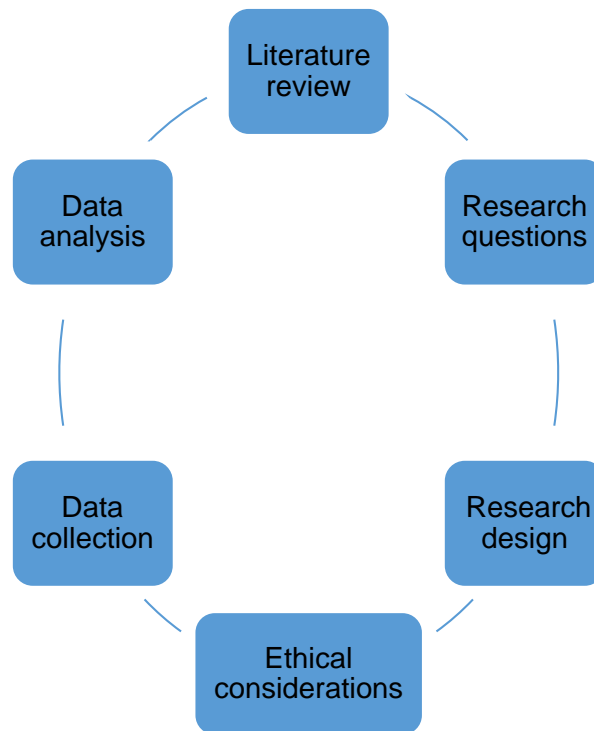
This chapter describes the research methodology and discusses the following aspects of this study: methodology and research design including data collection methods and analysis, and research considerations including issues and reflections on researcher position, researching multilingually, ethical considerations and research trustworthiness.

### **4.2 Research methodology and design**

#### **4.2.1 An interpretive research approach**

As the research aims at understanding perceptions, beliefs and attitudes of the participants in the context of the given school, an interpretive case study has been selected as the most appropriate research methodology to answer the research questions (Creswell, 2013; Bryman, 2001). The whole process of the research design is illustrated in Figure 5. The figure demonstrates the research design as a cyclic process. This process highlights the role of reflexivity at each stage and the flexibility of the research design so that any step of the cycle can be revisited at any stage of the research. This case study can be categorised as an intrinsic case study as it aims at obtaining an in-depth understanding of the perceived definition of curriculum internationalisation in a Kazakhstani secondary school which is the unique case in Kazakhstan (Stake, 1994). A more detailed rationale on selecting a case study design can be found in *Case study research design* (p. 55).

Figure 3 Overview of the research methodology



#### 4.2.2 Rationale for the research approach

The chosen methodology for conducting this research was justified by the researcher's desire to answer the above-mentioned research questions. The research was aimed at exploring the concept of curriculum internationalisation as perceived by the school stakeholders within a particular school. This means that I tried not to impose my own understanding of the concept of internationalisation but rather elicit it from the participants and the school documents. Researching multilingually which will be discussed in *Research considerations: issues and reflections* (p. 70) was also a big asset in discovering the perceptions of the school stakeholders. Collecting rich data on the interpretations of the participants and school documents of curriculum internationalisation brings the research into the interpretative epistemological position of research (Creswell, 2013; Myers, 2010).

As this study aimed at obtaining an in-depth understanding of school curriculum internationalisation as constructed by the school stakeholders, social constructivism was considered as an appropriate ontological position of this study. According to Vygotsky (1978), social interaction plays an integral role in cognitive development or 'meaning making'. This means that the reality is viewed as subjective and constructed as the result of interaction of external and

internal factors. In other words, knowledge or reality depends on both one's own beliefs/perceptions and the environment/society. Social constructivism allows the researcher to explore the reality constructed by the individuals within their historical and cultural context (Teater, 2014). This means that there is no universal truth but rather multiple truths that are subject to change (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Bryman, 2001; Wellington, 2000). Consequently, the conception of curriculum internationalisation as perceived by the school stakeholders reflects their unique reality influenced by the context of the school they work in and the context of Kazakhstan where they live. As there was only one school chosen to answer the research question, I did not intend to generalise the findings of the case study. Social constructivism allows the researcher to investigate a certain case or a phenomenon without worrying about its generalisability. Furthermore, as interaction is believed to be one of the main ways of learning (Vygotsky, 1978), the interview was selected as the main method of data collection. Interacting with the school stakeholders can shed light on their understanding of school curriculum internationalisation.

The concept of curriculum internationalisation within a public secondary school can be better conceptualised and interpreted with the help of the given school stakeholders such as senior management team members, teachers, students and parents. That is why interpretative research has been chosen as it is defined as "a situated activity that locates the observer [researcher] in the world. It [interpretive research] consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p.4). This means that the concept of curriculum internationalisation is made visible for the researcher through the eyes of the research participants and the documents produced by people. Furthermore, as the research is aimed at an in-depth understanding of the given phenomenon, applying multiple sources is considered as a good asset in achieving that aim.

This research methodology has the characteristic features that can better help answer the set research questions which will be presented below. Firstly, the proposed research methodology helps facilitate meaningful interaction between the researcher and the participants (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Bryman, 2001). It is significant for this case study as the main data collection method is interviews. Meaningful interaction with the participants is likely to

result in quality data which will help to obtain an insight into the participants' perceptions of curriculum internationalisation. This is especially true for this case study as I am a multilingual researcher. This is one of the reasons I conducted interviews in the language of the participants' choice (Kazakh, Russian and/or English). Such an approach is believed to empower research participants which is an important ethical issue in any research (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Bryman, 2001). As this case study is aimed at revealing the participants' perceptions, it is vital to listen to their voices. This research approach is also likely to decrease the power asymmetry and give voice to the participants. This feature is particularly significant in this inquiry as I worked with minors and people of a non-Western country. That is why their perceptions of ethics and the role of the researcher differ from the Western perceptions.

Secondly, flexible research methodology helps to disclose the ideas, attitudes and feelings of the research participants (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Bryman, 2001). This means that the research is flexible enough to cater for individualistic features of the participants. For example, I used Skype for interviewing parents, appropriated the interview questions for different levels of the participants and/or allocated more time on interviewing particular people. I could also change the language of the interviews according to the wish of the participants.

Finally, I acknowledge my own bias and own assumptions about the research findings. It is believed that any research is influenced by the researcher, even experimental research (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Bryman, 2001). Though the latter tries to eliminate any possible biases, I believe it is impossible to eliminate all of them because the research is an outcome of the researcher and the researcher interpretations. After all, any analysis is a researcher's interpretation of the participants' interpretations. In this research such methods as member checking, research data triangulation and data sources triangulation were applied in order to reduce researcher bias.

Taking into account all the above-mentioned reasons and the fact that there is not enough research on curriculum internationalisation in the government-funded schools in Kazakhstan and worldwide, I have decided that interpretive approach is the most appropriate research approach to answer the given research questions.



### 4.2.3 Case study research design

Within the framework of interpretive approach, a case study design suited the research questions. This research is aimed at obtaining an in-depth understanding of curriculum internationalisation in a certain secondary school in Kazakhstan. The research took place in the natural settings of the school in the real life during the school year. Observing the school and school stakeholders in the natural settings helped me bring my own insight into the research. As a form of research methodology, case study was selected as the most appropriate research design for this inquiry because it was aimed at an in-depth examination of a phenomenon bounded by time or place in the real-life context with its complexities (Punch, 2014; Creswell, 2013; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Yin, 2009; Stake, 2005; Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). Naturalistic settings of the research like conducting the research in the school under examination in the language of the interviewees minimises the intervention of the researcher (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Bryman, 2001). Thus, it helps relax the participants and elicit their real thoughts and perceptions. That is why the research took place during the school year at the school under examination with as less intervention from the researcher's side as possible. Contextual understanding of the case is essential in this research because the school under examination is a unique project in Kazakhstan. The school totally differs from other national secondary schools in Kazakhstan. It was created in order to reform primary and secondary education in Kazakhstan. I believe that this context is most likely to influence the perspectives of the school stakeholders on internationalisation. Therefore, that school has been selected for this case study. The information about the school will be presented in *Fieldwork and setting* (p. 56).

Wholeness and integrity is another characteristic feature of a case study as it can give a rich description of the case under examination (Punch, 2014; Creswell, 2013; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Yin, 2009; Nisbett & Watt, 1984). This will help the audience (the reader) understand the complex situation in the given school and the factors that could have influenced the findings and their interpretation of this research. Not only does the interpretive case study allow the researcher to obtain an insight into the perceptions of the research participants but also to understand the reasons behind it. For instance, the

researcher discovered that most of the participants had never thought about the concept of internationalisation and for most of them it was a foreign term. However, they could define it as it was associated with the term 'internationalism' which was popular during the Soviet Union period as the research findings revealed in *Chapter 4 (p. 110)*.

The case is studied through the participants' and observer's eyes which is one of the case study's features (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Collecting data from the participants of different levels (management, teachers, students and parents) and documents allowed me to explore the case from multiple perspectives (Simons, 2009). Moreover, observation of the school social events, staff meetings, lessons, exams and actually being a part of the school culture helped me obtain background information about the school and school stakeholders in order to create an holistic picture of the case.

Last but not least, the report on a case study is understandable for various audiences (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Nisbett & Watt, 1984) which is significant in disseminating the report findings. The findings of this case study are believed to be of primary importance for the school management, teachers and policy-makers. Therefore, dissemination is very important for this case study.

### **4.3 Fieldwork and setting**

#### **4.3.1 The research site information**

The school was selected because it is a unique project for Kazakhstan as it has its own educational programmes and policies. It does not follow the mainstream curriculum and has the right to create its own programmes, policies and rules. The school is intellectually selective and the entry is competitive though it is aimed at all the layers of the society. The school is a part of the network of the school founded as an experimental basis for developing and implementing new curricular. Subsequently, the school is supposed to translate the accumulated experience to the mainstream secondary schools in Kazakhstan. Another aim of this school is "to raise 'a new generation of intellectual elite' who can compete globally whilst maintaining traditional Kazakhstani values", according to the President of Kazakhstan (Nazarbayev, 2009). Clearly, this idea reflects the neoliberal image of education innovation in Kazakhstan.

The opening of this school was viewed as a response to the need for reforming the educational system in Kazakhstan (Shamshidinova, Ayubayeva & Bridges, 2014; Mehisto, Kambatyrova & Nurseitova, 2014). The innovations of the school include employment of international teachers, study trips abroad especially to the UK and the USA, the integrated educational programme and the Trilingual Educational Policy (Shamshidinova, Ayubayeva & Bridges, 2014). The educational programme integrates the best practices of the national and international educational systems and it was created by the local teacher in cooperation with the experts from Cambridge International Examinations. One of the aims of the Trilingual Programme is the development of knowledge, skills, attitudes and habits necessary for intercultural communication (Mehisto, 2015) which promotes the ideas of global citizenship education.

The research was carried out in a secondary school with about 800 students and about 150 teachers. It provides education for the students from grade 7 (13-14 years old) up to grade 12 (18-19 years old). The school is situated in the fast-developing city in Kazakhstan.

#### **4.3.2 Research sample**

As it was stated above, the site for the research was chosen purposefully because the school under examination is a unique project in Kazakhstan. It is known that studying unique cases is one of the main characteristics of a case study research design (Yin, 2009; Stake, 2005). The school is known for its innovative educational programmes, high qualified staff and motivated students, as was presented on p. 56, and it seeks to be internationally accredited. That is why I assumed that the school stakeholders were aware of the concepts of international education, international schools and internationalisation. The current situation of education in Kazakhstan is presented and discussed in *Chapter 2 (p. Ошибка! Залкада не определена.)*.

The aim of the research was to explore how the school stakeholders adopt various meanings and understandings of curriculum internationalisation from their shared experience on the school at a particular time. Stringer (2007) argues that “[a]ll stakeholders – those whose lives are affected by the problem under study – should be engaged in the processes of investigation” (p.11). Stakeholders play an important role in the implementation of any curriculum reforms in education (Mehisto, 2015). However, it is pragmatically

infeasible to include all the stakeholders in this research as there are about 150 teachers and about 800 students in the school (Guide for the teacher, 2016). Therefore, it was crucial to identify key informants and invite them to take part in the research as well as ask for their recommendations for other sources (Yin, 2009).

Sampling was a non-probability sampling (theoretical) as it is believed to be more feasible and more informative than probability sampling (Wellington, 1996). Namely, a purposeful stratified sampling procedure was applied to select the participants of this research within the school. Purposeful sampling means the participants and the site were selected because they can best inform understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon: who, what, how, why (Creswell, 2013). Another type of sampling used in this research was snowball sampling when the participants recommended other school stakeholders to be interviewed. When preparing for the data collection stage, I approached the school and asked for a list of the staff of the school including their e-mail addresses and the subjects they taught. I analysed the information in order to be as inclusive as possible. That data helped me identify the possible participants' demographic features. I sought to include individuals at a variety of different levels: senior management team members, teachers, students and parents; of different subjects: Arts, Biology, Geography, English and Social Science, Chemistry, Computer Science, World and Kazakhstan History, Maths, Physics, Physical Education, Kazakh and Kazakh literature, Russian and Russian literature; of different age groups: 22-32, 33-44, 45-55, 56-66; of different work experience generally in education: 1-5, 6-15, 16-25 and more than 25 years; of different work experience in the school under examination: less than 3 years and more than 3 years; and of senior grades: 9-12 grades. Different levels of the school stakeholders can have an impact on their perceptions due to their different positions in experiencing internationalisation policies (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). In addition, in order to illustrate the diverse perceptions of curriculum internationalisation it was necessary to gather a wide spectrum of perspectives. Furthermore, key informants at all levels can establish "in-house" triangulation (Wellington, 1996). I included both local and international teachers because they might experience internationalisation in different ways (Agar, 1996). Overall, there were 86 participants but 68 interviews because I

conducted focus groups interviews with the students. Thus, I conducted 55 semi-structured interviews and 13 focus group interviews. The demographic data is given below.

I divided all the school stakeholders into four groups: senior management team members, teachers, parents and students. The biggest group – teachers - was subcategorised according to the subject they teach. This technique is called stratified sampling (Flyvbjerg, 2006). I aimed at recruiting three teachers within each subject and who represented various age groups and work experience.

Demographic data of the sampling (teachers)

*Table 2 Age group of the participants (SMT, teachers, students)*

| Age group    | SMT      | Teachers  | Students  | Total     |
|--------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 22-32        | 3        | 13        |           | 16        |
| 33-44        | 3        | 13        |           | 16        |
| 45-55        | 1        | 14        |           | 15        |
| 56-66        | 1        | 1         |           | 2         |
| Grade 9-10   |          |           | 5         | 5         |
| Grade 11-12  |          |           | 26        | 26        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>8</b> | <b>41</b> | <b>31</b> | <b>80</b> |

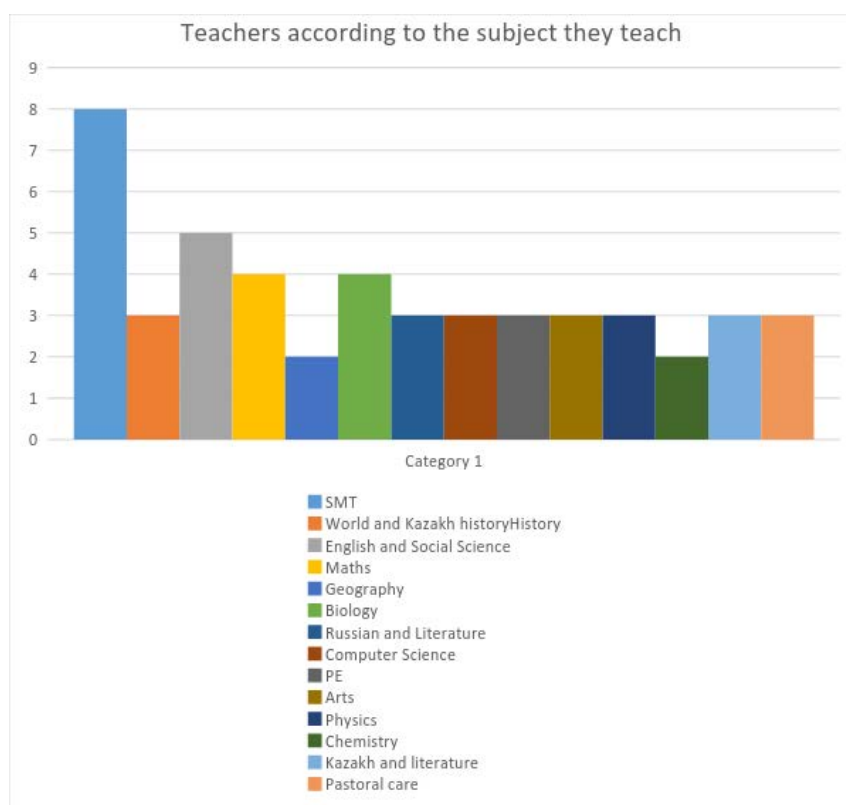
*Table 3 Work experience (SMT, teachers)*

| Work experience (overall) | SMT      | Teachers  | Total     |
|---------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1-5                       | 2        | 6         | 8         |
| 6-15                      | 2        | 15        | 17        |
| 16-25                     | 2        | 11        | 13        |
| >25                       | 2        | 4         | 6         |
| Unknown                   | 0        | 5         | 5         |
| <b>Total</b>              | <b>8</b> | <b>41</b> | <b>49</b> |

*Table 4 Experience of the school (SMT, teachers, parents, students)*

| Experience of the school | SMT      | Teachers  | Parents  | Students  | Total     |
|--------------------------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------|
| <3                       | 0        | 20        | 0        | 6         | 26        |
| >3                       | 8        | 21        | 6        | 25        | 60        |
| <b>Total</b>             | <b>8</b> | <b>41</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>31</b> | <b>86</b> |

Figure 4 Subjects of the teachers



It can be concluded that the sample of the research represented a variety of levels, subjects, age and experience. Researching people especially minors requires to consider ethical issues which will be discussed in *Ethical considerations* (p. 73). A brief overview of the data collection and data analysis is given in Table 4. More information and discussion on the process of data collection and data analysis will be presented below.

Table 5 Timeline of data collection and data analysis

| When                               | What                    | Who                    |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| <b>February – April, 2016</b>      | Interviews              | SMT, teachers, parents |
|                                    | Focus group interviews  | Students               |
| <b>February – July, 2016</b>       | Verbatim transcriptions | Interview recordings   |
| <b>February, 2016 – July, 2017</b> | Thematic analysis       | Interviews             |
| <b>August, 2016 – July, 2017</b>   | Thematic analysis       | Documents and policies |

#### **4.4 Data collection methods**

The use of multiple sources of data is essential in this study as it aims at researching the perceived conceptualisation of curriculum internationalisation by the school stakeholders at various levels: senior management team, teachers, students and parents and in the school documents. Collecting data from different sources can give a full picture of curriculum internationalisation at that particular school.

The use of multiple methods helps obtain an in-depth understanding of the case under examination and can strengthen trustworthiness of the research. Multiple methods employment is one of the characteristic features of a case study research (Stake, 2005). In-depth semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews and document research were employed as the methods for data collection in this case study.

##### **4.4.1 Interviews**

The interview was selected as the primary method for data collection in this research because interviews help reveal “people's perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and constructions” (Punch, 2014, p. 144) of curriculum internationalisation in the context of a Kazakhstani secondary school which is the main aim of this case study. The interview method helps to understand this phenomenon in the school from the research participants’ perspective (Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2013; Kvale, 2007; Fontana & Frey, 2005; Wellington, 1996).

I chose to apply the semi-structured interview which is a compromise between the structured and unstructured interviews (Wellington, 2000). Another term used for the semi-structured interview is the focussed interview which reveals the essence of this type of the interview (Kvale, 2007). The semi-structured interview is aimed at “obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena” (Kvale, 2007, p. 8). This means that in terms of this research the participants could convey their interpretations of the concept of curriculum internationalisation in the context of the school they belonged to through the interviews with the researcher guided by the interview questions.

The semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to focus on the research aim (Bryman, 2001) and to be flexible enough to have a space for any emerging

information that can supplement the research. This means that with the help of the interview guide I could keep the interviewees focussed on the research question but was open for any additional information that the participants were willing to share. Having an interview guide also helped largely when analysing the transcripts in identifying similar topics. Though interviews are criticised for their subjectivity (Kvale, 2007), this case study embraces subjectivity as an integral part of the research. Another perceived disadvantage of the interview is power relations asymmetry (Wellington, 2000). This means that the participants may be influenced by the researcher. That is why it is crucial to establish a friendly rapport with the participants. This was an easy job as most of the participants knew me as will be discussed in *Researcher position* (p. 70). Moreover, I tried to integrate fully in the school community by playing the role of a translator and interpreter at the school grand meetings, helping with assessing students' work for the English department and socialising with the teachers either inside or outside the school. Though it is argued that social integration can lead to bias I decided that establishing a friendly rapport was more important for the purposes of this case study.

#### **4.4.2 Focus group interviews**

The focus group interview was selected as another method for collecting data from students. The focus group interview is "a research method that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher" (Morgan, 1996, p.130). This means that the concept of curriculum internationalisation was socially constructed through a focussed discussion of the students within a group of peers. The group interviews are believed to be able to elicit views and perceptions of the participants (Punch, 2014; Wilson, 1997). In such interviews people are forced to defend their point of view, thus giving a researcher an opportunity to understand their inner motivation behind words (Bryman, 2001) and obtain diversity of opinions (Gibson & Hua, 2016). Ward, Bertrand and Brown (1991) compared surveys and focus group interviews. They (ibid.) concluded that the latter produces more in-depth information. Fern (1982) compared individual interviews with focus group interviews. The former was found to be more productive and efficient in terms of the obtained information and time (ibid.). This conclusion is supported by Gibson & Hua (2016).



A characteristic feature of the focus group interview is that the participants should have same features when discussing the given topic (Wellington, 1996). Focus group interviews were used with the students of the school. It is believed to be a helpful tool when working with minors because it is conducted in the natural settings and can create a friendly and stimulating atmosphere which leads to a meaningful interaction (Bryman, 2001; Wellington, 2000, 1996; Wilson, 1997). Furthermore, focus group interviews help reduce power asymmetry in the interview (Bryman, 2001). It is especially important when interviewing minors: the position of the interviewer as an adult and a researcher can influence the answers of the participants.

As I was interested in creating the environment as close to natural as possible to make the students comfortable I invited already existing groups as focus groups for the interview. There are certain advantages of using the existing groups like being easy for recruiting, easy for creating group interaction and the likelihood of support from the group members to express opinion. However, we need to keep in mind the disadvantages of using such groups. One of the disadvantages is concerned with group effects, such as some participants speaking too much and others feeling too shy to contribute (Punch, 2014; Crang & Cook, 2007; Bryman, 2001; Wellington, 1996). Another issue to think about is homogeneity and heterogeneity. Crang and Cook (2007) suggest using heterogeneous groups given the group members have common experience. Apparently, it depends on the research question and aim.

However, I did not notice any negative relationship in the focus groups. Apparently, the students formed the groups for the interviews where they felt comfortable to express their opinion. I did not have any requirements on homogeneity and heterogeneity of the groups. Mostly the groups consisted of the students from the same grade of approximately the same age and represented both genders. Therefore, they were mostly homogeneous rather than heterogeneous. It was acceptable for the research as I intended to interview students of the upper grades of approximately the same age. The reason why I chose to interview the students of grades 9-12 despite the fact that the school starts from grade 7 was the desire to gain the perspectives of those students who had experienced the school for some time. Rooting in social

constructivism, this case study was interested in the perceptions of the school stakeholders which were constructed in the context of the given school.

As for the number of people in the group, I was flexible because large groups can prevent some people from talking, while small groups can limit the range of experience of the involved participants. Therefore, mostly there were groups of two-three people, sometimes of four. I have to admit that the students formed the groups on their own.

Among the limitations of the focus group interview less control from the researcher, difficulty in organising the participants and analysing the data as well as being time-consuming in transcribing the data are named (Kvale, 2007; Crang & Cook, 2007; Bryman, 2001). These limitations are of pragmatic character and can be overcome by thorough organisation. Admittedly, these issues are a part of everyday life. Therefore, the researcher can include it as a part of the investigation. In this case study, it was hard sometimes to keep the students focussed on the research question. Sometimes, the students started expressing their opinion about the school in general. However, that information was useful because it helped obtain contextual understanding of the case. As for transcribing it was a good idea to transcribe them as soon as possible after the interview when I still remembered who said what. The interviews with the students were more dynamic but I personally took it as an advantage because they presented various ideas and felt confident about sharing them. Furthermore, due to the culture of the students, they tried to listen to each other without interrupting as that was what they had been taught at school.

#### **4.4.3 Interview schedule and pilot interviews**

I developed an interview guide with all the possible questions and probes in the English language. The interview questions were based around the topics of intercultural competence, cosmopolitanism and 21<sup>st</sup> century skills. Then the interview guide was translated into Russian and Kazakh as most of the participants' first language was Russian or Kazakh.

A pilot study was undertaken with three participants: a teacher, a parent and a student. I conducted Skype interviews with them because at that time I was still in the UK. Their comments were incorporated and the research questions were modified. For example, the student noticed that some of the questions and some terms were hard to understand. For instance, intercultural competence was a

foreign term for them. Therefore, I decided not to use the term but to rephrase it. As for the term internationalisation, which is a foreign term as well, I predicted that the participants would be confused (see pp. 82-83 and figure 7). However, as the aim of the research was to explore the definition of curriculum internationalisation as perceived by the participants I could not rephrase or explain it. Otherwise, the pilot participants had no issues and questions concerning the interview guide.

After that I sent the interview questions in Kazakh, Russian and English to the friends in Kazakhstan who knew the three languages at the proficient level. I asked them to review the questions in terms of proper translation and clarity. This was done because though Kazakh is my mother tongue, it is not my L1. As for the interview schedule, it was not possible to identify the exact schedule of the interviews. The participants were interviewed whenever they had some free time between lessons, during the lunch break or even after the lessons in the period between February and April, 2016.

#### **4.4.4 Interview process**

The researcher sent individual e-mails to the prospective participants describing the research purpose and inviting their participation. Upon arriving at the school, the prospective respondents were contacted face-to-face or by phone. The interviews took place between February and April 2016. All interviews were conducted face-to-face with the exception of one interview with a parent on Skype and were audio recorded. The interviews with the school stakeholders were conducted in the school settings either in the conference room or any other spare room I could find to ensure privacy of the interviews. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with senior management team members, teachers and parents. A couple of the students expressed a wish to be interviewed one-to-one. Before starting an interview, the participants were asked to read and sign the informed consent form. On completion of the interview, the audio recording was transcribed verbatim.

#### **4.4.5 Documentary research**

Documentary research was applied as a method for data collection to complement the interview data. Document research can enrich the research (Wellington, 2000). Documents are "socially situated products" (Scott, 1990, p. 34) which reflects the idea of social constructivism. They are produced by

people and for people. They include public records, the media, private papers and visual documents (Punch, 2014). They are considered as one of the most valuable and timesaving forms of data collection (Fetterman, 1989). As they can influence the attitudes, perceptions and ideas of the people, it was important to include documents analysis into this research.

The school documents included in this research range from school education programmes to annual school reports and strategies. Moreover, the school has its own website where some of the documents could be accessed. I had access to other school documents because I had worked as a teacher in that school as presented in *Researcher position* (p. 70).

It is important to evaluate the quality of the documents before using them in the research. Wellington (2000) gives the following criteria for evaluating the quality of the documents.

- Authenticity - the origin and the authorship.
- Credibility - accurate and true.
- Representativeness – typicality.
- Meaning - the meaning of the document.

I included thirty-five documents into this case study. They are all in Russian and Kazakh except for one. Having eliminated some of the documents that had no connection with the research question of this case study, I focussed on twenty-eight documents. The documents were selected on the basis of the interviewees' responses regarding curriculum internationalisation. For instance, the participants referred to the educational programme. That is why I included it into analysis. Each document is viewed as a social event constructed by people for people. That is why thematic analysis was applied in order to analyse the collected documents and interviews. All the documents were analysed in the language they had been written in. The list of the documents is given in Table 5.

*Table 6 List of the school documents*

| #     | Document title  | Year of issue | Author                      |
|-------|---|---------------|-----------------------------|
| 1-15. | Educational programme (Maths, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Computer | 2015-2016     | The school subject teachers |

|        |   |           |   |
|--------|---|-----------|---|
|        | Science, Social Science, Kazakh and Kazakh literature, Russian and Russian literature, English, World history, Kazakhstan history, Geography, Arts, Basics of Law, PE). |           | and an international organisation   |
| 16.    | School development strategy – 2020.   | 2013      | The managing company  |
| 17.    | School teacher handbook.  | N/A       | The school  |
| 18.    | School mission.   | 2015      | The school stakeholders (representatives of the senior management team, teachers, parents and students) |
| 19.    | Annual school report.   | 2015      | The managing company  |
| 20.    | Methodological guidelines for organization of educational process in [the school] in 2016-2017 academic year.   | 2016      | The managing company  |
| 21-25. | Documents on planning and organising extra-curricular activities (five documents).  | 2012-2013 | The managing company  |
| 26-27. | Documents on planning and organising professional development (two documents).  | 2011-2013 | The managing company  |
| 28.    | Code of ethics of the school teachers.  | 2012      | The managing company  |

#### 4.5 Data analysis

The aim of the research was to elicit the perceived conception of curriculum

internationalisation from the research participants rather than imposing the definition found in the literature. Therefore, the use of an inductive data analysis allowed me to approach the data with an open mind and no a priori codes. The inductive data analysis helps bring the researcher closer to the researched and into the participants' perceptions and feelings. This means that the data "speaks for itself" revealing the participants' real feelings and perceptions. Analysis was carried out in the original language and only relevant extracts were translated into English. This kept the analysis closer to the words and concepts of the participants and school documents and policies.

As this research included sixty-eight interviews lasting from twenty up to ninety minutes as well as school documents, the study resulted in a huge amount of data. All the transcriptions were imported into NVivo software and analysed there. NVivo software helps facilitate the analysis, it helps categorize and store the data but, as Kvale (2007) states, it is the researcher who does the findings interpretation.

I applied thematic analysis with a posteriori coding – inductive coding. This means that the themes or categories emerged from the data. The analysis was focused on the meaning conveyed by the participants. As I used inductive coding, it was important to immerse into the data collected (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Transcribing verbatim all the interviews was a good asset in it. Briefly speaking, the process of the analysis took much time. It started as soon as I arrived at the school. As I was based at the research site and spent there every day, the recruitment of the participants and the wording of the questions were influenced by constant observation and analysis of what was happening at the school. The actual coding started when I came back to Durham. Firstly, I printed out all the interviews and coded them manually. It helped me see the whole picture of the analysis. The codes were identified according to the research questions and the data. The next step was to identify the themes that connected or contrasted the codes. At first, I did not compare them across the participants' levels. In terms of Research question 1, two main themes were discovered: curriculum internationalisation as cosmopolitan locals' education and curriculum internationalisation as westernisation of Kazakhstani education. Only after such manual coding, I decided to input the transcriptions into NVivo software and check coding again (Bazeley & Jackson, 2007). After coding, each interview

transcription was supplemented with a chart summarizing the emerged themes of each interview. Those charts were really helpful when writing a report on the research to the school. In that report, the researcher presented the analysis of the research participants' answers separately. Therefore, those charts were useful in comparing the answers of the participants. Moreover, those charts were sent to the respondents for member checking. The charts were sent only to the senior management team members, teachers and some of the parents because I did not have the students' e-mails. Moreover, the students of grade 12 had already graduated by the time I completed the analysis. Some of the teachers sent their views on the preliminary findings. It was interesting that they did not accept the wording of the second theme: westernisation. They highlighted the importance of combining national and international. Therefore, taking into consideration the participants' feedback and having reviewed the data and codes again, westernisation was turned into competitive graduate education. This shows an iterative character of data analysis. After identifying the themes from the data, I reviewed the categories within themselves in order to establish the hierarchy of the subcategories and across different levels of the participants in order to compare the views of senior management team members, students, teachers and parents. Finally, the findings were situated within the prior and current research in the area of secondary education internationalization. The issues discovered in this study were also compared and contrasted with the issues discussed in the broader literature on the given topic. At that stage, having reviewed literature on global citizenship, cosmopolitanism and interculturality, the first theme (cosmopolitan locals education) was renamed into global citizenship education.

Another important thing to remember in thematic analysis is the context of the themes. For instance, one of the themes was 'cultural diversity of the staff and student body'. However, it fitted both 'global citizenship education' and 'competitive graduate education'. Without understanding the context of the theme, it would be difficult to place it into the relevant category.

As for the document research, thematic analysis was applied as well. The aim of the analysis was to identify the definition of the concept of curriculum internationalisation. The document analysis was conducted after the interview analysis. That is why the former was guided by the latter and the documents

used in the research were recommended by the participants. Thematic analysis can help understand. So, the analysis aimed at identifying the main themes and discourses of the documents and policies of the school. The analysis of the documents contributed to the understanding of the conception of curriculum internationalisation. For instance, the documents promoted the ideology of competitiveness which was reflected in the interviews as well.

Based on the analysis of the data, I was able to identify three major themes in response to the research questions. These themes formed the basis of the three findings chapters: Chapters 4, 5 and 6.

## **4.6 Research considerations: issues and reflections**

### ***4.6.1 Researcher position***

It is necessary to reflect on the position of the researcher in regards with contextual understanding. I used to work at the school under study before coming to Durham University. Therefore, I knew the senior management team members and some of the teachers. However, I was absent from the school and Kazakhstan due to my studies at Durham University for two years. In this time, the majority of the staff changed as well as the students whom I knew had graduated. Therefore, I was both an insider and outsider because I was away from the school studying and researching at Durham University. This position helped me gain a better understanding of the context of the school and the perceived concept of curriculum internationalisation in the secondary school of Kazakhstan. Another issue that affected this research and the position of the researcher is researching multilingually which will be discussed below.

### ***4.6.2 Researching multilingually***

Researching multilingually is an important aspect of this case study due to a number of reasons. First of all, the research took place in a non-English speaking but bilingual country. Secondly, the researcher is multilingual and conducted the research in three languages. In addition, this research is closely connected with interculturality which requires critical reflexivity of the researcher (Dervin, 2016; Holmes, Fay, Andrews & Attia, 2013). Multilingual researcher can benefit the research because she can mediate between different linguistic and cultural worlds, identify areas of methodological concern, and address ethical issues (Holmes, Fay, Andrews & Attia, 2013). Therefore, it is important to reflect on this aspect of the research.



If we start from the research site, the school under examination promotes the trilingual policy. This means that both staff and students are required to learn three languages: Kazakh, Russian and English. The choice of these three languages is justified by the fact that Kazakh is the state language of the country, Russian is an official language as the result of Kazakhstan having being a part of the Soviet Union and English is considered as an international language. English is viewed at the upper level as a necessary language to know in order to enhance the relationship with the Western world or, to be precise, the developed countries. As for personal interests for learning English, knowledge of English can influence career promotion. However, the problem is that even if people in Kazakhstan know Kazakh and Russian, they find it hard to learn English because there is no natural English-speaking environment. Therefore, it is beneficial for the researcher to know Russian and Kazakh. Researching multilingually affected all the stages of this case study including preparation for data collection, the data collection process itself and data analysis which will be discussed below.

#### 4.6.2.1 Preparation for the data collection stage

As I have already mentioned previously, all the information of the research had to be translated. As I am multilingual, I translated everything myself. Unfortunately, I have not spoken Kazakh for a long time. That was why I had been reviving my level of Kazakh since September, 2015. While translating, I found it difficult to translate the word “internationalisation” into Kazakh and Russian. In Russian internationalisation as a word is a borrowed word from English, while in Kazakh it is a borrowed word from Russian. We can see in the figure below that the words in Russian and Kazakh seem to have come from English.

*Figure 5 The term 'internationalisation' in English, Russian and Kazakh*



As for other terms, as I used descriptions and paraphrases instead of them to make them more understandable for the participants.

#### 4.6.2.2 Data collection process

The most important thing for me was to make the participants as comfortable as possible. Therefore, I let them choose the language of the interview. Apart from ethical considerations, being interviewed in their first language, allowed the participants to express their thoughts better. Moreover, it helped me recruit participants. For instance, some participants would refuse to participate in the research because they could not speak Russian. They assumed that I spoke only Russian and English. That is why knowing Kazakh helped me overcome the language barrier of the participants. Sometimes, a participant started speaking in Russian and then switched to Kazakh, or started with Russian and switched to English. Obviously, being multilingual was beneficial for the research in this case. Moreover, being multilingual helped me to establish a friendly rapport with the participants. Surprisingly, all the students even those from the grades with Kazakh as L1 preferred speaking Russian.

So, researching multilingually helped me recruit participants, create a friendly atmosphere during the interview and gave the participants an opportunity to express their thoughts freely. Furthermore, it helped me collect a sufficient number of the school documents. In fact, half of the collected documents were given to me by one of the teachers. On the other hand, knowing the language

could bias me as a researcher because sometimes the participants assumed I knew what they meant by choosing one or another word. That is why it was crucial for me to be careful when interpreting the answers and ask for clarification.

#### 4.6.2.3 Data analysis

I transcribed the interviews verbatim in the language of the interviewees. I divided the interviews into three groups according to the language they were in. I started from the interviews in English, then in Russian and the last were the interviews in Kazakh. The transcriptions were imported into NVivo and coded. I decided to label the codes in English as I kept in mind the consequent writing up of the thesis. Each transcription had a summary in the form of a graph with the emerged themes. Then I translated them into Russian and Kazakh and sent them back to the participants for member checking. Moreover, I composed a report on the results of the case study for the school. I wrote it in Russian and sent it to the research participants.

Being multilingual researcher benefited the analysis of the data because it allowed the data to “speak for itself”. It let me see the data unfold and reveal what was hidden in it. Using the participants’ L1 empowered them which allowed the researcher to obtain more complex knowledge and deeper understanding of the concept of curriculum internationalisation within the context of secondary education in Kazakhstan (Holmes, Fay, Andrews & Attia, 2013). Multilingual researcher can include anyone in the research regardless of the language they speak. Moreover, the research becomes more meaningful for the participants when using their language (Holmes, Fay, Andrews & Attia, 2013). Being multilingual allowed me to access the data without the interference of translators or interpreters. One of the most significant contributions of this research is that there is very limited research conducted in non-Western countries in the original language of the country under examination.

#### **4.6.3 Ethical considerations**

Ethical issues relating to protection of the participants is of vital concern in any research. A researcher is responsible for the protection of the participants’ well-being in the course of the research. As Kvale (2007) states, ethical considerations should be incorporated in each stage of the research beginning

form the choice of the research topic and finishing with reporting the findings and writing up the thesis.

Firstly, when selecting the research topic, it is necessary to keep in mind that the research should contribute to the development and improvement of the society. Having conducted literature review in the area of internationalisation I discovered a gap in the research on secondary education internationalisation particularly within public or government-funded schools not to mention research in the context of Kazakhstan. Therefore, I decided that revealing a new side of education in Kazakhstan will serve both Kazakhstan and the global society.

Obviously, data collection process required much attention in terms of research ethics. During the interviews, it was essential to inform the participants that they could withdraw and refuse to answer any question without giving their reasons. Moreover, the interview started only when the researcher made sure that the participants knew about the research and gave the informed consent. Data protection was also a priority for me. The recorded interviews were stored on the personal laptop of the researcher and secured with a password. Only the researcher had access to the data collected and the supervisors upon request. Ethics was one of the reasons why the participants could choose the language to be interviewed in: Kazakh, Russian or English. As I knew the three languages, there was no need to ask for an interpreter. Interviewing the participants in the language of their choice helped to build a friendly rapport and reduce power asymmetry as was discussed in *Researching multilingually* (p. 72).

Another important stage of the research that required a careful approach was the data analysis including the transcription and translation processes. Ethics of the research at this stage is mainly concerned with anonymity and confidentiality of the participants. During the transcription of the recorded interviews the names of the participants were replaced with pseudonyms. Any personal information leading to the identification of the school and the participants was removed from the transcriptions. However, it is impossible to totally eliminate the risk of revealing the identity of the research participants especially in focus group interviews. This fact was acknowledged by the research participants. All the interviews were transcribed verbatim in the language of the interviewee. Confidentiality and anonymity was also important in reporting and writing up the findings of the thesis. When writing up the findings of the research, I used

pseudonyms but specified the subject of the teachers and the grade of the students. However, when writing about the challenges of curriculum internationalisation I eliminated any data on the participants except for their pseudonyms because it was a more sensitive topic. I chose that approach in *Chapter 6* (p. **Ошибка! Закладка не определена.**) because the identification of the participants could harm them in terms of their career in that school. Finally, I ensured that the participants knew about the consequent use of the findings of this research.

The inductive analysis was carried out in the language of the interviewees in order to be closer to the research participants. Only the emerging themes were translated into English so that they were accessible for the wider audience. The preliminary findings of the analysis were sent to the participants for verification. This step was taken in order to allow the participants to validate the interpretations of their words by the researcher. The comments of the participants were accepted when interpreting the analysis findings as was mentioned in *Data analysis* (p. 67).

#### **4.6.3.1 Participants' recruitment**

As for the ethics of the research design, the central point here is informed consent. Having received an approval from the Ethics Committee of Durham University (Appendix 5), I contacted the principal of the school to obtain his consent to approach the school's teachers and students (Appendices 6 and 7). Prior to the trip to Kazakhstan, I translated all the information about the research and consent forms from English into Russian and Kazakh. I sent e-mails to all the potential participants explaining the purpose of the research and asking for their consent to take part in the research. An informed consent form and an information sheet about the research were attached to the e-mails (Appendices 8 and 9a). Most of the teachers were agreeable and gladly accepted the request. Concerning the participants, I approached the students of grades 9-12 and the letters with an informed consent were sent home with the students. I also worked with the curators of the grades 9-12, attended the meetings of the grades and sent e-mails to them asking them to participate in the research. The school president also helped with recruiting the participants. A snowball sampling strategy was employed, whereby the students were asked to refer other students who might be interested in the research.

In order to recruit participants from parents, I worked closely with the curators of the grades 10-12 and students. The information about the research was sent home with the students and via e-mail. In addition, some of the subject teachers helped by personally inviting the parents (Appendix 8). That was very helpful as parents knew the teachers and were more accessible through them.

I proceeded to the interviews only after having obtained signed informed consent forms from all the participants including the parents of the participating minors (Appendix 9b).

#### ***4.6.4 Research trustworthiness***

Validity and reliability are the terms traditionally used in quantitative research. However, Guba & Lincoln (2005, 1989) argued that due to the paradigm differences, interpretative research should be evaluated according to its trustworthiness. To ensure trustworthiness of the research, it is recommended to evaluate credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

##### ***4.6.4.1 Credibility***

Credibility is a term used to evaluate internal validity of qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, 1989). In other words, it evaluates if the findings are true, credible and authentic from the point of view of all the stakeholders including the researcher (Wall, Higgins, Hall & Woolner, 2013; Wellington, 2000; Bryman, 2001). According to Guba & Lincoln (1989), it is important to include all the stakeholders in the research.

In order to ensure credibility of this case study, I applied several data sources: senior management team members, teachers, students, parents and school documents. Key informants at different levels (like teachers, students, parents, senior management team, non-teaching staff) can provide "in-house triangulation" (Wellington, 2000, p.73). Credibility of the research is believed to be achieved through data sources and data collection methods triangulation (Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2013; Creswell, 2013; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Crang & Cook, 2007; Stake, 2005; Wellington, 1996). Employment of multiple data sources and various data collection methods provide a rich picture of the phenomenon under examination which was ensured by different levels of the school stakeholders and school documents. Furthermore, I sent the results of the preliminary analysis to the respondents for their validation. Sharing the

findings with the participants before the final analysis is considered as the way to make the research credible (Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2013; Creswell, 2013; Yin, 2009).

#### 4.6.4.2 Transferability

Transferability is a term used to evaluate external validity or generalisability of qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, 1989). One of the ways to achieve that aims is to ensure that the findings are intelligible and clear for the audience (Wall, Higgins, Hall & Woolner, 2013). As it is known, case study does not aim at generalising the findings. On the contrary, it is aimed at researching a particular case to generate new knowledge (Stake, 2005). Learning from the case is more important than generalisability (Stenhouse, 1985). As Wellington (2000) says, "in some ways all schools are the same, in other respects they are all different" (p.99). Stake (2005) also claims that people find generalisability even in atypical case. Therefore, some schools can relate to this case study, while others cannot.

Moreover, the findings of the case study can be used for analytic generalisation. Unlike statistic generalisation, in this case the study findings can be used to contribute to theory expansion and generalisation in order to understand similar cases (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Kvale, 2007; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2001) or to make predictions (Punch, 2014). For instance, the results of this case study can predict the situation in a school with a similar context. It is particularly important for this case because the school under examination is viewed as a pioneer in reforming and innovating secondary education of Kazakhstan. In the future, mainstream schools of Kazakhstan are supposed to follow the lead of this experimental school. Therefore, this study is especially important for the policy makers of Kazakhstan in order to understand the process of curriculum internationalisation and most importantly, the challenges that the school may face.

#### 4.6.4.3 Dependability

Dependability is a term used to evaluate reliability of qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, 1989). Dependability refers to the consistency and replicability of the research findings. To enhance replicability of the research, rich description of the data collection and data analysis process is required (Creswell, 2013; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Bryman, 2001). The data

collection process has been described in detail above which will allow other researchers to carry out the same research in a different setting. The thesis provides the contextual information about Kazakhstan and the school of this research.

#### 4.6.4.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is a term used to evaluate objectivity of qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, 1989). Every research is subjective because a researcher always influences the phenomenon under study (Symonds & Gorard, 2010; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Wellington, 2000). Nevertheless, it is important to achieve as less bias as possible when interpreting data findings. Some of the strategies used by me are transparency of the data collection and analysis procedures, reflexivity, members checking and awareness of own biases (Wall, Higgins, Hall & Woolner, 2013; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Symonds & Gorard, 2010; Crang & Cook, 2007; Wellington, 2000, 1996). It is important for the researcher to reflect on her own background, experience and beliefs which could influence her interpretations of the case study findings.

Apart from subjectivity of the data findings, there is another issue which requires the researcher's attention – translation issues. Translation is difficult in the sense that all languages have different conceptual and contextual frameworks. Translation brings in the data the translator's beliefs, assumptions and values. Therefore, the translator's language is likely to influence the findings and the interpretation of the findings. Crang and Cook (2007) propose researcher's reflexivity and triangulation as a solution for this problem. However, being a multilingual researcher, I did not involve any translators in this case study. Instead, I translated all the necessary information myself which helped to reduce external influence.

### **Conclusion**

This chapter described the methodology applied to answer the research questions. Interpretivism and social constructivism were identified as the main theoretical standpoints of this research. This was justified by the nature of the research questions and the aim of the study. The case study was aimed at exploring the school stakeholders' perceptions and interpretations of curriculum internationalisation in a secondary school in Kazakhstan. Interviews and school documents were used as the main data sources. The researcher applied



thematic analysis in order to analyse the collected data. Finally, the role of the researcher as a multilingual researcher was discussed. The limitations and delimitations of this study will be discussed in *Discussion and conclusion* (p. 172).

## **Part 2. Findings**

### **Research question 1a**

#### **I. How is secondary school curriculum internationalisation perceived by the school stakeholders (senior management team members, teachers, students and parents) and conceptualised in the school documents and policies?**

This section will present and discuss another definition of curriculum internationalisation that has emerged from the analysis of the interviews and school policies. As it was stated in the previous chapter, in reality the definitions discovered by this research cannot be separated because the comments of the research participants fit in more than one category. The previous chapter presented the conception of curriculum internationalisation as global citizenship education. This chapter will present and discuss curriculum internationalisation perceived as the process of modernising the school curriculum aimed at educating internationally competitive citizens. A brief overview of the perceived aspects of curriculum internationalisation as competitive graduate education which will be presented and discussed in this chapter is given in Figure 9.

*Figure 6 Internationalisation as competitive graduate education*



### **5.1 Competitive graduate education**

The definition of curriculum internationalisation as the process of curriculum modernisation with the purpose of educating a competitive graduate prevailed throughout the interviews with the majority of the school stakeholders as well as in the school policies and documents. For instance, Ruslana, senior management team member, defined the outcome of curriculum internationalisation as a graduate who “meets the international standards”, who “has the appropriate foundation to enter any university in the world and could compete with a graduate of any school in the world”. This idea is supported in the following quotations.

Konstantin Russian teacher and “Well, teaching on the basis of those Russian Literature curricula that can make students feel comfortable when applying to a university. I mean without being worried of the country of study”.

---

Student 19 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) “because when we finish this school, this internationalisation of the school will help us enter, for example, one of the top five

universities and study there without any particular problems”.

---

|                           |  |
|---------------------------|--|
| Parent of grade 9 student | “I understand that [curriculum internationalisation] as an opportunity for children probably to continue their education at the international level. I mean he [student] can at any moment, let’s say, in any circumstances he [student] could move to another country and could easily continue his education [there]”. |
|---------------------------|--|

These views are representative of the perceptions of many other stakeholders at different levels. Judging by these quotations, competitiveness is interpreted as an ability to enter any prestigious international university and to successfully perform at the global labour market. Therefore, internationalisation of the school curriculum was viewed as providing students and staff with more opportunities for their development and promotion in terms of education and career. Interestingly, the parents participating in this research expressed their preference to competitive graduate education rather than global citizenship education. This can be explained by the desire of the parents for their children to have a better life which can be achieved through earning a degree in a Western university. The review of the relevant literature also demonstrates that due to the influence of neoliberal policies in education, curriculum internationalisation has become one of the main driving forces of the economic competitiveness of the states (Henze, 2014; Knight, 2010; Bobrov, 2009).

Thematic analysis revealed that the notion of competitiveness is quite prominent in education of Kazakhstan and was strongly pronounced in the school’s policies and documents. The words ‘competitive’, ‘competitiveness’, ‘success’ and ‘successful’ were used nineteen times in the twenty-eight documents not to mention the instances when competitiveness was implied. For example, “functional literacy consists of the capacity to function successfully in education, the labour market and the social world”, read one of the school development strategies (2016). The school development strategy (2016) identifies the

direction of the school development in the future until 2020. In the same document, the future graduate was described as a “person able to act successfully in the competitive environment”. Educating competitive graduates was identified as one of the school’s aims in the Guide for the teachers (2016). This is understandable as Kazakhstan is a young and developing country – it gained its independence only twenty-five years ago. Moreover, Kazakhstan survived an economic and social crisis at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century due to the collapse of the USSR. Therefore, the government wants to catch up with the developed countries.

This aspiration is tracked in the annual addresses of the President of Kazakhstan used as the guidance for all the reforms in Kazakhstan. “Kazakhstan’s strategy of joining the world’s fifty most competitive countries” (2006), “A new decade, a new economic growth, and new opportunities for Kazakhstan” (2010), “New Kazakhstan in the new world” (2012) and others emphasised the importance of developing the human capital to ensure Kazakhstan’s competitiveness at the international level. Even just judging by the titles of the addresses it is clear that global/international competitiveness is the main aim of the government of Kazakhstan. Clearly, the choice of the term ‘human capital’ already demonstrates the economic rationale and neoliberal ideology of curriculum internationalisation in the context of Kazakhstan in contrast with global citizenship education discussed in the previous chapter (p. 110).

Educating a competitive graduate is considered as an important step for the country to become influential at the international level as was already mentioned in the previous paragraph. This view was reflected in the school stakeholder’s views. Tarazali, PE teacher, said, “thereby the country develops, the youth grows up, the intellect develops, the future of the youth seems to be bright”. This view is fully supported in the school documents. “Graduates of [the school] are expected to contribute to the prosperity and competitiveness of Kazakhstan”, said one of the school documents. Furthermore, one of the objectives of the subject programmes is to “enable learners to represent Kazakhstan in both Kazakhstan and overseas”. This means that the graduates of the school are supposed “to successfully complete studies at ... prestigious national and international universities. As they enter the labour market, the graduates are

expected to be lifelong learners who co-operate and innovate in order to build the economic, political and social fabric of the nation”, School development strategy stated. These quotations illustrate the policymakers’ belief that education internationalisation is likely to create “an economically and politically productive citizenry” (Wiseman & Baker, 2015, p.8). Moreover, contextualising national education on the global arena can help the government to form and maintain responsible citizens. Such citizens are believed to eventually contribute to the establishment and maintenance of the nation’s political and economic competitiveness. Therefore, one of the main perceived aims of curriculum internationalisation is educating national citizens with global aspirations.

The desire of the countries to be competitive on the global scale is considered as the result of globalisation (Leask, 2015). Globalization is often associated with “the increasing social, economic, financial, cultural, and technological integration of different countries and regions. This process is mediated by national and local forces, as well as social circumstances and conditions” (Yemini, 2014, p.472). Due to globalisation, “the primary role of the state becomes that of accommodating the structure of the domestic economy to the imperatives of international competitiveness” (King, 2004, p.49). Thus, globalisation is believed to force neoliberal ideology (Myers, 2010). This means that globalisation and education internationalisation have resulted in the demand of the students for knowledge, skills and attitudes which will help them perform successfully in the globalized world (Yemini, 2014).

That idea was also discovered in the interviews with the participants. For instance, Zhangir, Russian and Russian Literature teacher, named globalisation as one of the premises of curriculum internationalisation. As Arman, Maths teacher, claimed, “It [curriculum internationalisation] might be but not limited to the preparation of the students to enter a foreign university. It’s such a programme that will allow them [students] to get the knowledge so that they’re in high demand worldwide. It might be not only a university”. Ann, Maths teacher, added that due to the high level of the knowledge given at the school, “I think if they [school graduates] would go anywhere they will be more advanced than the other students in those specific countries”. Preparing students for the future studies and work is named as one of the trends in educational policies (OECD,

2015; Leask, 2015) and in curriculum internationalisation (Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003). It is no wonder that students are mostly prepared to enter a Western university due to the growing hegemony of Western universities (Leask, 2015; Killick, 2015) both globally and specifically in Kazakhstan. For instance, the majority of the students at the school aspire to enter universities either in the USA, the UK or Nazarbayev University in Astana, Kazakhstan. According to the university website (nu.edu.kz), Nazarbayev University is “a new Western-style, English-medium institution, created with the support of other leading university partners around the world”. The leading universities include Cambridge University, University of Pennsylvania, University of Wisconsin-Madison, University College London and National University of Singapore (nu.edu.kz). Thus, it can be concluded that the credentials of the Western universities are highly valued in Kazakhstan. Therefore, internationalisation of curriculum in Kazakhstan is believed to be guided by Western educational systems.

Entering the global labour market was named as another perceived criterion of competitiveness. “Probably she [child] will find a job in prestigious foreign companies in the future”, a parent of Grade 12 student said. Ruslana, senior management team member, connected curriculum internationalisation with creating “a school of the new type which could meet modern requirements and was based on the international experience. Such school could create appropriate conditions for realising the mission of those schools – to prepare the youth that is capable of self-realisation and to succeed at the labour market”. This idea is also found in the OECD report, “[i]n today’s knowledge-based economies, it is important for individuals and society to ensure that students have the skills required to continue to further education and enter the labour market” (OECD, 2015, p.59). As I have already mentioned previously, all the educational reforms are guided by the President’s addresses. In those addresses, the President of Kazakhstan highlights the importance of increasing the competitiveness of the school graduates. In addition, curriculum internationalisation is believed to impact the career and education of the staff of the school. Samal, Biology teacher, elaborated, “I think that it [curriculum internationalisation] will present an opportunity even for teachers. They might

go abroad to work". Thus, curriculum internationalisation is believed to help graduates and teachers successfully perform at the global labour market.

The idea of economic rationale of curriculum internationalisation found in the interviews and documents is supported by research in the area of education internationalisation. There is an extensive literature of the significant contribution of education to the economic development of nations (Benavot, 1992; Fuller & Rubinson, 1992; Hannum & Buchmann, 2003; McMahon & Boediono, 1992). Hence, policymakers believe that education has the power to solve most of the social problems (Wiseman & Baker, 2015). Therefore, governments allocate money to fund educational reforms.

So, educational reforms in Kazakhstan are aimed at modernising education in such a way that it provides students with knowledge and skills required anywhere in the world. Hence, curriculum internationalisation is believed to aim at preparing stay-at-home students for successful performance at the international and multicultural labour market (Haigh, 2002). This type of internationalised schools is market-driven and serves the need of the middle class for an elite education. Such education is believed to open an access to international or, to be precise, Western education for the graduates (Resnik, 2012a,b) thus promoting neoliberal image of education. However, the importance of instilling in children love to Kazakhstan aka patriotism is accepted in order to avoid 'brain drain' and to contribute to the development of the country. Patriotism plays an important role in curriculum internationalisation in Kazakhstan as discussed in the previous chapter. Thus, when providing the students with the knowledge and skills required anywhere in the world, policymakers recommended to educate them so that they would like to apply those skills and knowledge in Kazakhstan.

This research has revealed several aspects of curriculum internationalisation in the neoliberal view. Compliance of the school curriculum with international/Western standards of education was named as the main aspect to foster the graduates' competitiveness in the school under study.

### **5.1.2 Compliance of the school curriculum with international standards**

One of the aspects of school curriculum internationalisation from a neoliberal point of view identified by the majority of the participants was the compliance of the school curriculum with international standards. The following quotations

demonstrate that this aspect of curriculum internationalisation is equally important for all the interviewed school stakeholders: senior management team members, teachers, students and parents.

|                            |                             |  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| Zhasulan                   | SMT                         | “if a school meets international requirements in teaching and learning, in curriculum”.  |
| Olga                       | Computer Science teacher    | “Internationalisation of the school curriculum I understand as the compliance of the curriculum with international standards”.             |
| Student 18                 | (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) | “an international format. The fact that our system of education complies with international standards”.                                    |
| Parent of Grade 12 student |                             | “Probably it’s an integration of some foreign system which means preparation of the children to study in any country without any problems” |

These perceptions illustrate the importance of international standards in order to prepare students to enter any international/Western university. As for the documents, the majority of the school documents referred to the creation of an “innovative educational model reflecting the best Kazakhstani and international pedagogy and research”. This combination of the local and global in an integrated programme as one of the aspects of global citizenship education was discussed in *Chapter 4 (p. 123)*.

On the basis of these findings, another question arises: what exactly do the participants mean by international standards? Having analysed the responses of the interviewees, I found repetitive reference to such countries as the UK, the USA and Western Europe. The participants often explicitly mentioned those countries as the sources of curriculum internationalisation. For instance, Arman, Maths teacher, elaborated, “I mean if a student finished our school, he/she could enter a university with the same diploma as the one who finished a school in



France”. Anuarbek, History teacher, commented, “creating an educational system based on the world, particularly of the Western European countries’ experience”. Students and parents expressed their desire to continue their education and the education of their children respectively in such developed countries as the USA, the UK, Canada, Germany, China, Korea and Japan. For instance, a parent of Grade 12 student said, “we’ve applied for an international university – Hong Kong University”. Student 19 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) elaborated on curriculum internationalisation, “to make it [curriculum] similar to, for example, the one of Europeans or Americans. Well, so that all the schools had a uniform, good [curriculum] that complies with the standards of the powerful countries”. There is an interesting correlation between “European or Americans” and “the powerful countries” in this statement. Thus, it can be inferred that by international standards in education the participants and documents mean the standards of education accepted in the developed countries, particularly in Western Europe and the USA.

As for the documents, the development strategy mentioned those countries as well. “The international experience of the Great Britain, Australia, the USA and the Netherlands was carefully studied for the development of a new system of enrolment”. The annual school report read, “[h]iring is carried out in collaboration with the strategic partners: Teachanywhere (Great Britain), Teacher International Consultancy (Great Britain), Search Associates (Great Britain), Edvectus (Great Britain), Teach Away (Canada)”. These and other references to Western Europe, Canada and the USA can explain the participants’ references to the above-mentioned countries as a source of curriculum internationalisation. These viewpoints could lead us to the notion of westernisation.

The choice of these countries can be explained by the growing hegemony and global legacy of Western universities (Palmer & Cho, 2012). Palmer and Cho (2012) name the USA, the UK, and Western Europe as core industrialised nations. South Korean universities are adopting Western standards (Palmer & Cho, 2012) which can be the reason the participants mentioned it. Marc, Biology teacher, referred to international schools when talking about international standards: “also because we need to work according to an international standard that is recognised by many-many international schools”. “The

legitimacy of 'Western' credentials has become the accepted international norm for policymakers in every nation around the world" (Wiseman & Baker, 2015, p.6). Resnik (2012) claims that the UK, the USA and Australia are the largest providers of the internationalised secondary education. The USA is considered as a dominant and powerful state on the global scale. Therefore, it is believed that the USA controls and manages globalisation. Consequently, other less powerful countries strive to adopt some aspects of the American culture. This is supported by the increasing spread of the English language as the means of communication generally and as the medium of instruction in the educational institutions (Ritzer, 2007; Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Garcia, Skutnabb-Kangas & Torres-Guzman, 2006; Mok, 2007). This results in the increased "hegemony of Western perspectives and the export/import of Western conceptions of higher education and internationalisation" (Leask, 2015. p. 21; Killick, 2015). The Western perspectives on education are mostly influenced by neoliberal ideology. In other words, education has become a service industry educating competitive students on the global scale. Therefore, curriculum internationalisation of secondary education in Kazakhstan is adopting a neoliberal view.

When discussing international standards in the school curriculum, the participants distinguished an academic content of the curriculum. Ann, Maths teacher, described it as "making it [curriculum] more similar to what's being studied in Britain let's say". The idea is supported by senior management team members. For instance, Yerzhan, senior management team member, claimed, "according to international standards, in the international programmes there are fewer topics but more hours allocated for each topic. I mean it [programme] is deeper. Reduction of the number of the subjects. Electivity of subjects. On top of that, probably the programmes developed in England". Students also preferred such a programme: "It would be cool if we had an American programme, curriculum". Such a curriculum increases the chances of the students to enter a Western university.

In summary, according to the school stakeholders and school documents and policies, bringing the school curriculum closer to the Western model of education may benefit both the individual students and the whole state of Kazakhstan. This reflects the increasing influence of neoliberal ideology on

education in Kazakhstan. From the neoliberal point of view, curriculum internationalisation is viewed as the way to educate competitive graduates so that they could enter international universities and global labour market. It is believed that those graduates will improve the economic status of Kazakhstan in the future. These ideas lead to a controversial attitude towards internationalisation. On the one hand, curriculum internationalisation is viewed as westernisation as the standards of education applied in Kazakhstan come from Western countries. On the other hand, it has a liberating potential leading to decolonisation of Kazakhstan from Russian influence and increasing the economic status of Kazakhstan.

Another aspect of the curriculum mentioned by the school participants was school assessment. School assessment plays an important role in curriculum internationalisation from the perspective of the graduates' competitiveness because an internationally recognised assessment facilitates an access to international universities.

#### **5.1.2.1 International assessment**

As I have already mentioned in the previous chapter, assessment plays an important role in curriculum internationalisation. Assessment is particularly important in this chapter because the school stakeholders believed that adopting international standards in assessment may open access to international/Western higher educational institutions for the school graduates. Ryan, Chemistry teacher, observed, "it's quite heavily based on the A-levels in the UK. It's quite similar. So that gives an international aspect, international dimension to the curriculum. So, I mean here international I mean like comparable. So, it's transparent, it is more understandable for foreign universities when they can see it because it's based on the same type of programme they have in the UK". A parent of students from Grades 9 and 12 talked about the advantages of learning English and internationally recognized assessment, "My elder son took IELTS and scored 6.5. Another advantage of this school is an opportunity to enter an [international] university and get scholarship after passing Cambridge exam". This view was supported by the senior management team of the school. For instance, Zhassulan, senior management team member, said, "we say it's an international standard – to pass these tests-. Well I mean internationalisation at our school is carried out

through preparation to the tests: IELTS, SET, SAT and others”. The participants named SAT, SET, IELTS and A level examinations among the international exams. These exams are internationally recognized and provide the school graduates with an opportunity to enter an international/Western university. The website of IB schools name appropriate forms of assessment and international benchmarking as important aspects of international education and international schools as well. The use of the international tests for quality assurance is believed to be more transparent and reliable (MacClelland, 2001).

Furthermore, assessment is mentioned in the school documents: “Assessment is developed and complies with international standards. The assessment corresponds to the international levels Cambridge International A и AS Level which take the 3<sup>rd</sup> place in the National qualification system of the UK”. According to the school documents, exams test the abilities of the students to apply subject skills in the context of globalisation of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. This idea corresponds with the aim of curriculum internationalisation suggested by Leask (2015) which is the improvement of learning outcomes of the students. This trend could have been influenced by the desire of the government of Kazakhstan for the students to perform successfully at such internationally recognised tests as TIMSS, PIRLIS run by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement ([www.iea.nl](http://www.iea.nl)) and PISA run by the OECD ([www.pisa.oecd.org](http://www.pisa.oecd.org)). These tests allow policy makers to adapt educational systems to improve relative performance. They are very important in terms of ensuring international economic competitiveness (Bates, 2011) but they are criticised for favouring English-speaking students as they are conducted in English neglecting the influence of a school’s and country’s culture on the students’ results (Zhang, Khan & Tahirsylaj, 2015; Gipps, 1995). Such high-stake tests are also criticised for leading to performativity and teaching-to-test in education (Sellar & Lingard, 2013). Therefore, internationally recognised assessment at school was perceived as one of the essential components of curriculum internationalisation. The importance of international assessment is justified by the aspiration of the school graduates to enter international universities. Even for the staff of the school passing IELTS or TOEFL, for instance, is required to enter a British or American university. Furthermore, incorporating international assessment may contribute to the improvement of

the national performance on international standardised tests (Doherty & McLaughlin, 2015) like PISA and TIMSS.

Obviously, the use of English as the language of instruction was named as the next aspect of the neoliberal image of curriculum internationalisation.

#### **5.1.2.2 English as the language of instruction**

The school stakeholders identified English as one of the driving forces of curriculum internationalisation. Alex, Computer Science teacher, suggested going “primarily for completely English system because English is the international language”. Alex admitted that it sounded rather imperialistic, “that is almost like spreading of Empire”. This view supports the idea of Western or Anglophone hegemony in education. However, he argued that it was the requirement of internationalisation. Indeed, in order to be able to compete with students from the rest of the world, especially from the developed countries, it is required to at least know the common international language which is English at the moment. Business, education, economics are all conducted in English. English is regarded as lingua franca in this globalised world (Holmes & Dervin, 2016). While ELF can be seen as linguistic imperialism, in fact, it is argued that ELF can help create an intercultural dialogue between people from different cultural backgrounds (Holmes & Dervin, 2016). Interestingly, although knowing English can broaden the worldview of the speakers and open access to the literature and research which is mostly in English, it can also confine them to one language only. Therefore, multilingualism as discussed in *Chapter 4* (p. 129) is more preferred for curriculum internationalisation.

Nevertheless, the majority of the students and parents supported the use of English as the language of instruction. For instance, student 22 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) expressed his aspiration for all the subjects to be taught in English and to have Russian and Kazakh only as elective subjects. The participants elaborated that using English as the medium for teaching and learning could help students enter international/Western universities. “It is advantageous for our future, we can enter international universities”, claimed student 23 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old). Zhangir, Russian and Russian literature, claimed, “well, first of all, the fact that the main subjects in our school are taught in English. It’s already internationalisation, isn’t it?”. Yerzhan, a member of the senior management team, elaborated, “English is the key to international sources of

information, from science to politics, from culture to sport”. That view was echoed in the words of the parent of Grade 12 student, “to get necessary information that is published, found in the internet mostly in English as well. This [learning English] provides an access to more advanced probably, or new, information that isn’t available in Russian and Kazakh”. These quotations illustrate that the participants embraced significance of English in building the graduates’ capacity to compete successfully on the global scale due to the role of English as lingua franca (Holmes & Dervin, 2016).

Furthermore, English is also considered as a significant facet of curriculum internationalisation in the relevant literature (Palmer & Cho, 2012; Cenoz, 2009; Carder, 2007; Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003). Nevertheless, Choudaha & De Wit (2014) argue that “teaching in English is not synonymous with internationalisation but is only one of several instruments for it” (p. 29). English is also viewed as “an instrument for global competition” (Leung & Lee, p.43) and it “opens doors for better opportunities” (Cenoz, 2009, p. 6). This means that knowing English is considered as a tool that contributes to the competitiveness of the graduates. The use of English is also important in assessment. Assessment which answers the requirements of international universities is perceived as an integral part of curriculum internationalisation which was discussed above (p. 89).

Moreover, it was discovered that those who taught subjects in English and those who had graduated from international/Western universities gain incentives in the school. Such incentives included a company flat and/or travelling abroad to accompany students or participating in professional development programmes abroad.

Although the use of English as the main language of instruction was mentioned in the school documents, it was not prioritised. English in content-language integrated learning was believed to play an important role. The school documents prescribed the school to teach several subjects in English only in grades 10-12. Each subject programme had a section on building the students’ linguistic competence in three languages: Kazakh, Russian and English. They said the school sought “to build learners’ linguistic competence in order to develop effective communication and facilitate access into higher education of

an international standard". Obviously, there was no urge to replace Russian and Kazakh with English only.

Interestingly, although the participants admitted the significance of English, the overwhelming majority favoured the idea of multilingualism. This means the use of at least three languages as the languages of instruction. Moreover, the development strategy and subject programmes in some instances defined a competitive graduate as a person who was fluent in Kazakh, Russian and English. Although the participants mentioned introducing English as the language of instruction in Science subjects such as Maths, Chemistry, Physics, Biology and Computer Science, retaining Kazakh and Russian as the main languages of instruction was still advocated. For example, the above-mentioned subjects are taught by a team of an international and a local teacher in English, while other subjects are taught in Kazakh and Russian according to their content and the choice of the students. This view was echoed in the interviews with the majority of the teachers and senior management team members.

If we take neoliberal view on curriculum internationalisation, multilingualism provides more opportunities for students as they can enter any international university. In addition, knowing foreign languages is favourable at the global labour market. This idea was echoed in the words of student 21 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old), "I mean when we apply for a university we can enter a university both abroad because we know English and in Kazakhstan because we can acquire the same knowledge in Kazakh. And [we can enter] both Russia and CIS [Commonwealth of Independent States]". As for the role of multilingualism within global citizenship, unlike ELF it gives more opportunities for exercising interculturality as discussed in *Chapter 4 (129)*. As a consequence of the languages issue, the diversity of the staff and student body was named as a facet of curriculum internationalisation.

### **5.1.3 Cultural diversity in the staff and student body**

Diversity of the staff and students' body was another perceived aspect of educating competitive graduates as illustrated in the following quotations.

Lyazzat SMT "One can be viewed as an international school only in the presence of the international teachers".

|      |                                |   |
|------|--------------------------------|---|
| Alex | Computer<br>Science<br>teacher | “So that’s for me where internationalisation of education comes in. It’s a rich mixture of students, the parents obviously and teaching staff”. |
|------|--------------------------------|---|

---

|  |   |
|--|---|
| Student 23 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) | “International teachers have taught us a lot. For example, how to write an essay. I think it [international teachers] is the only aspect in which we resemble an international school”. |
|--|---|

---

|                             |   |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Parent of a Grade 9 student | “Employment of international staff or probably regular teachers’ exchange so that the children could experience international practice, so that there was no difference for the children in acquiring knowledge either here or abroad”. |
|-----------------------------|---|

These responses demonstrate the perceived value of the international staff. The students emphasised the importance of the presence of international teachers and students because it can help students prepare better for studying in an international university. Most of the senior management team members, students and parents supported that point of view.

As for diversity in the students’ body, only a few students mentioned that. For example, student 18 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) claimed that “it would be interesting if not only teachers but also students were international”. However, diversity in the student body here was contextualised within global citizenship education. The perceived aim of the student body diversity was to create “good international relationship that contribute to the development of the both sides”, as was stated by student 30 (Grade 10, 15-16 years old). More discussion on curriculum internationalisation as global citizenship education is given in the previous chapter (p. 126).

Overall, the participants specified the importance of international staff and students who speak English at an advanced level. Thus, they can create a language environment for promoting English and Western culture. This idea is clearly represented in the school documents as well. For example, the strategy



of the school development specified “establishment of the artificial English-speaking environment by involvement of highly qualified foreign teachers to teach in English language”. According to the school development strategy, diversity in the staff and student body is likely to lead to “the creation of opportunities for students to have well-structured contact and communication with other students and with adults who speak the students’ second and third language”. As it was discussed in *Chapter 4* (p. 126), foreign students and staff are believed to provide locals with international experience and perspectives (Palmer & Cho, 2012; Slethaug, 2007). Diversity in the staff and students’ body is likely to contribute to the development of intercultural competence as was discussed in the previous chapter (p. 126). As we can see, the diversity can serve both global citizenship and competitive graduate education.

However, as it was argued in *Chapter 4* (p. 126), cultural diversity does not necessarily lead to intercultural competence (Leask, 2015; Leask & Carroll, 2011). Hence, it was suggested to “refocus our attention within our local communities where intercultural diversity is becoming the norm” (Westgarth, 2014, p.15). Only the combination of cultural diversity and the inclusion of intercultural awareness into teaching is likely to lead to curriculum internationalisation. Innovating and improving teaching and learning methods can contribute to curriculum internationalisation within a school when cultural diversity is impossible. This is particularly important in Kazakhstan because the school is mostly monocultural. The challenges associated with cultural diversity and teaching and learning innovation will be discussed in *Chapter 6* (p. 153). The next section will present and discuss teaching and learning methods improvement in the context of curriculum internationalisation.

#### **5.1.4 Teaching and learning improvement**

Teachers were of the opinion that curriculum internationalisation had led to significant changes in teaching and learning. “Now we try not to be the source of knowledge. A child needs to think on his/her own, needs to get the knowledge on his/her own. We now play the role of facilitators only”, Arnagul, Maths teacher, shared her opinion. Lee, a senior management team member, recommended promoting internationalisation “by delivering integrated educational programme in a way that it was perhaps designed to educate

students. With the less driven focus on the amount of content knowledge that we have here. Taking in a more holistic view on students who they are, on what is valuable for them. To give them skills that they can apply. Rather than knowledge that they just learn so that they're able to compete, they're able to survive in a university and to have those skills and toolkit that they need to take the 1st step beyond the school". These quotations illustrate the opinion of the teachers and senior management team members on curriculum internationalisation in terms of teaching and learning. This means that instead of a simple presentation of the course materials to the students, teachers attempt to encourage their independent learning. Moreover, teachers tried to connect knowledge and skills with real-life situations. In other words, teaching became more student-centred and application oriented. This innovation of teaching is triggered by neoliberal ideology that regards students as clients of the school. Thus, it reflects the neoliberal image of curriculum internationalisation.

These changes appear to be mostly influenced by a Western/Anglophone approach to teaching and learning. This influence is justified by the fact that the overwhelming majority of the international partners helping to innovate and modernise curriculum in this particular school of Kazakhstan is from Western Europe and the USA. This was mentioned in *Compliance of the school curriculum with international standards* (p. 85) and will be discussed later in *Establishment of international partnerships* (p. 101). Critical thinking skills and project work were among those new concepts introduced in teaching and learning, according to the participants.

|        |     |   |
|--------|-----|---|
| Yerbol | SMT | "I see internationalisation in education as the adoption of the popular and trending methods of teaching, approaches to teaching from other [developed] countries". |
|--------|-----|---|

---

|        |            |  |
|--------|------------|--|
| Olzhas | Form tutor | "For example, critical thinking development. I think we adopted it from the schools of Great Britain. I mean a nonstandard approach to teaching, I mean going away from an old system when a teacher was giving 90% of the material to |
|--------|------------|--|

the students. We're trying to go away from it and introduce international methods of teaching in international schools".

---

|                            |   |
|----------------------------|---|
| Parent of Grade 12 student | "I think that pedagogy which is practised here is based on the international experience. That's why I think that our school is adopting best practices of international schools". |
|----------------------------|---|

These quotations illustrate the consensus of the participants' perceptions of teaching and learning methods in the context of curriculum internationalisation. This perception implies westernisation of teaching pedagogy because the school participants often referred to Western countries as the sources of influence on teaching and learning changes. This assumption coincides with the view of Palmer & Cho (2012). They (ibid.) believe that changes in the teaching and learning methods in the process of curriculum internationalisation are defined by Western practices and ideologies. For instance, critical thinking was identified as a feature of the Western style of teaching (Ryan, 2004). The Western influence was also found in the participants' comments on professional development which will be discussed below.

The views on teaching and learning in curriculum internationalisation found in the school documents were in agreement with those expressed by the school stakeholders. The school documents claimed that modernisation of education had resulted in the change both of the content of education and methods of teaching. Such changes include "teaching the children to acquire knowledge independently, to think critically, to develop a personality who is able to express one's own ideas, to work in a team, to adapt to the changes, to be creative and to be open for innovations", read the subject programmes of the school and the guide for the teachers of the school. "These skills will allow them to be successful and to provide leadership for Kazakhstan", claimed subject programmes. The development strategy of the school also identified "changing the content of education, methods of teaching" as essential facets of school curriculum modernisation. Furthermore, the integration of both national and international practices into teaching and learning was mentioned numerous

times in the majority of the school documents. This integration reflected the perception of curriculum internationalisation as global citizenship education, discussed in *Chapter 4* (p. 109).

Learning, teaching and assessment are believed to be central in curriculum internationalisation (Jones & Killick, 2007). Therefore, the latter will inevitably require changes in the teaching and learning styles/approaches (Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Haigh, 2002). An holistic and collaborative approach to teaching and learning is a substantial asset of curriculum internationalisation (Westgarth, 2014). This approach includes collaboration, voluntary work, community service, student and teacher visits and exchanges, student-led conferences that celebrate cultural diversity and so on (Westgarth, 2014). In other words, the role of the teachers has shifted. This means that teachers have become facilitators and counsellors and they should create stimulating learning environments (Weber, 2011). Teaching has to transform itself in order to answer the requirements of the global society for educating a competitive graduate.

Some teachers, parents and students admitted that some teachers still found it hard to apply innovative teaching methods which will be discussed in *Chapter 6* (p. 148). They named lack of the students' skills for independent work as another obstacle. Therefore, professional development was believed to be a helpful asset curriculum internationalisation. Yerbol, senior management team member, claimed, "Well, I think that internationalisation is that now three-level courses are being introduced by Cambridge [International Examinations] in collaboration with the management company of our school. It's also kind of internationalisation because there are approaches, let's say action research, research, lesson study – they are scientifically proven methods, scientifically proven methodology of researching problems in education". So, staff development is believed to be an integral part of the curriculum internationalisation process (Haigh, 2002).

The participants named international teachers and courses abroad as the sources of professional development. "International teachers are role models for the locals. We need to foster collaboration between international and local teacher through team-building", Kanat, senior management team member, claimed. Alena, Biology teacher, explained, "[they have] another approach to children, to teaching, to feedback. I mean everything's totally different". Even

students noticed the difference in the teaching approach of the international teachers. “They [international teachers] have taught [local teachers] another method of teaching”, said student 22 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old). The students expressed their preference for the teaching methods of the international teachers. “International teachers highlight only the relevant things and make lessons more interesting”, student 20 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) elaborated. According to the teachers, the difference between the teaching approaches of the local and international teachers lay in the balance between theory and practice. “In my opinion, we need to acquire from them [international teachers] mostly the practical part [of their teaching practice]. Our teachers are high-qualified theoretically, but we can’t apply this material in practice”, explained Akyerke, Geography teacher. As we can conclude from these quotations, international teachers are viewed as the source of an alternative, innovative teaching methods in the context of curriculum internationalisation.

However, the majority of the participants identified the role of the international teachers as English speakers. They are believed to promote English, to create an English-speaking environment for both local staff and students. “I can say again that thanks to team-teaching [with international teachers] I’ve improved my language [English]. I’ve learnt a lot, some subtleties, details, writing rules, speaking...”, commented Camila, English teacher. A parent of a Grade 12 student supported that view, “first of all, it is a language environment. They [students] freely talk to them [international teachers], my child experiences pure English every day and thus learns it”. This idea was supported by the senior management team. For instance, Lyazzat claimed that “team teaching in English – in these moments we dare to say that internationalisation happens because an international teacher brings his/her experience into the lesson whether it’s Physics, Maths or Biology”. The participants also highlighted the role of international teachers in preparing students for international/Western universities. Student 13 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) stated, “the main aim of the [international] teachers is to teach us to understand the material in English because in the university everything will be in English”. International teachers admitted their role as native English speakers as well. For instance, Tom, Social Science teacher, said, “apart from teaching the international teachers are responsible for assisting and probably more preparing national teachers for

IELTS examinations as well as just progressing their English abilities”. These quotations illustrate that the international teachers are necessary assets for the school to create an English-speaking environment as well as to introduce innovative Western pedagogies. This perception of the role of international staff again highlights the importance of English for curriculum internationalisation.

Another perceived facet of professional development was courses abroad. “Several teachers from our school – I don’t know, maybe 20% of the staff – went to Cambridge to a language school, to Ireland to a language school”, said Ainash, Maths teacher. “There’re many courses and language courses for the teachers. For example, language immersion programme. As far as I know, our teachers went to Finland, then to Cambridge, to America”. However, the usefulness of short study trips is contested (Leask, 2015; Leask & Carroll, 2011) and again it shows that curriculum internationalisation of the school under this study is influenced by the Western perspectives on education.

The documents of planning and organising professional development stated that the aim of the professional development courses for the staff was to update, support and improve the professional level of the course attenders in accordance with modern requirements to meet the needs of the school. This means introducing Western pedagogy to the teachers with the following application of it in classroom. This aim is achieved with the help of internal and external courses such as the development of critical thinking skills, action research as a tool for practice improvement, language courses (English and Kazakh), training abroad both at the international universities and schools, further education at the international universities for Master’s degree, courses on CLIL in collaboration with international experts and others. The legislative documents echoed the perceptions of the participants on the role of international teachers. “The employment of high-qualified foreign teaching staff provides an opportunity to get acquainted with international experience of teaching, promotes an integration of the best national and international pedagogical practices with the consequent implementation of them into the educational process of the ... school”. On the basis of these statements which prevailed in the school documents it can be concluded that the professional development of the teaching staff is based on Western pedagogies and educational systems. Therefore, international partnership and collaboration with international

educational institutions was named as another aspect of neoliberal curriculum internationalisation.

### **5.1.5 Establishment of international partnerships**

The establishment of connections and partnerships with international educational institutions was identified by the participants as another driving force of curriculum internationalisation. Lyazzat, a member of senior management team, identified the correlation between curriculum internationalisation and international collaboration: “the fact that our school is in partnership with other international schools and universities of the world as well. I mean we want this collaboration with those universities to gradually become a career-oriented site ... so that they [students] could reach a certain level in a few years and enter the universities of, for example, France, Germany, China”. The teachers supported that idea. For instance, Meruyert, Geography teacher, said, “then international relations: children go abroad, gain experience, see the world”. Moreover, Zhangir, Russian and Russian literature teacher, claim that “internationalisation is just an expansion of international connections”. As for the students, they emphasized that such connections were an important asset in granting an access to international universities for them. “For example, it [the school] makes an agreement on cooperation with various universities so that the latter in their turn allocate grants for our students”, elaborated student 16 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old). This means that cooperation with international universities increases the chances of the students to enter them. Moreover, such collaboration can serve as a platform for staff and students exchanges, and professional development courses. Moreover, international partnership can be seen as an asset for global citizenship education as it allows the students and teachers learn about other countries and cultures.

Thematic analysis revealed that the “development of cooperation with internationally recognised organisations of education and science” was one of the main tasks of the school. “The main goal of international cooperation is to get the best international experience for the creation of [the schools] network with high quality of teaching and learning”, read the development strategy of the school. It was highlighted that the cooperation should be established with “the recognised international organisations – providers of educational services”. Judging by the numerous references to such educational organisations as

Cambridge University, CITO, Johns Hopkins University Centre for Talented Youth, Pennsylvania University, Helsinki University, Temasek Polytechnic and others, it was obvious that 'recognised educational institutions' stood for 'Western educational institutions' which is influenced by neoliberal ideology in education. Obviously, the documents imposed the Anglophone perspective on the participants' perceptions because from the neoliberal point of view, curriculum internationalisation is supposed to educate competitive students in accordance with international/Western standards.

However, the participants agreed that the work on establishing international connection needs to be improved. "And I think another thing is that you haven't got a system and connections that those established [international] schools have", Lee, senior management team member, illustrated that perception. In other words, international connections and partnerships were considered as an aspect of curriculum internationalisation both in the documents and by the participants. This perception is supported by Mok (2007) who names international collaboration and formation of global alliances as integral aspects of curriculum internationalisation.

International accreditation was identified as an auxiliary of international partnerships establishment. As Zhassulan, senior management team member, stated, "internationalisation can take place only after an [international] accreditation". "I think it's good to have a few schools that comply with international standards. Therefore, it's good to pass an international accreditation, in my opinion", added Laura, History teacher. International recognition through accreditation is believed to be significant in school curriculum internationalisation. It is supposed to attract more international partners to the school. "If the school passes and gets an international accreditation, then our social network will certainly expand. First of all, we'll begin collaborating with the same schools from other states", Ainash, Geography teacher, explained. "It [international accreditation] is necessary for us to enter the global society so that there was an opportunity for our students, our teachers to go to these [internationally accredited] schools, adopt their programmes, adopt their culture, staff exchange, experience exchange", added Yernur, senior management team member. In other words, international



accreditation will provide both teachers and students of the school with access to the Western experience and perspectives.

This idea was echoed in the school documents where international recognition of educational programmes had been mentioned as the paramount aim of the future education modernisation. The school development strategy read, "it is necessary for [the school] to get a status certified by the international organization on the results of activity evaluation for confirming the high quality of provided educational services, international recognition of educational programmes, and opportunity for alumni to enter the leading universities of world". Judging by this statement, international accreditation is closely associated with graduate competitiveness and quality assurance of the educational process of the school.

The participants also mentioned high quality of education in connection with international accreditation. "Well first of all, it [international accreditation] is for [the school] to meet the best educational standards", Zarina, Kazakh and Kazakh literature, said. Karlygash, Arts teacher, expressed the same view, "if we pass international accreditation, if we reach an international level, we'll be on a par with the level of international school". This view was echoed in the words of Lee, senior management team member, "The benefits of accreditation would be- I suppose in three things really, referring to my notes here: the quality assurance of the school meeting international standards primarily". Furthermore, the students mentioned high quality of education as one of the outcomes of curriculum internationalisation. "I understood that internationalisation is an excellent way to make our school better. And not only the school but also the educational system of Kazakhstan", student 29 (Grade 10, 15-16 years old). The majority of the students and all the interviewed parents specified the high quality of the education of the school as the main reason of selecting the school under research. "The main aim is for our child to have high-quality education", a parent of a Grade 10 student said. So, international accreditation is perceived to result in quality assurance of the school education and is closely connected with international standards which was discussed above (p. 85).

Research also indicates that applying international standards is likely to improve education quality (Krasnoshchyokov, 2014; Bobrov, 2009; Soderqvist, 2007).

Hence, internationalisation is viewed as the process of quality improvement (Henze, 2014). This idea is supported by the ideas of globalising international education. It promotes the values of free-market capitalism: quality assurance through the application of international accreditation procedures, the spread of global quality standards and the global certification of educational qualifications (Cambridge, 2002). The globalist approach to international education is based on the ideology of meritocratic competition combined with positional competition with national systems of education (Cambridge, 2002). Internationalisation can influence the quality of three aspects of an educational institution: the educational process (teaching and learning), the educational programme and the graduates (Mok, 2007). Carder (2007) also argues that membership in the recognised international organisation is a common feature for international schools. This is due to the fact that such organisations act as a common platform for experience exchange in order to improve the quality of education.

Interestingly, some of the participants expressed their sceptic attitude towards school accreditation. “For us within Kazakhstan it would be an excellent result. Receiving an international status will be a huge achievement. But will we be considered competent abroad, in the west? That’s the question. To be honest, I don’t believe that”, Kamila, English teacher, expressed her concern. This scepticism is supported by a couple of senior management team members. This is justified by the fact that international accreditation will have no impact on the staff of the school. This is clearly expressed by one of the senior management team members. Firstly, he noticed that there was no long-term future for international staff as the school was decreasing the number of international teachers. Secondly, there was no recognition of CIS in Kazakhstan: “whether that school is CIS accredited or not has almost no meaning. The context is national, not international”. This means that the school serves only national students. In terms of recruitment of students and staff, CIS status has no importance for parents, students and teachers because the school is already well-known and popular among students and parents. As for teachers, the majority of them are not planning to work abroad. Thus, working for CIS accredited school is not important for them in terms of future career.

However, it is fair to mention that the overwhelming majority of the school stakeholders admitted the importance of international accreditation for the

school although they seldom could explain why it was important. It seemed that the school stakeholders just repeated what they had been told. Some of them confessed that they did not understand the importance of the international accreditation and pursued it because of the order from the top management. Several teachers explained that they could go to work abroad after the school was accredited. However, when I asked if they wanted to work abroad, they replied in the negative. This illustrates the power of authority in a Kazakhstani school which could be the legacy of the Soviet regime. During the authoritarian regime of the Soviet Union, people relied on the government and authorities to a great extent. We can observe the same situation in Kazakhstan at present: Kazakhstani citizens obey authorities and behave as they are instructed.

### **Conclusion**

To summarise, the definition of curriculum internationalisation in the secondary school discussed above illustrates the idea of neoliberal image of the school graduate. "Intensification of market competition in the new global economic order enhances the importance among national policy makers of internationalizing educational policy through adherence to an international model of education" (Wiseman & Baker, 2015, p.9). This view was reflected in the findings of this chapter. The curriculum internationalisation is believed to lead to building the graduate qualities that will help the graduates successfully compete in the global age. Competitiveness in this case is defined as the ability of the school's graduates to compete on equal terms with the graduates of any other school in the world for a place in the prestigious international universities or at the global labour market. As Haigh (2002) puts it, "Internationalisation of the curriculum is about giving equality of opportunity and a better educational experience to all students" (p. 62).

In order to achieve that aim, compliance of the school curriculum with international/Western standards was identified as the main aspect. It includes international standards in assessment and in teaching and learning approaches, using English as the main language of instruction, diversity in the staff and student body, international partnerships and international accreditation. This is likely to lead to westernisation of education in Kazakhstan through internationalisation. This is understandable as neoliberalism is the ideology of Western countries (Giroux, 2005). However, neoliberal curriculum

internationalisation is also believed to improve the quality of education in the school. Thus, it may help Kazakhstan improve its economic status.

Thematic analysis discovered that the ideas of the participants were reflected in the documents. There are three possible explanations of this fact. Firstly, documents might have influenced the perceptions of the school stakeholders. All the documents are in open access for the teaching staff. However, the students and parents have a limited access to these documents. There are some documents which are of no interest to students and parents because they are for the teaching staff and senior management team only. It might be one of the reasons why parents were in favour of neoliberal image of curriculum internationalisation instead of global citizenship education.

In contrast, the documents might have been shaped by the school stakeholders' perceptions because most of them were created by them. For example, the subject programmes were developed by the local subject teachers in collaboration with the experts from Cambridge International Examinations. School mission was developed with the help of all the school stakeholders. However, some of the documents were created by the managing company of the school.

Finally, the third explanation might be the influence of the President's annual addresses on both the documents and policies and the school stakeholders. As one of the main aims of the addresses is the development of economic competitiveness of Kazakhstan it is quite natural that the idea of competitiveness prevailed in both interviews and school documents. The addresses are in open access and everyone in the country is strongly encouraged to read them.

The term 'international' was often used in both interviews and school documents. The term is quite vague. Although there was no explicit definition of it in either documents or interviews, there were numerous references to such countries as the USA, the UK and Finland. Furthermore, there was a call for establishing collaborations with "the recognised international organisations". Obviously, the most recognised and popularised educational organisations come from the Western countries. Therefore, it can be implied that 'international' is synonymous to 'Western'. Consequently, curriculum internationalisation is perceived as westernisation. However, despite the common negative view on

westernisation accepted in the relevant literature (Maringe, 2010; Al Farra, 2000), westernisation is viewed as a positive process in education of Kazakhstan. Although the research revealed cautious attitude of the school stakeholders to westernisation, they also admitted that it contributed to the improvement of quality education of Kazakhstan. Nevertheless, there was a constant reference to national citizenship education and Kazakhstani patriotism. Overall, curriculum internationalisation is supported with economic and academic rationales. The former means economic growth and competitiveness and quality enhancement, while the latter means international academic standards, student and staff development, international collaboration and accreditation and the quality improvement of the educational process (Henze, 2014). The majority of these concepts are new for secondary education in Kazakhstan. Therefore, more support through in-service training and research on curriculum internationalisation of secondary education in Kazakhstan is required. Generally, curriculum internationalisation is totally a new concept for Kazakhstani secondary education. Hence, the school faces a number of challenges which will be discussed in *Chapter 6 (p. Ошибка! Закладка не определена.)*.

As for internationalised policymaking in secondary education, there are both criticisms and benefits. Internationalised policymaking means comparison of national educational system against international models of education and making reforms in education on the basis of that evaluation (Wiseman & Baker, 2015). Such policymaking is criticised for “disregard of cultural, contextual and organisational variation among national systems of education” (Wiseman & Baker, 2015, p. 12). This means that adopting an international model of education within a country does not necessarily lead to its improvement. Wiseman & Baker (2015) believe that “cultural contexts uniquely shape educational communities and learners” (p.14). Nevertheless, internationalised policymaking is praised for “building reform capacity within national systems of education” and helping to benchmark the “national education systems against international standards” (Wiseman & Baker, 2015, p. 15). This provides Kazakhstani students and teachers with an opportunity to experience and be exposed to international perspectives and approaches.

In conclusion, the perceived aspects of neoliberal curriculum internationalisation are also called misconceptions of curriculum internationalisation in the literature. Diversity in the students' body, teaching English, study trips, international subjects and international partnerships were among the nine misconceptions of curriculum internationalisation suggested by De Wit (2011c). This means that the above-mentioned aspects separately cannot substitute curriculum internationalisation. Instead, only a combination of them may result in curriculum internationalisation of secondary education. Therefore, it is necessary to keep in mind that educating interculturally competent graduates and competitive graduates complement each other.

### Research question 1b

#### I. How is secondary school curriculum internationalisation perceived by the school stakeholders (senior management team members, teachers, students and parents) and conceptualised in the school documents and policies?

Curriculum internationalisation perceived as the process of modernising the school curriculum aimed at educating global citizens will be presented and discussed in this chapter. This chapter will present and discuss only one of the definitions of curriculum internationalisation that have emerged from the analysis of the interviews and school policies. It is important to understand that in reality the definitions discovered by this research cannot be firmly separated because the comments of the research participants fit in more than one category. However, I will present them separately for the readers to gain a clear picture of the perceived definition of curriculum internationalisation in the given Kazakhstani secondary school. A brief overview of the perceived aspects of curriculum internationalisation as global citizenship education which will be presented and discussed in this chapter is given in Figure 8.

*Figure 7 Internationalisation as global citizenship education*



### 6.1 Global citizenship education

One theme that emerged across interviews and documents was global citizenship education. In other words, the participants identified internationalisation of curriculum as a process of educating a global citizen. This is clearly demonstrated in the words of Student 2 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old), who commented, “internationalisation is educating a global citizen”. This quote reflected the opinion of the research participants among senior management, teachers and students. However, due to ambiguity of the definition of a global citizen, it is necessary to specify what the participants meant when talking about a global citizen. Interestingly, it was discovered that the participants of different levels viewed the global citizen differently.

|          |                          |   |
|----------|--------------------------|---|
| Yerbol   | SMT                      | “so at the lessons we educate a global citizen because we’re really not indifferent, because Kazakhstan can’t exist separately from the global community, from other people, from other countries”.   |
| Tamerlan | Computer Science teacher | “I think our kids are ready to live in that environment where they’re planning to live-abroad. They’re ready morally because those subjects taught here, that thinking they’re taught– it all allows them to think differently than before when people limited themselves, framed themselves. They [students] now have access to mass media, the library; then the representatives of other countries visit us... I mean this regular interaction, this continuous learning allow the kids to picture what the world outside looks like in reality” |

These quotes demonstrate that one part of the participants perceived school curriculum internationalisation as the process of becoming a part of the global society: “Kazakhstan can’t exist separately from the global community”, as mentioned above. In the view of the senior management team members and



teachers, that aim could be achieved by educating school graduates as the citizens of the global community aka global citizens. The idea of epistemic virtues suggested by Rizvi (2015) can be applied here to support that perception. Those epistemic virtues presuppose critical reflection on the relationship between the global issues and the local communities. As a result of that critical reflection, students become aware of the interconnectedness of the world. Students become aware of the importance of peaceful resolution of international conflicts and the importance of collaboration in order to solve global issues including environmental problems. This viewpoint seems to represent an 'idealistic' view of global citizenship education (Andreotti, 2011b) which was discussed in *Critique of global citizenship education* (p. 32). So global citizenship education implies the development of intercultural competence and cosmopolitanism as reviewed in *Global citizenship education* (p. 27).

In contrast to the 'idealistic' view examined in the previous paragraph and which was shared by senior management team, teachers and some students, the majority of students and parents prioritised the role of knowledge in global citizenship education. This viewpoint reflects the pragmatic view of global citizenship education (Andreotti, 2011b) and involves the development of skills, competence and knowledge needed to increase competitiveness of students on the global scale. This finding will be presented and discussed in *Chapter 5* (p. 79) in detail. Nevertheless, it is necessary to mention that the students viewed curriculum internationalisation as the process of preparing the school graduates to perform successfully in the increasingly globalised world. For instance, Student 2 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) defined a global citizen as "a world citizen who can feel at home in any place of the world in general... so that such a person didn't feel discriminated in another environment, so that he/she didn't have an inferiority complex that his/her knowledge wasn't sufficient". Therefore, it can be argued that the students' definition lay within neoliberal imaginary which considered "the emerging global economy to be a knowledge economy" (Rizvi, 2015, p. 344). Within the global knowledge economy, education is supposed to educate necessary capacities that will allow the school graduates to successfully perform in the global labour market (Rizvi, 2015). This view is supported by Nilsson (2000) who stated that an internationalised curriculum "gives international and intercultural knowledge and abilities, aimed at preparing

students for performing (professionally, socially, emotionally) in an international and multicultural context” (p. 31). *Chapter 5 (p. **Ошибка! Закладка не определена.**)* will discuss internationalisation perceived as the way to prepare economically competitive graduates.

As for the school policies and documents, thematic analysis revealed a consensus on the definition of the global citizen given by the participants and the policies. The Social Science programme of the school aimed at preparing “young people for their future lives as active global citizens by exploring issues of global significance and developing skills of critical thinking, research, using evidence and communication”. The Geography programme stated that one of the tasks of the subject was “to help solve the practical problems of modern humanity as well as global issues”. The programme of developing the common identity of Kazakhs ‘Mangilik Yel’ encouraged “national security and global participation of our country in solving the world and regional problems”. It can be concluded that awareness of and desire to solve global issues were perceived as the main aspects of global citizenship. It is worth stating that although ‘global’ ran across different subject programmes of the school, neither they nor other school documents explicitly mentioned curriculum internationalisation or global citizenship. The term ‘global citizen’ was explicitly used only twice. However, each document stated that it had been developed in cooperation with an international educational institution (e.g. Cambridge International Exams, Johns Hopkins Centre for Talented Youth) which implies internationalisation.

The same situation was found with interviews. In most cases, the participants rarely referred to the term ‘global citizen’. Still the qualities they attributed to the school’s graduates as the result of internationalisation aligned with the definition of a global citizen found in the relevant literature. The definition found in the literature describes the global citizen as an empathetic, tolerant and active citizen of one’s own nation-state and the global society, who is willing and able to accept and understand cultural differences and to solve conflicts non-violently (Yemini, Bar-Nissan and Shavit, 2014; Beck & Sznaider, 2006; James, 2005; Kubow, Grossman & Ninimiya, 2000). This view was found in participants’ comments as well. For instance, Zhanna, a teacher of the Kazakh language and literature, stated that “the mission of our school is to educate an intelligent

student who is always tolerant, able to express own critical thoughts, competitive, able to make right decisions on spot". The legislative documents, the annual report, the Trilingual policy and the school development strategy highlighted the significance of the respectful attitude to one's own and others' culture, an ability to work cooperatively in a team as well as "tolerance, mutual understanding between people with different viewpoints, perceptions and equal treatment to the vulnerable". As we can see, thematic analysis of the interviews and the school documents revealed the definition of curriculum internationalisation as the process of innovating school curriculum in order to educate global citizens who can contribute to the improvement of the global society.

Interestingly, the definitions of both the participants and scholars emphasised the importance of active citizenship which implies active engagement with the community both at local and international levels (Leask, 2015). Taking into consideration the importance of active citizenship it is worth mentioning another concept that can be used to describe the outcome of curriculum internationalisation as perceived by the participants. This concept is of cosmopolitanism which was discussed in *Global citizenship and cosmopolitanism* (p. 29). Literature review revealed a debate around the definition of cosmopolitanism. Although it is implied that cosmopolitanism entails the rejection of one's own national identity (Rizvi, 2005), some scholars argue that cosmopolitanism unites national identity and global identity (Osler, 2011; Alred, Byram & Fleming, 2006; Nussbaum, 1999). This is very important in the context of Kazakhstan due to the fact that the participants emphasised the significance of being a global citizen but at the same time retaining one's own national identity. As Mary, Arts teacher, commented, "I think it's a great idea – trilingualism - cause they still get to keep their roots and still maintain that and still embrace you know, welcome the English language as well". Thus, the analysis discovered that global citizenship as perceived in Kazakhstan embraced interculturality and cosmopolitanism which meant an alliance of the national and the global.

Some of the teachers and senior management team members argued that cosmopolitanism was a natural phenomenon for Kazakhstan. This is explained, firstly, by the traditional values of Kazakhstan. Hospitality, respect to the elders

and living in harmony with the nature have always been main traditional values of the peoples of Central Asia. Zarina, Kazakh and Kazakh literature teacher, said that “firstly, it is a feature of the Kazakh peoples, of our nations- it’s in our blood: compassion and respect to others”. Moreover, some of the international teachers stated that one of the reasons to come to Kazakhstan was the way their friends/colleagues who had lived there talked about the students there. “It’s been really nice to come to an environment where the students are really self-motivated and extremely respectful”, Tom, Social Science teacher, elaborated. Respecting Others is a part of intercultural competence which is a constituent part of cosmopolitanism and global citizenship.

Another explanation is the historic background of Kazakhstan as a part of the Soviet Union. This idea was echoed in the words of Kamila, English teacher, “it [an internationalised aspect of the curriculum] may include international communication, traditions, culture of communication. It may be our mentality, our education... maybe because our country is of the post-Soviet period-“. During the period from 1920 to 1991 Kazakhstan was a member of the Soviet Union. At that time Kazakhstan hosted people from all over the Soviet Union including the prisoners of the World War II. Before the World War II Kazakhstan was used as a place of exile for the convicts and other people Stalin wanted to remove from his close proximity. During the World War II Germans from the Volga region and Chechens and Ingushs from Caucasus were deported to Kazakhstan. In the period between 1950s and 1960s the virgin lands development caused more than one million people from Russia, Belarus and Ukraine to move to Kazakhstan. This background must have influenced the perceptions of the people living in Kazakhstan. As Ainash, Maths teacher, said, “It seems to me that there’s no hostility between the students in the classroom on the grounds of their nationality or something like that. This is also an indicator of educating internationalism in their families, at school, in the society and on TV”. We can see that in this quotation, the participant replaced the word ‘internationalisation’ with ‘internationalism’. This trend was noticed when interviewing many other participants as well as in the school policies. The reason for this may also be rooted in the Soviet past of the country. The term ‘internationalism’ was widely used and popularised in the USSR. It should be noted that internationalism and internationalisation may have a different set of

values. Internationalism was associated with building friendship among the fifteen member-states of the Soviet Union that had the same main ideology (Korniyenko, 2011; Mukazhanova, 2009; Gerassimova, 2007). Furthermore, Pain (2011) claims that Soviet internationalism was a forerunner of today's interculturality. Interestingly, Ualiyeva & Edgar (2011) claim that the concept of race did not exist in the Soviet Union period. The citizens were differentiated according to their nationality rather than their race. As the government of the USSR had promoted the establishment of national republics, national languages and cultures, Suny (1993) called the USSR the maker of nations. The Soviet ideology deprecated any form of discrimination and all the Soviet peoples were equal by law. As the legacy of the USSR is still present in Kazakhstan, the perceptions of the people of Kazakhstan can be influenced by the ideas of the Soviet ideology. Therefore, the participants of this research closely associated internationalisation with intercultural citizenship education or/and cosmopolitanism without even realising that.

Global citizenship education presupposes intercultural citizenship education as discussed in *Global citizenship and interculturality* (p. 28). Intercultural citizenship is often associated with intercultural competence. Hence, it is no wonder that the participants identified intercultural competence as one of the most important facets of school curriculum internationalisation.

### **6.1.1 Intercultural competence**

Intercultural competence was often implied in the participants' responses and documents as it was mentioned above. Although the participants and school documents very rarely explicitly used the term 'intercultural competence', the analysis inferred that it was considered as one of the main assets of global citizenship education. This idea is demonstrated in the following quotations.

|          |                                |  |
|----------|--------------------------------|--|
| Tamerlan | Computer<br>Science<br>teacher | “I mean the children no longer think only from the position of Kazakhstani citizens. They think from the position of those people who have written about that problem. And they try to apply the available resources to solve [that problem]”. |
|----------|--------------------------------|--|

---

|        |                 |  |
|--------|-----------------|--|
| Alyona | Biology teacher | “We’re not focussing only on Kazakhstan: all the examples, all the scientists – we’ve changed so that by delivering the lesson material it isn’t important that DNA was discovered by an American scientist and so on and so forth. We’re not limited by the achievements of only our country, only our scholars. We tell about the achievements of the whole humankind and [their] issues”. |
|--------|-----------------|--|

---

|                              |   |
|------------------------------|---|
| Parent of a grade 12 student | “For example, extracurricular activities aimed at promoting friendship and solidarity are conducted without a hitch. Then there’re students of various nationalities studying at school. They don’t discriminate each other by their nationality. The teachers are also like that”. |
|------------------------------|---|

These quotations illustrate the importance the participants attached to the development of intercultural competence. Although the participants did not explicitly use the term ‘intercultural competence’, the latter can be implied from what they said. Having analysed the interviews and school policies I concluded that the perception of intercultural competence correlated with the model of intercultural competence suggested by Byram (1997) which was discussed in *Global citizenship and interculturality* (p. 28) because all these aspects of the intercultural competence model were mentioned in the interviews and school documents. First of all, the majority of the participants emphasised the importance of obtaining knowledge about Others: other countries, nationalities, cultures. “With this curriculum internationalisation I think you’re seeing a lot of more awareness of other cultures which is a good thing”, Tom, Social Science teacher, expressed his opinion. This idea represents the knowledge component of intercultural competence (Byram, 1997) because according to his model of

intercultural competence, the knowledge component implies knowledge of different social groups and their practices both in one's own country and other countries. Students learn World Geography, World History, Economics, the Russian Language and Literature, English, Arts and Sciences where they are believed to acquire knowledge about other countries and the whole world in general. Meruyert, Geography teacher, claimed, "It's necessary to teach [students] to view the rights of any country in a proper way. For example, we teach about Africa, about USA". Aruzhan, PE teacher, also mentioned the exchange of experience, culture, knowledge of other cultures, language proficiency and free communication as important aspects of curriculum internationalisation. It can be concluded that the participants believed that students needed to learn about other countries in order to become global citizens because it will help them integrate into and accept other cultures. It will also help raise their awareness of the diversity of cultures. Learning about other cultures, history and geography at school is believed to be an important facet of international education by the scholars as well (DiYanni, 2007; Rizvi, 2007; Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003; Hayden & Thompson, 1995).

Secondly, the participants mentioned the importance of developing intercultural skills and attitudes among the students. For example, Damir, a form tutor, said, "it's not enough to know, it's important to thoroughly educate children. Therefore, we educate them in terms of tolerance, in terms of the good, in terms of a very sensitive understanding of the world so that when being abroad they could have a clear awareness of where they were, what country, and knew the norms of ethics". This quotation illustrates the importance of the skills of interpreting and relating and of discovery and interaction. As for the students, an interculturally competent person was defined as someone "who doesn't discriminate people by their race, religion, nationality and who is ready to work with everyone, is ready to collaborate with any country" (Student 24, Grade 12, 17-18 years old). This definition corresponds with the definition of the global citizen which was discussed in *Global citizenship education* (p. 27). It implies that global citizenship education presupposes the development of such capacities as international understanding, tolerance, acceptance, respect and cooperation, the ability to reflect and analyse the world and oneself, and the

ability to understand power relations. These capacities reflect the components of intercultural competence suggested by Byram (1997).

Another important aspect of interculturality mentioned by the participants was critical cultural awareness. This means that the students are supposed to reflect, analyse and act accordingly when facing local and global challenges. “You just got to question, keep questioning. Gotta keep questioning these people that say they are leaders you know”, Alex, Computer Science teacher, said. In addition, Yerbol, senior management team member, used the term ‘active patriotism’ as one of the aims of the History subject programme. Active patriotism means that instead of just criticising the situation in the country, “a student criticises, a student discusses, a student analyses, a student finds pros and cons and possible threats but at the same time a student finds certain mechanisms of solving the problem”, as Yerbol, senior management team member, explained. Thus, critical cultural awareness was identified as an important aspect of both global and national citizenship education. These perceptions demonstrate the appropriateness of Byram’s model of intercultural competence because all the components (knowledge, skills and critical cultural awareness) are present in the responses of the interviewees.

Although the term ‘intercultural competence’ was used explicitly only in one document, all the subject programmes referred to it implicitly. For example, “The teaching of geography aims to continue the establishment of learners’ spirituality, patriotism, internationalism and respect for the culture of different nations, as well as giving an aesthetic, economic and environmental education”, stated the Geography programme. As we can see, there is again reference to Soviet internationalism which proves the presence of the Soviet legacy in policymaking of Kazakhstan. The legislative documents which included methodological guidelines on the organisation of the educational process, documents on planning and organising extra-curricular activities, documents on planning and organising in-service training for teachers and the code of ethics of the school staff and the school development strategy promoted the ideas of tolerance defined as “openness for everybody regardlessly of his or her ethnicity, sex, citizenship, social status and physical condition”, and of equality meaning “creating equal conditions regardless of origin, social, employment and financial situation, sex, race, nationality, language, residency or any other



circumstances”. In other words, the school policies promoted the idea of developing an appropriate behaviour which meant respect for the diversity of opinions, awareness of the value of other languages and cultures, an ability to work in a team, discussion of global issues, ethics and openness to changes. This message reflects the view of Cambridge (2002) who states that international education “celebrates cultural diversity and promotes international cooperation and an internationally minded outlook” (p. 228) which is impossible without intercultural competence. As the analysis of the documents and interviews revealed there was no explicit reference to intercultural competence but a set of norms of ‘an appropriate behaviour’ implied intercultural competence. Nevertheless, there is still a great emphasis on developing the national identity and patriotism of the school graduates which will be discussed in *Patriotism and the Kazakh national identity development* (p. 131).

In addition, the participants, especially teachers and senior management team members, underlined the importance of holistic approach to acquiring intercultural competence. “It’s our integrated programme that envisages those academic grounds, those upbringing moments”, explained Yernur, a member of the senior management team. The participants and the school policies admitted that extracurricular activities including charity and volunteering, travelling and access to the Internet were as important as the academic studies in the development of interculturality.

|        |     |  |
|--------|-----|--|
| Kamila | SMT | “Our kids went to America [the USA] and learnt about their practice of organizing school’s student governance; and we’ve restructured this system... if before that there were 5 people [students] on the student council and who carried the main burden, then now the council includes not less than 20, 22, 23 people [students]” |
|--------|-----|--|

---

|           |     |   |
|-----------|-----|---|
| Zhassulan | SMT | “There’s a programme in IB, you know, CAS, right? We don’t have it in our programme. It’s like extracurricular activity |
|-----------|-----|---|

---

---

|                            |                 |  |
|----------------------------|-----------------|--|
|                            |                 | or community development or like service, right? It's like hidden curriculum in our [school]... this means we need to respect Others. Yes, we have costumes, we have good books, modern equipment, good teachers... Let's, let's go to a village or the home for elderly people, an orphanage and present them with books, clothes"  |
| Aiman                      | Physics teacher | "We've got a lot of hobby clubs. So, kids have chosen the clubs themselves; they're very interested. There's the school council which is kind of a small governance when kids elect a president, members... We've got [friendship clubs] which is very good because there's no discrimination between the elder and the younger [students]. Then they [students] often organize concerts. I think it's also the reflection because when you see the kids from a different side and realise that they actually they can draw, sing, play different instruments. This way I can see that some kids have a totally different world, worldview, the range of interests is very wide. You can see the same among the teachers". |
| Claire                     | English teacher | "so, we've got a German club, Photography club, Spanish club but also the extra lessons often take over that".   |
| Parent of grade 12 student |                 | "There's an annual friendship festival every spring. There the representatives of minority   |

---

---

nationalities and the centres of the assembly come with a concert”.

---

Student 3 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) “Now when at our school we have different competitions, festivals between schools, and this is kind of- I mean schools are different, there’re many different like concepts. There’re also different people, and at such moments you learn to interact with other people. That’s why I think that when I study abroad, there won’t be a problem of making friends with someone, talking to someone or even in terms of academic studies”

Judging by these quotations, extracurricular activities play an important role in the school curriculum. The policies on organizing extracurricular activities implied the development of the students’ intercultural competence as one of the main tasks of such activities. “Respecting the elders, tolerance, mutual understanding between people with different viewpoints, perception and equal attitude towards the vulnerable” was the aim of one of the extracurricular projects. As extracurricular activities represent an informal aspect of curriculum it is important to explore their role in curriculum internationalisation. Extracurricular activities make a big contribution to global citizenship education as the main aim of them is the development of values while academic activities are mainly focussed on knowledge and skills. Thus, extracurricular activities can allocate more time and efforts to intercultural competence development.

Nevertheless, the students and teachers were concerned that there was not enough time allocated for extracurricular activities. Aigerim, English and Social Science teacher, stated, “In my opinion, unfortunately, the amount of extracurricular activities is less than we’d want to. Because the kids are really busy with academic studies”. That view was fully supported by the students of grade 12. For instance, student 18 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) stated, “actually, the biggest drawback is that we don’t have extra-curricular time. Like everyone

can tell you that his life ended when he entered this school. Music, sport – we gave up everything when we came to this school... We have clubs but nobody goes there because they [administration] allocate only thirty minutes to them". Travelling abroad was also mentioned by the participants and in the school policies as a part of extracurricular activities. As extracurricular activities have a big potential in global citizenship education, it is necessary to address this issue.

|           |     |   |
|-----------|-----|---|
| Zhassulan | SMT | “So, when we send our kids to different countries: to America [the USA], Canada – to learn different practices; they’re also learning the culture”. |
|-----------|-----|---|

|       |               |   |
|-------|---------------|---|
| Arman | Maths teacher | “The kids participate in the international Olympiads and projects competitions. Of course, it’s a good experience for them, I think, to see the world, to see people. They went to Hong Kong, to Malaysia... There they saw another culture, another attitude. Obviously, the kids’ viewpoint changes. They come back here and start comparing: what about us? Are people same or different? And what should we be to become better?” |
|-------|---------------|---|

|                                    |   |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Parent of grades 9 and 12 students | “When talking about going abroad, I think it helps the learners see the world and develop their thinking capacity”. |
|------------------------------------|---|

|  |   |
|--|---|
| Student 24 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) | “We had such an opportunity at our school – if you study well you’ll be sent abroad for two weeks. There you study, too, but most of the time you meet new people. Well they [the school staff] were already preparing us for that [meeting |
|--|---|

---

new people from different cultures]. We saw then what it was like to live without parents, how people live abroad”.

These quotations demonstrate the importance of travelling abroad. Immersion in a different culture may lead to the development of intercultural competence (Brogan & Laoire, 2011; Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003). However, there is a growing number of research proving that travelling abroad does not necessarily result in intercultural competence (Bennett, 2009; Zarate, 2003). Instead, short study trips abroad can lead to strengthening of stereotypes. Moreover, it is argued that international students prefer keeping a company of their compatriots and find it difficult to mingle with local students (Leask & Carroll, 2011). Furthermore, travelling and studying abroad is not always a possible option for most of the students. Hence, the majority of the participants named an integrated educational programme as the main asset in developing cosmopolitanism and intercultural competence. Integrated educational programme is viewed as an invaluable asset in internationalisation at home as it helps domestic students gain an international experience without leaving the home country. This type of an educational programme will be discussed below.

### **6.1.2 Integrated educational programme**

The participants identified the integrated educational programme as the main aspect of global citizenship education. “Internationalisation might be, I think, an integration of the best aspects of the international programmes while retaining our national, like fundamental, best from the programmes. Take what we need and integrate [into our programme]”, Sholpan, a member of the senior management team member, said. An integrated curriculum can help students build skills and competence to learn and understand themselves and other people better. Such curriculum provides students with an opportunity to compare and contrast the national and international. “Just having a look at how things are done in different areas and compare to different areas”, Chris, Physics teacher, explained.

The school policies mentioned an integrated programme numerous times. For instance, the legislative documents stated that ‘Community service’ project had been developed on the basis of creative and active performance of the learners

similar to the requirements of IB Diploma Programme. The school mission, the annual school report and the school development strategy stated literally the same idea on the integrated educational programme that the participants declared. They all supported the idea of developing “an innovative educational model that integrates best Kazakhstani and international practices” which promoted the idea of uniting national and international educational systems. This means that both school stakeholders and school policies still stick to the national educational programme although admitting the leading role of the Western educational practices and the need of adapting them to the context of Kazakhstan.

This view falls into the category of curriculum internationalisation that Hayden, Thompson & Williams (2003) named ‘integration’. This means that the best practices of different international curricula are integrated and can be applied in a different national context (Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003; McKillop-Ostrom, 2000). James (2005) notices that there is a trend of adopting international curricula in the national schools and naming it curriculum internationalisation, although Leask (2015) calls it localisation rather than internationalisation. This means that an international curriculum is modified in order to meet the demands of the local context. In the case of Kazakhstan, the participants and school policies emphasised the importance of creating a new curriculum that integrated both national and international practices and implementing it within the national context. They believed that such integration could lead to school curriculum internationalisation. This belief shows that the research participants aspire to maintain Kazakh national identity at the same time recognising the importance of being a part of the global society. However, it can lead to the tension between ‘global’ and ‘national’ as discussed later in [Chapter 6](#) (p. 136).

It is necessary to differentiate between an internationalised curriculum and an international curriculum because the former is not completely international. It is a national curriculum altered to resemble an international curriculum and meet the requirements of the national educational system. Such curriculum answers the requirements of the international standards but also incorporates national features and traditions of Kazakhstan. Both national and international teachers supported the idea of an integrated curriculum: “So a richer curriculum that

represents their own culture and other nations' cultures, gives them some- an opportunity to compare themselves or what they have with others", Mary, Arts teacher, commented. Specifically, this means the introduction of the internationally informed subjects within the local context. For instance, the participants often referred to such subject as Contemporary History of Kazakhstan, Social Science, Literature and English as the most internationalised subjects in the school curriculum. The former helps students discover the role and place of Kazakhstan in the world and educate them as active patriots, as Yerbol, senior management team member, declared. As for Social Science, there students have an opportunity to learn different perspectives on various topics on a global scale. The students analyse and write a project work on various controversial topics such as death penalty, euthanasia, global village, poverty and others. Tamerlan, Computer Science teacher, referred to English teachers "who always conduct some event, for instance, a week of different countries, right? In other words, [they show] culture, the culture of events: what is appropriate in one country, what in another. I mean [English teachers] introduce the kids, teachers, all the school staff generally to the cultural diversity". Interestingly, some teachers of Maths, Physics, Chemistry and Biology found it hard to connect their subjects with global citizenship. They claimed that Humanities had more opportunities for global citizenship, particularly intercultural competence because Humanities presuppose discussion and debates while Science is based on solid facts and there is usually not much to discuss especially at the level of secondary education.

Another important aspect of the educational programme mentioned by the participants was assessment. This idea resonates with the research in that sphere. For instance, Leask (2015) and Jones & Killick (2007) state that assessment is one of the core elements of curriculum internationalisation. "It is also yeah- must not forget the matriculation examination or the Cambridge examination after the 12th grade. Which is well UK based exam. Although we have a different variant of that", Ryan, Chemistry teacher, said. The Guide for the teachers described the assessment as being developed according to the international standards. Specifically, it was stated that "the assessment corresponds with the international levels of Cambridge International A и AS Level". This demonstrates that the school has an international assessment

adapted to the needs of the local students. The practice of adapting international assessment is believed to help the students enter international universities. This aspect of the integrated programme clearly corresponds with one of the findings in *Chapter 5 (p. 89)* where I will discuss internationalisation of curriculum as the way to prepare competitive graduates. Therefore, I will discuss assessment in detail in the following chapter.

The research discovered that multilingualism and internationalisation was often associated with cultural diversity of the staff and student body which will be discussed below.

### **6.1.3 Cultural diversity in the staff and student body**

Cultural diversity is believed to contribute to “the development of a global mind-set within local communities” (Chankseliani, 2016, p. 5). Therefore, it was identified as one of the main aspect of curriculum internationalisation in the context of global citizenship education. Aigerim, Social Science teacher, claimed, “well, first of all, there’re many nationalities in our school. And they [students] learn more about those cultures. This helps them understand their classmates better. We have children of Korean nationality, Uzbek, apart from Kazakh and Russian, children of Ukrainian nationality”. This idea is echoed in the interviews with many other teachers and senior management team members. Clearly, in this context, the diversity in the staff and student body does not necessarily mean the presence of English-speaking people. As I have mentioned above, this perception might be explained by the Soviet past of the country when the fifteen countries lived as a whole. Furthermore, the geographical position of Kazakhstan in Central Asia invites the inflow of people from other Asian countries.

Interestingly, the school policies demonstrated an absolutely opposite opinion. In all the documents where cultural diversity was mentioned, it was mostly associated with English-speaking teachers. The school legislative documents stated that “employing high-qualified foreign teaching staff allows to get acquainted with the practice of international pedagogy, promotes the integration of the best national and international pedagogies and its introduction into the teaching and learning process of the school”. International staff is also believed to create “opportunities for students to have well-structured contact and communication with other students and with adults who speak the students’



second and third language”. The school development strategy emphasised that “project involving participation of international subject teachers in the school is implemented with the aim to obtain international experience”. Thus, the school documents and policies seem to be guided by the neoliberal ideology of education imposing Western perspectives on Kazakhstani educational system. This view fits into the view of curriculum internationalisation as competitive graduate education which will be discussed in *Chapter 5 (p. 93)*.

Conversely, some teachers were of the opinion that diversity in the staff can be achieved through employing local teachers with international experience. For instance, it was recommended to hire Kazakhstani teachers who had worked or studied abroad. As Tom, Social science teacher, stated, “you have experience of another culture and that’s something you can share with the students. That’s something that- that should be valued very highly by the local teachers because- because of your experience of living here in Kazakhstan and then going abroad and then coming back. You can make the comparison and the understandings for the students a lot better than we [international teachers] can”. As Kazakhstan is currently experiencing a shortage of international staff due to geopolitical and economic situation, hiring local staff with international experience can be a worthwhile solution. This is especially relevant in case of Kazakhstan because there is a presidential scholarship for Kazakhstani citizens for studying in the top-ranked universities abroad. The only condition is to return to Kazakhstan after completing studies and work there for five years.

Still the majority of the participants agreed that international teachers played an important role as culture ambassadors. This means that international teachers bring different cultures and insights into the school environment. Although Kazakhstan is a multinational country, people living in one country might share a common – Asian or post-Soviet – culture, while international teachers bring another or ‘Western’ culture. As Lyazzat, a member of the senior management team, said, “they [international staff] bring their cultures. First of all, the culture of their peoples because they are from different, absolutely different countries with different contexts. And secondly, a school can be international only with the presence of international teachers”. This means that the absence or shortage of different cultures representatives will inevitably result in a monocultural school. In other words, curriculum internationalisation cannot be complete without

experienced overseas teachers (Leask, 2015; Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003).

Furthermore, it was investigated that both students and teachers regarded exposure within and outside school to students from other nations and cultures as very important in the experience of an international education (Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003; Hayden & Thompson, 1995, 1997). The goal of the international curriculum is believed to provide an opportunity for different nationalities to study together and to get higher education worldwide (Hayden & Wong, 1997). It must provide a range of perspectives for students to experience (Hayden & Wong, 1997). This implies the importance of diversity in staff and students in curriculum internationalisation. Students themselves expressed their desire to study in a multicultural and multinational environment: "In its essence as I understand international schools are called internationalised schools. I mean school where, for example, not only the citizens of Kazakhstan study but also the kids of the Belarus ambassador and so on. If there're children of different nationalities in the school, it'll make us a huge society, it'll make our life more interesting, plus – it'll enrich us with other cultures. We'll learn traditions and customs of other countries", student 28 (Grade 9, 14-15 years old) claimed. There is an extensive literature on the benefits of cultural diversity in the staff and student body (Larkins, 2008; Slethaug, 2007; Langley, Villarreal & Columbia, 1997). They claim that diversity provides an opportunity for the students to experience intercultural practices that will eventually lead to the development of intercultural competence, cosmopolitanism and global citizenship.

However, there is a growing body of research on the futility of diversity in the staff and student body (Leask 2015; Leask & Carroll, 2011; James, 2005). According to that research, foreign students find it hard to socialise and make friends with the locals. Therefore, teachers are not the only sources of the interculturality. Now students do not have to go abroad to become interculturally competent. Now students can actively engage and interact with other societies and their cultures due to the development of information technologies and globalisation (Byram, Nichols & Stevens, 2001). Therefore, there is a trend of internationalisation at home when students can gain international and

intercultural experience at the local educational institution without having to go abroad. Here, curriculum internationalisation plays a significant role.

Another important facet of curriculum internationalisation closely connected with cultural diversity is multilingualism. It is believed that multilingualism can contribute to global citizenship education through intercultural competence development.

#### **6.1.4 Multilingualism**

Internationalisation was closely associated with multilingualism by the participants and school policies. The main characteristic feature of multilingualism is the use of two or more languages as media of instruction (Cenoz, 2009; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2008; Cummins, 2007). The school under examination uses three languages as media of instruction: Kazakh as it is a national language of the country, Russian as the language of inter-ethnic communication and English as the requirement of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

|        |     |  |
|--------|-----|--|
| Yernur | SMT | “on the example of our school you can see that our children speak 3 languages fluently. I think this contributes to the openness of our country to other communities, other nations, other cultures, even to another world outlook”. |
|--------|-----|--|

|     |                   |         |   |
|-----|-------------------|---------|---|
| Tom | Social<br>teacher | Science | “So, you’re seeing English, Russian and Kazakh courses. I mean that could not be any more obviously internationalised-examples of internationalisation because you’re seeing different languages being taught in the school”. |
|-----|-------------------|---------|---|

|                                |  |  |   |
|--------------------------------|--|--|---|
| A parent of a Grade 12 student |  |  | “Speaking about internationalisation we are now studying three languages... if the students know the languages, they can make international friends, go abroad, start developing international-“. |
|--------------------------------|--|--|---|

Both participants and school policies showed an absolute agreement on the importance of languages learning. Educating children “in their own [Kazakh] and their neighbour’s languages [Russian] increases social cohesion, reducing the risk of inter-ethnic violence” (Yakavets, 2014, p. 16). Moreover, Al Farra (2000) believes that multilingual education is the main aspect of school internationalisation. All the school policies mentioned languages learning. Moreover, they prioritised the role of the three languages in the school curriculum. Building the linguistic competence was highlighted in all the school subject programmes. Furthermore, the English programme stated that “learning English can help learners to develop positive attitudes to other cultures as well as increase awareness of their own culture”. All the school policies promoted trilingualism at school. This means that the school expected its graduates to be proficient in Kazakh, Russian and English. Furthermore, the majority of students and parents as well as the school policies highlighted the role of English as the essential language to learn. The latter will be discussed in *Chapter 5 (p. 91)*. That was the only disagreement between some of the participants and the school policies. The participants acknowledged the necessity to learn more than the three languages as it was the requirement of this globalised century.

In addition, Aguiar & Nogueira (2012) claim that internationalised education is very important for parents nowadays. Such education includes foreign language learning and cultures learning. Indeed, all the parents in this research expressed their desire to send their children abroad for studying and/or travelling. In their opinion, school curriculum internationalisation can help achieve that aim.

Languages learning is a significant facet of global citizenship because learning languages can help understand people, as Byram (2006) claims. This idea is also demonstrated in the responses of the participants. For instance, Arnagul, Maths teacher, claimed, “without learning languages we can’t learn about their [others’] cultures or what they’re [others] thinking about”. However, even in lingua franca communication people with different cultural backgrounds can misunderstand each other because “interlocutors introduce their own understandings into the language” (Byram, 2006, p.113). Here the concept of mediation becomes important. There is a need for interpretation and mediation between the speakers with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Such mediation requires an intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997).

Obviously, intercultural competence I have discussed above is closely interlinked with languages learning. For example, Kamila, English teacher, stated that “multilingualism probably includes not only language communication. Maybe it includes international communication, traditions, communicative culture”. There is an extensive literature on the significance of foreign languages learning in acquiring intercultural competence (Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Costa Afonso, 2011; Byram, 2011; Carder, 2007; Byram, 2006; Parmenter, 2006; Witte, 2006; Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003; Byram, 1997; Hayden & Thompson, 1995). Foreign languages learning contributes to the development of critical cultural awareness because the former involves constant comparison, mediation and negotiation (Byram, 2006). Byram (1995) argues that a language learner is an intercultural speaker by default because languages learning provides the students of the school with a chance to communicate with the representatives of various cultures.

On the other hand, the participants expressed their concern over the loss of the Kazakh national identity and national language as the result of multilingualism. “But I think trilingualism may threaten the Kazakh language. Therefore, now in terms of priority we see English on the first place, Russian keeps the second place. And Kazakh is only on the third place. Although it should be vice versa – 1<sup>st</sup> place – Kazakh, 2<sup>nd</sup> – English and 3<sup>rd</sup> – Russian”, Zhangir, Russian and Russian literature teacher, said. Therefore, the majority of the participants emphasised the importance of the development of the Kazakh national identity and patriotism. This includes reviving the Kazakh language because languages are culturally loaded and form an integral part of a human national identity (Cenoz, 2009; Byram & Leman, 1990). This challenge will be discussed in *Chapter 6 (p. 136)*.

#### **6.1.5 Patriotism and the Kazakh national identity development**

Judging by the research results, national citizenship education is of paramount importance in Kazakhstan, as I have already mentioned in the previous chapter.

Arnagul Maths teacher “It seems necessary to save our national traditions, our mother tongue, our values”.

---

Student 29 (Grade 9, 14-15 years old) “Internationalisation and generally the whole system of education going on in our school are aimed at retaining our culture and mentality”.

The aspiration to preserve national identity was not surprising as the colonial policy of Russia during the Soviet Union time had led to the suppression of the national identity of the indigenous population of Kazakhstan. Moreover, Kazakhstan was known as the most russified country among the members of the Soviet Union by the Soviet regime’s collapse. Moreover, global citizenship education admits the importance of “ethical and responsible local citizens who appreciate the connections between the local, the national, and the global” (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p. 31). Thus, curriculum internationalisation is believed to accept patriotic education.

Thematic analysis of the school documents and policies revealed that the doctrine of the Kazakh national identity development and patriotism was clearly identified there. “Our alumni are patriots with sound moral values”, announced the school development strategy. The mission of the school described the students as “trilingual with sound moral values devoted to the future of their country”. This idea can be traced in the subject programmes of the school where one of the aims was to “develop a strong sense of their [students’] cultural identity” and “help learners to contribute to Kazakhstan’s continuing development”. According to the school policies, the national identity can be revived through such extracurricular activities as trips to the remote villages, visiting the historically significant sites in Kazakhstan, including the Kazakh language as the leading language of the Trilingual policy and CLIL. CLIL presupposes the use of Kazakh as the language of instruction of several subject no matter whether a student had Russian or Kazakh as L1. However, it has to be mentioned that the majority of the external assessment which is also high-stake exams for the school graduates are conducted in English. For instance, CITO exams, IELTS and exams in Science subjects are conducted in English so that the results of those exams were valid to apply for an international/Western university.

National language is considered as the main aspect in developing a sense of national identity and citizenship (Parmenter, 2006; Smith, 2001; Billig, 1995;

Hobsbawm, 1992). “Every nation should have its one language. After all, there is no future for a country without the national language”, Laura, History teacher, believed. This view is supported by Leung & Lee (2006) and Alred, Byram & Fleming (2006). The latter (ibid) claim that “language is a powerful indicator of citizenship and/or identity that can be manipulated by political authorities but also resisted by populations” (p. 5). Language plays an important role in a national identity because any community needs a shared language for communication. Thus, national identity and linguistic identity are often tightly connected (Byram, 2006). Therefore, it is of paramount importance for Kazakhstan to maintain its national identity through reviving its national language. However, there is still a persistent problem of reviving the national language in Kazakhstan due to curriculum internationalisation which resulted in two forces influencing Kazakh learning: russification and westernisation. This issue will be discussed in *Chapter 6 (p. 136)*.

Schools are viewed as institutions for transmitting the culture of the country they are in (Kelly, 2004). “Citizenship is often related to belonging to a community or being a member of a group or groups of people who recognise that they have something in common” (Ryan, 2006, p.21). Nationalism or citizenship education is often used with negative connotation and associated with chauvinism, xenophobia and militarism (White, 2003). However, it is argued that people need to have a sense of belonging to a community. It helps them to form their own identity and differ from others (Fleming, 2006). Moreover, it is important in international education for the students to be exposed to and get engaged with the local community (Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003). The participants believed that a person could develop respect to other cultures only after having learnt to respect one’s own culture and one’s own national identity. This issue was emphasised by almost all the participants: “they cannot really understand internationalism in terms of Art if they cannot like see themselves first, realise first who they are before they can compare it”, Mary, Arts teacher, said.

Nevertheless, there is a danger that national citizenship is too narrow and egocentric as it limits the students to the boundaries of one country. It does not question one’s own identity, it takes much for granted and may not be aware of the cultural differences (Fleming, 2006). Therefore, it is important to integrate intercultural and national citizenship in global citizenship education. Such

education will help to develop the sense of belonging both to the local and global communities among the students. It will lead to active citizenship which means meaningful engagement with the communities (Alred, Byram & Fleming, 2006; Martin & Feng, 2006). Byram (2011) also admits that there is an assertion that learning about other countries and cultures may help the students gain a deeper understanding of their own culture and country. Nevertheless, the research revealed the tension between national citizenship and global citizenship education in Kazakhstan due to the history of oppression from Russia.

### **Conclusion**

When researching curriculum, it is important to take all the parts of curriculum into consideration; the academic formal curriculum, informal curriculum, hidden curriculum and actual received curriculum (Kelly, 1999). Unsurprisingly, the participants highlighted the importance of extracurricular activities and traveling abroad (informal curriculum) and hidden curriculum (the overall culture of the school) in internationalisation. Moreover, parents, teachers and senior management team members mentioned family upbringing as a significant asset in educating cosmopolitan graduates. This perception aligns with the view of curriculum internationalisation as an ongoing everyday process not merely confined to classroom settings (Witte, 2011).

This chapter discussed global citizenship education as the main aim of curriculum internationalisation according to the school stakeholders and the school policies. This means that the school is aimed at educating the graduates who know and respect both own culture and the cultures of other people. Global citizenship includes intercultural competence, cosmopolitanism and surprisingly patriotism. It was discovered that integrated educational programme, multilingualism, national and intercultural citizenship education and cultural diversity in staff and student body were viewed as the major facets of school curriculum internationalisation.

However, the research also revealed challenges and tensions due to internationalisation. Those tensions demonstrate confrontation of global citizenship and national citizenship education. The significance of reviving and maintaining Kazakh national identity was identified due to westernisation and russification. As a result of this confrontation, the issues with teaching Kazakh as the national language was raised. As for multilingualism, there was a fear



that it can make the revival of the national language revival (Kazakh). Diversity in staff and student body was also problematised due to national citizenship education. Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that neoliberal image of curriculum internationalisation which will be discussed in the next chapter was often integrated into global citizenship education. The ideas of global citizenship education and competitive graduate education were often interlinked in the responses of the participants and in the school documents. Therefore, it was difficult to separate them from each other.

The majority of the participants believed that cosmopolitanism was an integral part of the Kazakh culture. Therefore, they saw no issues in pursuing global citizenship education. However, some of the students and parents shared that there was still nationalism and intolerance to sexual minorities among students, parents and staff. Another issue mentioned by the participants was a possible threat to Kazakh national identity revival as mentioned above. All the issues that emerged from the interviews with the school stakeholders will be discussed in detail in *Chapter 6 (p. **Ошибка! Закладка не определена.**)*.

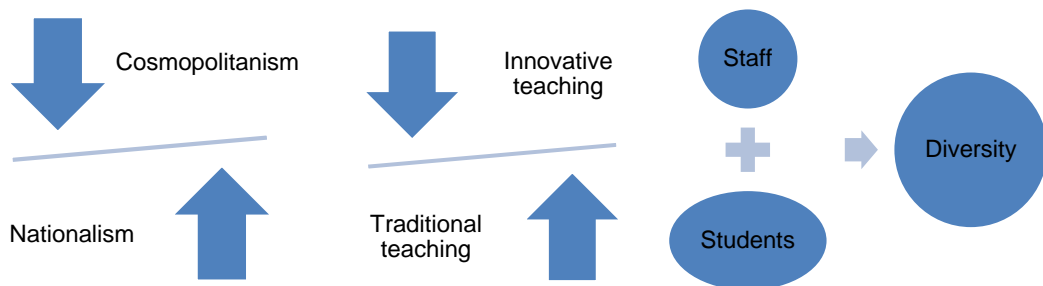
To sum up, this chapter discussed the definition of the curriculum internationalisation as global citizenship education. This means that the aim of the curriculum internationalisation is viewed as the promotion of peace and friendship between people of different nationalities, races and ethnicities. This is associated with developing students' sense of belonging to the global community but still retaining Kazakh national identity.

## Research question 2

### II. What are the perceived challenges of curriculum internationalisation?

This section will present and discuss the perceived challenges and issues that the school under study experienced due to curriculum internationalisation. Thematic analysis of the interviews with the school stakeholders has identified three major challenges: the tension between national identity development and global citizenship education, the change of the teaching and learning approach, and the cultural diversity of the staff and student body. The perceived tensions associated with curriculum internationalisation and discovered by this research are illustrated in Figure 10.

Figure 8 Curriculum internationalisation challenges



#### 7.1 Cosmopolitanism versus nationalism

The research has discovered that the tension between cosmopolitanism and nationalism seems prominent in the school discourse in Kazakhstan. I have chosen these terms for this section as nationalism is an integral aspect of the national citizenship education, while cosmopolitanism is an integral part of global citizenship education as was stated in *Global citizenship and cosmopolitanism* (p. 29). Global citizenship is perceived as one of the main targets of curriculum internationalisation as was discussed in *Chapter 4* (p. 110). So, global citizenship education promotes the values of cosmopolitanism which are tolerance and openness to other cultures and ideas and commitment to the global society (Rizvi, 2005). Scholars often juxtapose cosmopolitanism and nationalism (Yemini, Bar-Nissan & Shavit, 2014; Marshall, 2011). Nationalism prioritises the nation's interests while cosmopolitanism prioritises the interests of the global society (Yemini, Bar-Nissan & Shavit, 2014) and is not limited by any national boundaries. However, this juxtaposition is critiqued and it is argued

that cosmopolitanism accepts national affiliations as it was discussed in *Global citizenship and cosmopolitanism* (p. 29).

As it was discussed in *Neoliberalism in curriculum internationalisation* (p. 33), a school curriculum can be used as a place for exercising power relations. So, Kazakhstan aims at educating competitive graduates and patriots at the same time. This may help resist the increasing control from wealthier and more powerful countries. Therefore, nationalism meaning patriotism is perceived as crucial in the school curricula in this neoliberal century when countries compete with one another in politics, education and especially economics. In the context of Kazakhstan it means that educating patriotic graduates can contribute to the development of the country and improve its political influence in the global arena.

As the result of global citizenship education and neoliberal image of education, the majority of the teachers expressed their concern over the loss of national identity due to globalisation and internationalisation which is clearly demonstrated in the following quotations.

|     |   |
|-----|---|
| Tom | “So, I think as you try to push CIS [Council of International Schools] globally minded and you have a national government pushing Kazakh culture and you know this idea of promoting the Kazakh identity you’re seeing the ideas that are conflicting”. |
|-----|---|

|         |   |
|---------|---|
| Arnagul | “But sometimes we go to extremes and seem to be forgetting that we’re Kazakhs, that our blood, our essence is different”. |
|---------|---|

|          |   |
|----------|---|
| Tamerlan | “Assimilation, integration of cultures – some cultures disappear, something can be lost, the uniqueness can be lost. I mean we can lose our roots”. |
|----------|---|

|                                       |  |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Student 27 (grade 9, 14-15 years old) | “Sometimes our school goes too far with internationalisation because we promote English, we must enter international universities. But then we |
|---------------------------------------|--|

---

start forgetting our culture. There's too much of everything”.

As can be concluded from these quotations, the participants are worried that the expansion of the Anglophone influence has an adverse effect on Kazakhstan and the Kazakh identity. Kazakhstan has already experienced colonisation before: russification. Russification started in the 19<sup>th</sup> century and reached its peak during the Soviet Union time. That historical moment had a great impact on the Kazakh national identity as discussed in *Chapter 4 (p. 131)*. As russification happened in the instant past of Kazakhstan, the population is still recovering from it. According to Anuarbek, History teacher, the period of decolonization from the Russian influence in Kazakhstan has not been completed yet. Therefore, the participants expressed their fear over another possible colonisation but by Anglophones this time. On the other hand, the participants recognised the importance of becoming a part of the global society which required the promotion of cosmopolitan values. This reveals the tension between the aspiration to retain national affiliation to Kazakhstan and to belong to a global society. This is justified by globalisation and interconnectedness of the world. Thus, it implies the connection between the events and processes at the local and global levels. As we can conclude from Chapters 4 and 5, the citizens of Kazakhstan aspire to be global citizens which presupposes an opportunity to work and live in any part of the world but at the same retaining their national identity. This leads us to the conclusion that global and national citizenships can be viewed as additional layers of an identity (Reid, Gill & Sears, 2010; Miller, 2000).

The tension is also found in the literature on international education. “Newly-emerging nation-states ... seek to establish and maintain an identity in their own right as national players on the global stage” as well as “to maintain themselves as separate states within a rapidly globalising world” (Reid, Gill & Sears, 2010, p. 11). In other words, such countries encourage national citizenship education in order to strengthen the state. Here, schools play an important role as they can disseminate the ideas of national citizenship (Reid, Gill & Sears, 2010; Miller, 2000), though it needs to be recognised that the ideas of national citizenship are also adopted and interpreted in accordance with the views of the

school teachers and senior management team. In addition, Reid, Gill & Sears (2010) argue that the nations that were under totalitarian rule and recently became independent tend to resist the hegemony of Western ideas of citizenship and especially the emphasis on individualism. Neoliberalism which is the dominant ideology in Western Europe and North America produces 'possessive individuals' (Nevradakis, 2014; Giroux, 2005) which is demonstrated in *Chapter 5* (p. **Ошибка! Закладка не определена.**) where curriculum internationalisation is defined as competitive graduate education.

On the contrary, the Soviet ideology was based on the ideas of collectivism, of disregarding self in favour of one's own country's welfare. Indeed, in the study conducted by Chankseliani & Hessel (2016b),

Interviewees were often under the impression that students from former Soviet countries tended to keep close links with their home countries while in the UK and aspire to go back and contribute to their countries of origin (p. 5).

This matches the case of Kazakhstan as it gained its independence from the totalitarian regime of the Soviet Union only about twenty-five years ago. So, unlike the neoliberal Western society, the post-Soviet society announces the equality of its members and dedication to duty. Dedication to duty can be interpreted as dedication to global society and/or to the local society. This interpretation can be found in *Chapter 4* where curriculum internationalisation is defined as global citizenship education. Within that definition, the research discovered the perceived importance of national citizenship and patriotism education (p. 131). Interestingly, while the school stakeholders accepted the importance of global citizenship, some of them were reluctant to accept education internationalisation, as was apparent in the views of some participants, because the latter was viewed as cultural imperialism, as a product of Western, or Anglophone, philosophy and practice (Haywood, 2015).

Furthermore, national identity is believed to be an integral part of a personal identity (Miller, 2000). Nations are ethical communities which presuppose active citizenship (Miller, 2000). This means that citizens are supposed to "contribute to the nation-state in useful and productive ways" (Kennedy, 2008, p. 484). Thus, there may be two major reasons why national citizenship education plays an important role in Kazakhstani secondary education and particularly in the school under study. Firstly, the government wants to educate citizens who will enhance economic competitiveness of Kazakhstan which was discussed in

*Chapter 5 (p. 80)*. Secondly, the Kazakh identity was weakened due to the russification policy, on the one hand, and a sudden exposure to the westernised world as the result of the end of the Cold War, on the other hand. Currently, there are two forces influencing the Kazakh identity: russification and westernisation. This makes the task of reviving and maintaining the Kazakh identity even more challenging. The languages policy which will be discussed later in this chapter on p. 141 aggravates the situation with the Kazakh identity revival.

In contrast, the majority of the senior management team argued that there was no conflict between national citizenship education and cosmopolitanism. It could be explained by their position and an ability to see a broader picture of curriculum internationalisation in terms of global citizenship education. According to them, cosmopolitanism was an integral part of the Kazakh national identity as was discussed in *Chapter 4 (p. 110)*. Thus, when educating dedicated Kazakhstani citizens, it is assumed that they will be global citizens as well. This means that the school in Kazakhstan is claimed to celebrate the union of global citizenship and national citizenship education which is also reflected in the school documents and policies. Teachers and parents also noticed that there were no instances of intolerance and nationalism in the school under study, though they did not refer to it as an integral feature of the Kazakh national identity. "I think that our kids have adapted to this [global citizenship], they don't even tell the difference between our culture and European culture... if our kid walks in the streets of London, he won't stand out and he'll feel comfortable", claimed Alyona, Biology teacher. However, some of the students claimed that the staff and students of the school can be intolerant and can discriminate other people by gender or sexual orientation. For instance, student 19 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) said, "we have a lot of racism, nationalism in our schools. Some teachers don't understand, they can call an Afro-American a Negro which is offensive. At first, students and teachers must get used to and be internationalised, be tolerant. For example, if any homosexual comes to our school, boys will avoid that guy". As we can see, there are still some issues of intolerance and discrimination in the school of Kazakhstan that need to be addressed.

The conflict of opinions can be explained by the policy of the government of Kazakhstan directed at increasing economic competitiveness of Kazakhstan and reviving the Kazakh national identity which is reflected in the annual addresses of the President of Kazakhstan. “By 2050 we want to have created a society based on a strong state, a developed economy with universal labour opportunities. A strong state is especially important to ensure accelerated economic growth. This is not about survival, it is about planning, long-term development and economic growth” (Nazarbayev, 2014). This quotation from the address of the President of Kazakhstan illustrates the desire to build both a nationally strong and internationally competitive state. That is the aim the school is striving to achieve through educating internationally competitive patriots. This aim might have influenced the perception of curriculum internationalisation in a Kazakhstani secondary school. As it was presented and discussed in the previous chapters, curriculum internationalisation was perceived in two ways: as education of a global citizen and an internationally competitive patriot.

### **7.1.2 The national language revival**

Languages play an important role in the process of national identity formation (Byram, 2006; Parmenter, 2006; Alred, Byram & Fleming, 2003), especially in the multilingual context (Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004). Moreover, language is considered “the symbol of state” (p. 110) as the common language is the characteristic feature of a nation-state (Byram, 2006). A nation needs to have a common language to communicate and because there is a belief that no nation can exist without the common language (Kuzhabekova, 2000). Therefore, it is no wonder that the interviewees emphasised the role of learning the Kazakh language. The following are the quotations from the interviews that support this idea.

Ruslana

“We stage many things [theatrical productions] in Kazakh intentionally. Why do we do that? Obviously, we set stage productions in Russian within the work of the subject departments but specifically in Kazakh [productions] are staged for our kids to know and learn our own mother tongue. Because when

studying three languages one may move our own mother tongue into the background”.

|  |  |
|--|--|
| Claire                                 | “The struggle is still happening to make sure that everybody you know speaks the Kazakh language and knows the Kazakh culture”.  |
| Zhanna                                 | “I think this trilingualism prevents us from speaking our own mother tongue a bit. Because the students speak Kazakh only at the Kazakh lessons, while everywhere else they speak Russian”.  |
| Zhangir                                | “I think the danger of the trilingualism is that Kazakh – 20 years have passed – but it hasn’t been prioritised yet. That’s why English takes the 1 <sup>st</sup> place, Russian retains the 2 <sup>nd</sup> place by inertia. And Kazakh is only on the 3 <sup>rd</sup> place”. |
| Parent of Grade 10 student             | “Now we can’t make her [daughter] speak Kazakh at home. She speaks Russian with her friends”.  |
| Student 26 (grade 12, 17-18 years old) | “I’ve had problems with Kazakh since Grade 7 when all of this [the integrated educational programme] was introduced. I mean gradually I started losing my Kazakh. I mean I understand but I can’t express my opinion”.   |

Interestingly, two divergent opinions emerged from the interviews with the students. On the one hand, the students believed in the importance of the national language. “Language is a part of our tradition [culture]. That’s why if we just eliminate it, introduce Russian-, we’ll go away from our culture, we’ll be closer to another, probably Russian [culture]”, student 1 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) stated. On the other hand, there was an idea of introducing one universal language for everyone. Having a common language can lead to intercultural



understanding among people of the whole world. “I still can’t say why all this culture is important, this mastery of language. Well yes, on the one hand, it’s clear that it’s important for the peoples, like we’re losing our own [identity] but if we all- I just imagine a situation when everyone, absolutely everyone speaks one language, it will be wonderful. Probably, people will understand each other better. There will be no language barriers”, argued another student 4 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old). Actually, there were only few students who supported the idea of the universal language.

It is clear that there is a persistent problem of reviving the Kazakh language. The uniqueness of the problem is revealed in the past of Kazakhstan as a member of the USSR and the desire of the government to enter a pool of the developed countries. This means that there is a pressure from the Russian and English languages. As Tom, a staff member, explained, “for Kazakhstan I think it’s a little bit more unique in a sense because you have- you have three different types of angles being pushed on the people. You have this Soviet past, a Kazakh identity and now the English international mind”. Student 4 (grade 12, 17-18 years old) elaborated, “I spoke Kazakh when I was a child. But then somehow I switched to Russian... It seems there were stereotypes: if you speak Kazakh then you aren’t like a civilized man. I definitely felt it”. Another example of that influence can be found in the words of student 1 (grade 12, 17-18 years old): “I know Kazakh, I can speak it but in the family my dad and brother don’t know Kazakh well because my parents studied in Russia [Soviet Union]. And my dad served in Russia [Soviet Union]. They had everything in Russian”. Zarina, a staff member, added, “Then the majority of the children of our school are probably the children of the parents who believed since the Soviet Union that not knowing Russian would disadvantage them”. These quotes illustrate the inferior role of the Kazakh language both during the USSR reign and at present. This is partly due to russification policies which imposed the Russian language as lingua franca (Chankseliani & Hessel, 2016), partly to the expansion of the English language influence. It is prestigious to know Russian and English because it provides the school graduates with better opportunities in the international higher education and global labour market. In other words, the mastery of Russian and English gives the graduates a chance to have a better life through access to prestigious higher education institutions (Chankseliani,

2016). The latter is believed to help them find a well-paid job. Meanwhile, the Kazakh language is necessary only for those who wish to work in the civil service of Kazakhstan.

The reason of the problem with the Kazakh language lies in the context of the country. Kazakhstan was the only Soviet country where the titular nationality was a minority during the Soviet Union time (Yakavets, 2014; Beachain & Kevlihan, 2011; Matuszkiewics, 2010; Fierman, 1998). The Kazakh language was discriminated and the Russian language was promoted (Yakavets, 2014; Piattoeva, 2010; Fierman, 2005; Oommen, 1997) as I have mentioned earlier in this chapter. Russian was viewed as the language of prestige (Matuszkiewics, 2010) and it opened access to better education and career. As we can see, there is the same situation with the English language at present. As discussed in *Chapter 5 (p. 91)*, English is viewed as the language opening access to prestigious international universities. Thus, knowing English contributes to the increase of the graduates' competitiveness.

Although the role of Kazakh has started changing after Kazakhstan obtained its independence, the consequences of the Soviet Union's language policy are still felt as Russia is a very powerful neighbour and a close strategic partner of Kazakhstan. Therefore, the role of Russian is still influential in Kazakhstan (Beachain & Kevlihan, 2011; Fierman, 1998). As highlighted by the participants, all these factors make it challenging to revive and maintain the Kazakh language.

Ten years ago, the President of Kazakhstan launched a cultural project "The Unity of Three Languages" (Nazarbayev, 2007) which was mentioned in *Chapter 4 (p. 129)*. This project aims at developing Kazakh as the state language, Russian as the language of international communication and English as the language of integration in the global economy (Nazarbayev, 2007). Indeed, the participants referred to that policy many times. However, some students in the interviews complained about mixing up the three languages. "It feels like the only aim is to learn English. Nevertheless, we've been studying this very English for so many years, and still after 9 years we can't speak it well", said one of the students of grade 12 (Student 18, 17-18 years old). Her classmate added (Student 6) "I get the languages mixed up... I can't translate from English into Kazakh, or, for example, I keep forgetting the words in

Russian, I speak English”. These quotations demonstrate the reversed hierarchy of the languages in comparison with the Trilingual policy. Although the Policy positions Kazakh on the 1<sup>st</sup> place, Russian on the 2<sup>nd</sup> and English on the 3<sup>rd</sup> place, in reality, Russian and English take the leading positions while Kazakh is marginalized. Another explanation can be that the students might find it challenging to learn three languages at the same time. Mary, staff member, explained this phenomenon, “I think cause you’re spreading yourself too thinly in all these languages that you’re not really an expert of any”.

Furthermore, some Kazakhstani scholars consider “The Unity of Three Languages” premature in the context of Kazakhstan because it is more important to focus on teaching and learning Kazakh at the moment (Zharkynbekova, Akynova & Aimoldina, 2013; Suleimenova, 2010). This idea is justified by the inferior role of Kazakh due to russification and westernisation as discussed above. Therefore, it is believed that the government of Kazakhstan needs to pay more attention to teaching and learning Kazakh instead of strengthening the position of Russian and introducing English through “The Unity of Three Languages”. According to the results of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (OECD 2013), 66% of Kazakh language 15-year-old students’ reading level is below level 2 comparing to 27% of Russian language 15-year-old-students. Kazakh cannot be called the first or strongest language in Kazakhstan (Mehisto, 2015).

Despite all the efforts made by the government to strengthen the position of the Kazakh language, Beachain & Kevlihan (2011) and Matuszkiewics (2010) claim that the language policy of promoting Kazakh as the national language is not supported officially and financially. They (ibid.) argue that the promotion of Kazakh remains on paper. This is believed to be one of the reasons why the majority of the Kazakh population cannot speak Kazakh yet. However, some participants disagreed with that. They argued that the Trilingual policy helped to strengthen the position of the Kazakh language. Laura, staff member, said, “but in comparison with other schools, we, for example, teach History in Kazakh. It makes me happy”. Student 30 (Grade 9, 14-15 years old) agreed, “at this school what is good is that teachers don’t make us speak Kazakh but help and encourage us. And learning the history of Kazakhstan and Geography in Kazakh helped a lot, too”. These quotations reveal a controversial attitude to the

Trilingual policy and its role in teaching and learning Kazakh. It can be inferred that the participants viewed the Trilingual policy as a positive force in improving the position of the Kazakh language.

However, another inference is that in the mainstream schools of Kazakhstan the situation with teaching and learning Kazakh is in the flailing state due to several reasons. Firstly, Kazakh is taught as a subject two hours a week. All the other subjects are taught in Russian or Kazakh according to the choice of the students. Secondly, teaching methods of Kazakh are still traditional which means teacher-centred approach, rote learning and memorizing. Thirdly, there is a lack of Kazakh textbooks and teaching materials of high quality. Zhassulan, a staff member, agreed, “obviously, there’s a lack of resources in Kazakh, not enough developed for the Trilingual policy. That’s why teachers themselves develop all of that [lesson materials]”. Therefore, the school is supposed to act as a role model in education as it adopts innovative teaching methods for Kazakh teaching and creates its own textbooks and teaching materials.

As for teaching and learning English, its importance is recognized but it adds another pressure on the development of the national identity and the national language revival (Grimshaw, 2015; Palmer & Cho, 2012; Cenoz, 2009). Mehisto (2015) argues that learning English at school can hinder the acquisition of Kazakh. This means that English can be viewed as “a force that damages the role and status of indigenous languages” (Grimshaw, 2015, p. 220; Fortuijn, 2002). Therefore, it is argued that an internationalised school needs to provide national content in order to maintain national identity of the students (Resnik, 2012). As we can see, the discourse in the Kazakhstani secondary school manages to neglect the issues of other national minorities living and studying in Kazakhstan. This issue will be discussed later.

On the other hand, multi- and bilingualism can also be used as a resource in the transition from the old colonial language to the national language during which both languages can be used simultaneously (Kuzhabekova, 2000). In addition, Fasold (1985) states that for a new-born independent state it is easier to acquire the old colonial language due to pragmatic reasons. However, he (ibid.) warns against the consequences of such a decision for national identity building. Additionally, the expansion of international schools is encouraged by neoliberal educational policies (Resnik, 2012). This means that learning in an international

school is most likely to develop graduate capacities and contribute to their competitiveness in the global arena (Cenoz, 2009) which was discussed in *Chapter 5 (p. 80)*. Furthermore, Grimshaw (2015) argues that English can be used against the Western hegemony through promoting the local national identity to the world with the help of English (Grimshaw, 2015). Thus, if the citizens of Kazakhstan knew English, they could tell the world about Kazakhstan. As the global communication is mostly conducted in English as well as the majority of research, it is recommended to spread the information about Kazakhstan in English. This can help introduce Kazakhstan to the global society.

Another issue is the focus of the current discourse on the Kazakh national identity without mentioning other nationalities living in Kazakhstan. Interestingly, none of the participants or school documents mentioned this issue. A brief insight into the national policy of the USSR which is the immediate historical past of Kazakhstan can help to understand it. The USSR consisted of several national territories with “varying degrees of autonomy” (Piattoeva, 2010, p.131). “No other state has gone so far in sponsoring, codifying, institutionalizing, even (in some cases) inventing nationhood and nationality at the sub-state level while at the same time doing nothing to institutionalize them at the level of the state as a whole” (Oommen, 1997, p.91). This means that nationalities and nationhood was actively promoted in the USSR. However, the USSR actively promoted the nation of the titular nationality at the expense of other minorities living on the territory of that nationhood. This means that there was a direct link between the nation and the state. So, we can see that even after the collapse of the Soviet Union, Kazakhstan pursued that line of organising the state.

As a result of the discrimination in the immediate historical past of Kazakhstan, despite the official language policy of the government there are some cases of hostility towards the Russian-speaking population. Assel, a staff member, said that sometimes teachers speak Kazakh in front of those teachers who do not speak Kazakh. This idea resonates with kazakhisation policy which will be discussed below. However, the interviewees of other nationalities in this research claimed that they did not feel any national origin discrimination. “[S]ince childhood there was no difference between Russian and Kazakh cultures for me”, Konstantin, a Russian-speaking staff member, claimed.

Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that the majority of the staff and students are Kazakhs. When I asked for the reason of this, the participants including senior management team members could not answer. They might have never thought or researched that issue. Another possible reason can be that Kazakh population comprises 60% of the total population of Kazakhstan. Finally, it can be explained by the fact that some subjects (History and Geography) in the school are taught only in Kazakh. Many Russian-speaking students found it hard to learn a subject in Kazakh only.

The policy of promoting the Kazakh national identity and language is often called kazakhisation. Kazakhisation means the development of the Kazakh national identity including the promotion of the Kazakh language in onomastics, state symbols, textbooks, education and civil service (Beachain & Kevlihan, 2011; Matuszkiewics, 2010; Karin & Chebotarev, 2002). One of the principles of kazakhisation is “the desire to build Kazakh national state and the desire to build an international, multinational state” (Karin & Chebotarev, 2002, p.1). Karin & Chebotarev (2002) argue that kazakhisation promotes the dominance of Kazakhs and violates the rights of other ethnic and national minorities in Kazakhstan. “National identities are always in practice biased in favour of the dominant cultural group, the group that historically has dominated the politics of the state” (Miller, 2000, p.34). This was clearly demonstrated in the above-mentioned Trilingual policy of the school and in the responses of the participants. For instance, Samal, a staff member, said, “we’re trying to mention Kazakhstani names in grades 6-7 [when teaching Biology] because there’s very little material [on Kazakhstani scientists and their contribution]. We need to know our own culture, not only the Western one”. The interviews and documents only referred to Kazakh and Kazakhstani when talking about national identity and national language revival.

## **7.2 Challenges in teaching and learning innovation**

Changing the teaching and learning approach was named as one of the main aspects of curriculum internationalisation as discussed in *Chapter 5 (p. 95)*. Schools play a critical role in democratic citizenship learning (Evans, 2008) and in promoting cultural unity (Pearce, 2015). Hardly surprisingly, the stakeholders expressed their concern over the lack of professional readiness of the staff for

the internationalisation of the curriculum. The quotations given below demonstrate this concern.

Tom 'if we [international teachers] give [assessment] especially in English language- especially in Humanities department, if we give an assessment, it's very open-ended and it gives more freedom of thought and creativity. It's not something that is generally associated with the Russian and Kazakh courses. Usually it's more root memory where students had memorised facts and not just being able to provide on a piece of paper the multiple-choice questions - something of that nature'.

---

Marc 'Local teachers is more "stand-and-deliver". I stand and deliver and you are the individual who just take the information and use it in whatever they want as long as they give you information. So, it's you don't extract information from kids by questioning, you just provide them with the information'.

---

Samal 'Why I chose those topics [critical thinking, dialogic learning, team work] because when I observed lessons, I saw what problems [teachers] had. I mean I see that a teacher doesn't implement this [method], he doesn't have critical thinking, just a traditional approach'.

---

Student 28 (Grade 12, 17-18 years old) 'Our Kazakhstani teachers still have something Soviet: sometimes they give us just a lecture or just give us a textbook. While international teachers can present a very difficult topic in a form of a game, or in a form of a play, or can show an educational video, and we'll understand that difficult topic'.

These quotations demonstrate that there is a problem with switching from a traditional/conventional/teacher-centred approach to an innovative/Western/student-centred approach. It was perceived that this problem is due to the teachers' and students' low level of English or/and Kazakh. Tamerlan, a staff member, stated, "First of all, there's a lack of teachers who can teach Physics, Maths [in English] in higher grades. The same is with the Kazakh language – it's hard to find a competent teacher in Kazakh". In Kazakhstan the changes in pedagogy are mostly influenced by the Western ideas on pedagogy as all the resources are in the English language because the curriculum is reformed and internationalised with the help of the international experts from the United Kingdom and the USA, as indicated in *Chapter 5 (p. 95)*. Therefore, the school teachers are sent mostly to those countries for in-service training, as stated by the participants and in the school policies. Moreover, international teachers at school are supposed to help local teachers to improve their teaching methods. However, the lack of language skills prevents local and international teachers from a productive collaboration and cooperation, as both international and local teachers had to admit. In addition, the school prepares its students to enter international universities which require the mastery of English. Thus, the teachers have to access materials and resources in English to train students for the international assessment. As the consequence, the students may suffer from an insufficient level of English of their teachers because it can result in their incompetency to teach the subject in English. This could lead to the failure in preparing the students to enter an international university. This issue is demonstrated in the following quotations.

Zhassulan 'I mean learning English is obligatory to study international literature on pedagogy'.

---

Marzhan 'Especially that when training [students] for Cambridge exam, I'll have to translate into English anyway. At that moment, I really need the language [proficiency]'.

---

Marc 'They [students] might be smarter 10 times than international, like American students or Japanese students but when they go in there and they open the book



and they start seeing higher vocabulary. Especially the style the books are written that can make them face serious difficulties. And that will be- that will put them back’.

---

|         |    |   |
|---------|----|---|
| Student | 19 | ‘And in English we study only basics and stick to them. (grade 12, 17-18 years old) We don’t learn anything from advanced [level], we don’t know more academic words. It’s clear when we’re preparing for SAT or IELTS, for example’. |
|---------|----|---|

Zhassulan, a staff member, elaborated, “If we take statistics of the number of the teachers who know 3 languages is very limited at our school... we counted last time – we found only 15 people in our school. Remember, there’re 170 people with assistants [at school], right? Excluding form tutors... And the attitude in the last 5 years hasn’t changed: aged, experienced teachers don’t want to study, for example, that very English”. He explained that reluctance by the lack of motivation and external incentives for learning and teaching in English.

Another reason of this problem named by the participants was the structural issues. For example, the participants named lack of time. The school under this study works from eight o’clock in the morning till five o’clock in the afternoon six days a week which leaves no time for professional development. Kamila, a staff member, complained, “the problem is that there isn’t enough time; the problem is that there’re many different innovations, many reports because of them. Obviously, we’re an experimental school, and everybody wants to get feedback. And how can we give that feedback? It’s only through reports that poor teachers write, and write, and write. So here it is: lack of time, no time either for a family, or a personal life. We just manage to write, write, write”. Even students noticed that. “Well, I’ve noticed that our teachers have to do a lot of paperwork all the time. So instead of teaching us, helping us, somebody always gives them some tasks to do: they need to fill in the register book, something else... and I think they don’t have enough time. And they’re stressed about that”, student 23 (grade 12, 17-18 years old) observed. On top of that, the school staff works during the school holidays. Consequently, teachers do not have time to rest

properly which leads to their professional fatigue. This means that the teachers do not have enough time to master innovative teaching approaches which is identified as one of the main aspects of curriculum internationalisation in *Chapter 5 (p. 95)*.

Although teachers play a central role in education (Nilsson, 2000), there is not much research on the teaching work in international education (Sanderson, 2011). The existing research on teaching and learning in international education has discovered the same issues. "Lack of time, tight budgets and heavy workloads were the other key constraints to teaching practice", Ryan & Hellmundt (2003) say. The lecturers in their research (ibid.) also complained against the lack of time to thoroughly prepare for the lessons. This issue was mentioned by the participants of this research as well. Myers (2010) also discovered that the lack of qualified teachers was an obstacle for education internationalisation. Evans (2008) calls for a more sophisticated conceptual understanding of pedagogy for international education. Internationalisation of curriculum requires reinterpretation of pedagogy which is supported by the rapid development of ICT. This means that teachers are supposed to develop new skills, attitudes and knowledge in order to keep pace with the innovations in education connected with internationalisation (Rizvi, 2000; Teekens, 2000). This means that a qualified teacher for an international classroom is supposed to follow good academic standards, to know the language of instruction, to be interculturally aware and to use ICT in the classroom appropriately. Furthermore, research supports such teaching methods as problem-based learning, project-based learning, collaborative learning and shared problem solving (Joiner, Littleton, Faulkner & Miell, 2000). Therefore, professional development of teachers which includes seminars on intercultural issues is significant in curriculum internationalisation (Maringe, 2010; Nilsson, 2000). However, when planning and organizing such seminars it is important to remember how challenging it will be for teachers to find time for it. As it was mentioned above, lack of time was one of the issues for the teachers.

However, the school under consideration while providing many in-service training programmes to improve the pedagogy of the staff does not organize any intercultural seminars. One of the staff members stated that the majority of the international teachers had quit their jobs at the school due to intercultural

challenges as they could not adapt to the school culture. Zhan, a staff member elaborates, “international staff are excluded from many aspects of the school: teacher professional development, internal communication in Russian and Kazakh, the [indistinct] which are intranslatable, student management, assessment, reporting, contacts with parents, involvement in [managing company]’s initiatives such as curriculum training, review and development - are all geared - one might say rightly so - to the national staff”. This view is supported by international teachers who agreed that the school did not take sufficient steps to help the international teachers understand the culture of the country and the school. Therefore, it is obvious that the school needs to work in the direction of providing intercultural and international seminars to both the staff and students taking into consideration structural issues.

### **7.3 Cultural diversity in the staff and student body**

Cultural diversity in the staff and student body was named as an integral aspect of curriculum internationalisation as was presented and discussed in *Chapter 4* (p. 126) and *Chapter 5* (p. 93). Interestingly, although chapters 4 and 5 presented two definitions of curriculum internationalisation: as global citizenship education and competitive graduate education, they both included cultural diversity. This shows that the diversity plays an important role in curriculum internationalisation of the school under study. It is argued that international mindedness development depends on the exposure to diverse cultures both in the staff and student body (Fryer, 2009). However, there are challenges of diversifying the staff and the student body as well as changing the scope of the school from national to international. The following quotations illustrate the concern of the participants.

- Zhan                    ‘Of course the international team is only a small aspect of the school under any circumstances but it wouldn’t help the school’s avoidance of becoming a monoculture not to have them’.
- ‘You know, the quality of the staff coming has been incredibly varied as well. Perhaps, because of the difficulties to recruit

to Kazakhstan. It's not automatically a place where teachers would think to come to. And that seems to continue'.

---

Lyazzat 'With time, according to the school development strategy, gradually, we – Kazakhstani teachers who studied abroad, who taught in a team with international teachers – will replace them [international teachers]. Therefore, we need to learn from their experience. But what situation can happen? I think that total elimination of international teachers isn't worthwhile as they bring along their culture'.

---

Student 23 (grade 12, 17-18 years old) 'The reason I envy them [students at international schools] is that they have foreigners in the classrooms. And they interact with them, their classmates, with each other. And we don't have such an opportunity. I'd like to have more foreign students and foreign teachers'.

As we can see from these quotes, the participants embrace the importance of international staff and student for the school curriculum internationalisation. This view is supported by research on education internationalisation and international education (Rizvi, 2000). Academic staff from diverse cultural backgrounds can enhance education internationalisation (Leask, 2004) by bringing an intercultural component into the curriculum (Otten, 2000). In addition, De Wit (2011) argues that having students of different nationalities and cultures is significant for global citizenship education. The role of international staff and students was discussed in detail in *Chapters 4 and 5*. However, it was admitted that it was challenging to diversify the staff and student body of the school in Kazakhstan.

In case of Kazakhstan diversity is viewed as the way to create an English-speaking environment. Parents prefer their children to be taught by native speakers but Davies (2003) concludes that a native speaker is a myth. The ownership of the English language is changing. "Native-speakerism creates 'a negatively reduced image of the foreign Other': one who is seen to lack certain desirable characteristics in relation to the dominant discourse of the Anglophone

Western language teaching profession” (Grimshaw, 2015, p.225). This view on cultural diversity represents neoliberal image of curriculum internationalisation of the school in Kazakhstan which was discussed in *Chapter 5 (p. 93)* Therefore, it is not necessary to hire international staff only to improve the level of English of the local teachers and students as was discussed in *Chapter 5 (p. 93)*. On the contrary, the main aim of the cultural diversity is to help students and learners appreciate diversity and to learn its value (Parker, 2011) as was indicated in *Chapter 4 (p. 126)*. This links back to the necessity of organising seminars on intercultural issues for the staff and students which was mentioned in the previous section. It shows the importance of teaching and learning improvement in order to educate both global citizens and competitive patriots. Although it was generally accepted that the school needed international staff and students, some teachers and students disagreed with that opinion. In their opinion, the school could employ Kazakhstani teachers with international experience to replace the international teachers. “I think that it’s better to replace them [international staff] after grades 8-9 and just improve our [local] teachers’ level of English so that they could explain some terms which the kids don’t understand”, declared student 19 (grade 12, 17-18 years old). The same idea emerged in *Chapters 4 and 5*. However, the elimination of the international teachers and students can lead to the dominance of the Kazakh monoculture in the school which will negatively influence global citizenship education. As it was argued in *Chapters 4 and 5*, cultural diversity at school (and outside) makes a great difference in developing intercultural competence of the staff and students. The diversity helps to raise intercultural awareness, learn about Others and break stereotypes about other cultures and countries as was discussed in *Chapter 4 (p. 126)* and *Chapter 5 (p. 93)*

In connection with cultural diversity, team teaching was mentioned as a possible solution for diversifying the culture of the school and innovating teaching and learning. These days team-teaching of a local and an international teacher is viewed from a different perspective. Local teachers are regarded as academic equals of the international staff (Leask, 2004). In the school under the study, local and international teachers collaborate when producing teaching materials and lesson plans, delivering the material and conducting the classroom and assessing the students. Such team teaching can be the way to solve the

problem of the shortage of the international staff in a Kazakhstani school. However, this collaboration is hindered by local teachers' low level of English as was discussed in *Challenges in teaching and learning innovation* (p. 148). Another solution for diversifying the culture of the school and innovating the teaching approach can be found in hiring local teachers who have international experience as was mentioned above and discussed in Chapter 4 (p. 126).

## **Conclusion**

This chapter presented and discussed the perceived challenges of curriculum internationalisation of the school under this study. Firstly, the pressure to develop the Kazakh national identity and global citizen was named as the main problem. Due to historical, economic and political reasons, Kazakhstan has a difficult task in both reviving the national identity and developing global citizenship among the school graduates. This issue is supported by relevant literature. For instance, Piattoeva (2010) argues that education plays an important role in national citizenship education including the national language spreading. However, due to cultural and economic globalisation a state seems to lose control over economic activities within its own borders and the "cultural make-up of its citizens" (Miller, 2000, p.2). Thus, nation-states are often heterogeneous and have to deal with the complexities of the multiple identities (Miller, 2000). Identity is fluid and changing and young people can have several layers of identities (Reid, Gill & Sears, 2010; Miller, 2000).

National or cultural identity is viewed as an external enemy of the international learning (Haywood, 2015). Moreover, nationality is claimed to hinder progress and development of the society (Miller, 2000). Therefore, it is necessary to accept national loyalties as well as certain responsibilities to the global humankind (Reid, Gill & Sears, 2010; Parker, 2010; Miller, 2000). This is the aim the school is striving to achieve in curriculum internationalisation. The study revealed that internationalisation was defined as global citizenship education and competitive graduate education as discussed in Chapters 4 and 5. These ideas will be revisited below.

Clearly, the participants emphasised the importance of developing the Kazakh national identity which leads to the issue of minorities. It is argued that minorities should be allowed to obtain a new national identity without having to quit their

existing ones. The government should not force the minorities into a dominant culture and should not discriminate them (Miller, 2000). This viewpoint reflects the liberal view of a nation-state as a multinational state where there is no dominant nation. However, in practice the government of Kazakhstan actively promotes the dominant culture of Kazakhs through education.

As a part of the national identity development the participants highlighted the importance of reviving the Kazakh language. The majority of the participants expressed their concern over the loss of the national language because of the Trilingual Policy. Curiously, only ten teachers and three parents chose to speak Kazakh and no students chose Kazakh during the interviews. Even the students from the grades with Kazakh as L1 preferred to speak Russian instead of Kazakh. They explained that it was easier to express their ideas in Russian rather than in Kazakh. One local teacher started from Russian and then switched to English halfway the interview. Another local teacher started speaking Russian and then switched to Kazakh. As we can see, the influence of Russian and English on the Kazakh language is quite powerful. The Trilingual policy has a great impact on curriculum internationalisation but it raised a controversy of opinions concerning the influence on the Kazakh language. Some participants believed that it hinders the progress of the Kazakh language learning, while others argued that it strengthened the position of Kazakh through teaching some subjects in Kazakh only.

Secondly, the school staff faced challenges when trying to innovate their teaching approach. Some teachers and students stated that some teachers still lack the appropriate skills, attitude and knowledge required for curriculum internationalisation. The reasons for that were structural issues such as lack of time, overload and a low level of English, in the view of the participants. Therefore, in-service teacher training was suggested as the best way to solve that problem. It is inferred that there is a need to organize seminars on intercultural issues for both the staff and students.

Last but not least, the cultural diversity of the staff and student body seemed challenging. It is common knowledge that Kazakhstan is not the first choice for qualified international teachers to come to live and work. Economically, Kazakhstan has a lower living standard as well as harsh weather conditions. Additionally, the majority of the population does not speak English which makes

the life of international people harder. Moreover, as the school is financed by the Kazakhstani government, it remains national in scope and activity. This means that the school cannot accept citizens of other countries as its students. Nevertheless, the participants suggested that in the future the school would not need international staff because the number of Kazakhstani citizens who had studied abroad increased every year. Consequently, those teachers may substitute the international staff in the future. Although international staff and students are not the only aspect of curriculum internationalisation as discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, the absence of them is likely to lead to monoculture in the school. This could undermine the aims of curriculum internationalisation as it seems hard for the staff and students to become interculturally aware and competent if they are not exposed to cultural diversity.

To conclude, curriculum internationalisation in Kazakhstan involves several issues among which the juxtaposition of the nationalism and cosmopolitanism, the innovation of the teaching and learning approaches and the cultural diversity were perceived as the major ones. The first challenge seems to be the most prominent one due to the nature of curriculum internationalisation and the colonial history of Kazakhstan. The teachers and students reported that they sometimes found it challenging to change their way of teaching and learning in accordance with the pedagogy of curriculum internationalisation. International teachers complained the school did not provide sufficient intercultural support. Last but not least, according to the participants, it was difficult to diversify the staff and student body of a Kazakhstani school. Linking back to the previous issues, this could be explained by the lack of intercultural support of international teachers by the school and the economic state of Kazakhstan. Surprisingly, the student body and the staff was mostly composed of Kazakhs despite the participants' and documents' claim that Kazakhstan is a multinational country. The participants could not explain that fact. Admittedly, education in Kazakhstan has recently started being internationalised. Therefore, the school stakeholders find it challenging. Thus, more research in this field is required.



## **Discussion and conclusion**

### **8.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this research was to explore the school stakeholders' perceptions of curriculum internationalisation of a state secondary school in Kazakhstan. It was supplemented by thematic analysis of school documents and policies.

In order to achieve the aim of the research, the following research questions were answered in this case study:

1. How is secondary school curriculum internationalisation perceived by the school stakeholders (senior management team members, teachers, students and parents) and conceptualised in the school documents and policies?
2. What are the perceived challenges of curriculum internationalisation?

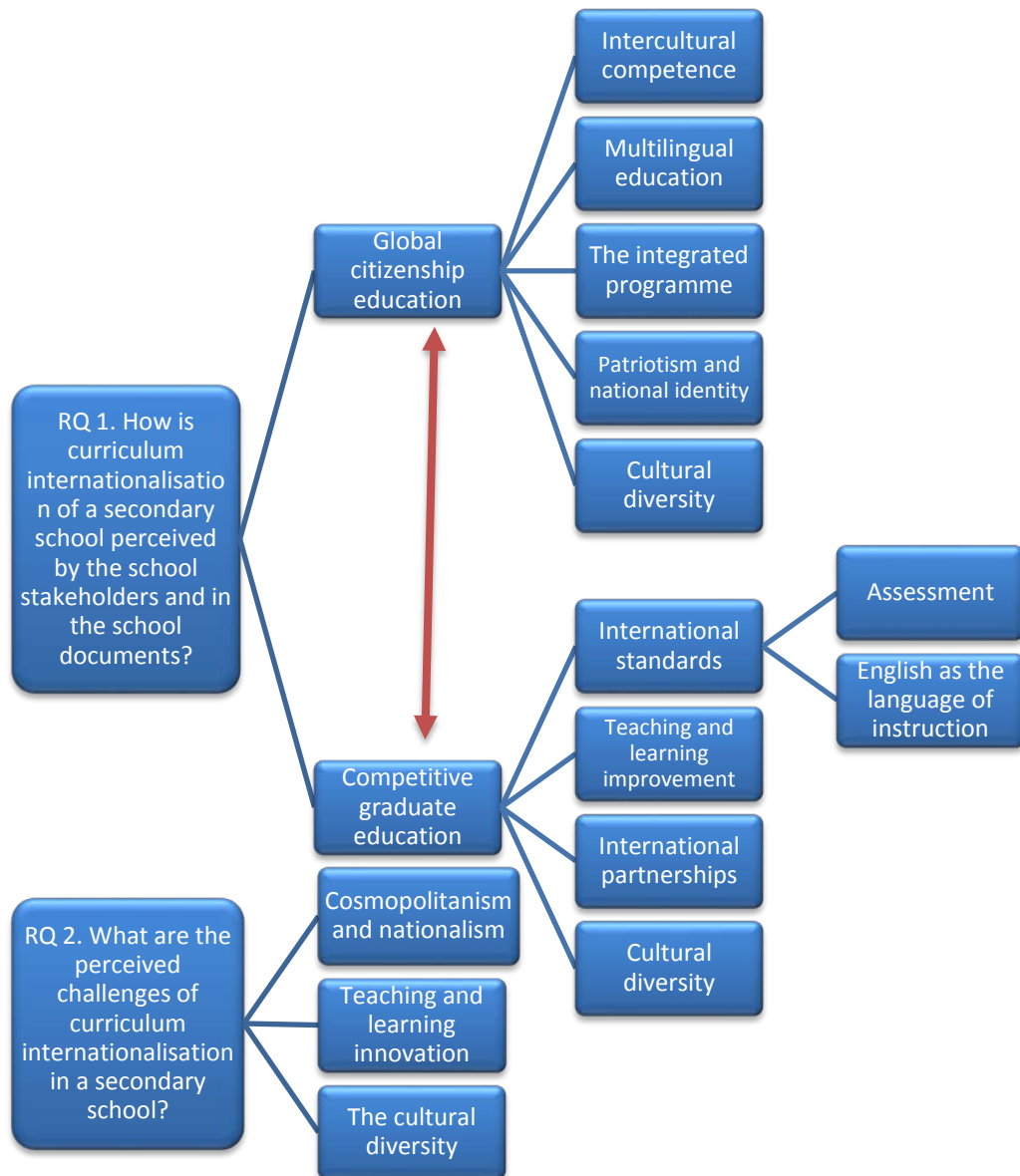
The research was conducted within a secondary school in Kazakhstan with the sample of senior management team members, teachers, students and parents as main school stakeholders and school documents and policies.

This chapter summarises the main findings in relation to the research questions and the literature in the field of curriculum internationalisation. Furthermore, this chapter will focus on the contribution of this research theoretically and methodologically as well as the limitations of the study. The chapter will conclude with recommendations for the future research.

### **8.2 Contribution to knowledge**

The research yielded that curriculum internationalisation was perceived as an educational process aimed at educating global citizens and competitive graduates. The research also revealed strategies or aspects of curriculum internationalisation as perceived by the school stakeholders and identified in the school documents which were discussed in Chapters 4 and 5. Obviously, curriculum internationalisation involved modernisation and innovation of the school curriculum. Therefore, it raised some challenges which were discussed in Chapter 6. Figure 11 demonstrates a brief overview of the findings in relation to the research questions.

Figure 9 The research findings



As it can be seen from Figure 11, the research discovered two views on curriculum internationalisation: global citizenship education and competitive graduate education. Although, they seem conflicting, it is necessary to remember that in the view of the participants and school documents, these views are interlinked and supplement each other. These views on curriculum internationalisation include several aspects or strategies that can help reinforce curriculum internationalisation. As for the perceived challenges of curriculum internationalisation, the research discovered the tension between cosmopolitanism and nationalism, challenges with innovating teaching methods and difficulty in achieving cultural diversity of the staff and student body in the

secondary school of Kazakhstan. These findings will be summarised below according to the research questions.

### **8.2.1 Research question 1**

#### **How is the curriculum internationalisation in a secondary school perceived by the school stakeholders and conceptualized in the school documents and policies?**

In an attempt to answer the main research question, I discovered a bilateral, or two-faced definition of curriculum internationalisation. On the one hand, it was defined as the process of educating a global citizen who is interculturally competent and devoted both to their own country and to the world. On the other hand, curriculum internationalisation was viewed as the process of educating a globally competitive graduate who can successfully perform both at the global labour market and international higher education. It is necessary to note that these definitions are not binary or conflicting. On the contrary, they are convergent and complement each other. In other words, despite of seemingly different approaches and mechanisms to internationalisation when pursuing global citizenship and economic and academic competitiveness, in the end they have the common aim to help students integrate into the global society smoothly academically, professionally and socially.

As evident from Figure 11, the research demonstrates that curriculum internationalisation is defined in terms of its outcomes: the global citizen and the competitive graduate. This is the first study, to my knowledge, to examine curriculum internationalisation of a secondary school. Interestingly, the findings of this research concur with the studies on internationalisation of higher education (Leask, 2015; Orloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Knight, 2003). Firstly, curriculum internationalisation is mostly defined as a process (Leask, 2015). Secondly, curriculum internationalisation is viewed as the way to bring the educational system of Kazakhstan to the international level and enhance the economic competitiveness of the country (Leask, 2015; Henze, 2014; Yemini, 2014; Knight, 2010; Bobrov, 2009) which is justified by the neoliberal policies in education (Nevradakis, 2014) which is discussed in *Chapter 1 (p. 33)* and *Chapter 5 (p. 80)*. Neoliberalism is criticised for legitimising the hegemony of the ruling class and those who have more control and power (Felluga, 2015; Wylie, 2011; Bottery, 2006; Walker, 2000) which is expressed in curriculum

internationalisation in a form of westernisation (Mok, 2007; Zeleza, 2012; Soudien, 2005). As for global citizenship education which is often associated with curriculum internationalisation, it is believed to educate interculturally competent students who have a feeling of belonging to both local and global communities. Global citizenship in the context of curriculum internationalisation is discussed in *Chapter 1 (p. 20) and Chapter 4 (p. 110)*. However, being in concord with the concepts of curriculum internationalisation, this research is original as it is conducted in a non-Western country to shed light on this concept from a different perspective.

The global citizenship as the main perceived outcome of curriculum internationalisation was defined both by the school stakeholders and scholars as an empathetic, tolerant and active citizen of one's own nation-state and the global society, who is willing and able to accept and understand cultural differences and to solve conflicts non-violently (Yemini, Bar-Nissan & Shavit, 2014; Andreotti, 2011a,b; Beck & Sznaider, 2006; James, 2005). It is argued that the main aim of education internationalisation is to improve the quality of education which includes the preparation of the students to live and work in the intercultural and international society (de Wit, 2011; Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011).

Consequently, global citizenship education was considered as an integral aspect of curriculum internationalisation. The school stakeholders and the documents viewed intercultural competence, cosmopolitanism and, surprisingly, patriotism as the integral aspects of global citizenship. Interestingly, the participants, especially the adults, often referred to Soviet internationalism when defining internationalisation. Soviet internationalism presupposed friendship and equality between people of different nationalities and genders (Korniyenko, 2011; Pain, 2011; Mukazhanova, 2009; Gerassimova, 2007). As it was discussed in *Chapter 1 (p. 32)*, during the Soviet Union time there was a great emphasis on nationalities while race and ethnicity was out of discourse (Ualiyeva & Edgar, 2011). I observed this nationality-driven nature of global citizenship in the interviews with the research participants and school documents. Thus, the culture was closely associated with the nationality. Therefore, in the context of Kazakhstan, it can be implied that nationalities play a bigger role in interculturality than ethnicities and races.

The research discovered the perceived strategies or aspects of curriculum internationalisation. They included the integrated educational programme, languages learning, patriotism and national citizenship education, cultural diversity of the school staff and students and intercultural competence. The latter was viewed as the paramount aspect of global citizenship. Judging by the interviews and the school documents, the model of intercultural competence suggested by Byram (1997) was adopted. Byram's model consists of knowledge, skills, attitudes and critical cultural awareness. Those elements were viewed by the participants as the foundation of global citizenship which could be developed through the content-focused character of an internationalised curriculum (Aguilar & Nogueira, 2012; DiYanni, 2007; Rizvi, 2015). The content-focused approach presupposes teaching world literature, world history and cultural geography, studies abroad, educational exchange, teaching languages and cultures other than one's own. Those aspects were reflected in the integrated educational programme of the school. However, the research distinguished languages learning and cultural diversity as particular aspects that required special attention because they were believed to play a prominent role in global citizenship education. Deardorff (2016) admits that languages fluency play an important role in the development of intercultural competence but it is not enough.

It is important to mention that languages learning mean learning both foreign languages and the mother tongue. This is highly relevant in the context of Kazakhstan because the country has gone through russification policy when it was a member of the USSR. As a result, the Kazakh language and culture were almost lost. Therefore, the research discovered the most surprising aspect of curriculum internationalisation: patriotism and national citizenship education. Although, patriotism is often viewed as a counterweight to cosmopolitanism (White, 1996), the participants stated that the devotion to the global community started with the loyalty to one's own country. Patriotism development is believed to lead to active citizenship which means meaningful engagement with the communities, both local and global (Alred, Byram & Fleming, 2006; Martin & Feng, 2006). Only a combination of the above-mentioned strategies can foster curriculum internationalisation and contribute to the development of the global citizen. Apart from patriotism, all of them are broadly consistent with other

research on education internationalisation and global citizenship education (Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Costa Afonso, 2011; Byram, 2011; Carder, 2007; Byram, 2006; Parmenter, 2006; Witte, 2006; Hayden, Thompson & Williams, 2003; McKillop-Ostrom, 2000; Al Farra, 2000; Byram, 1997; Hayden & Wong, 1997; Hayden & Thompson, 1995). However, cultural diversity which is named as one of the mechanisms of curriculum internationalisation is perceived differently in the context of Kazakhstani secondary education. Although, the participants acknowledged the importance of cultural diversity, they elaborated that the cultural diversity did not depend on the English-speaking people only. Here cultural diversity means a mixture of different nationalities even if they speak the same language. For example, a mixture of people from Central Asia: they do not speak English but the majority of them can speak Russian. Nevertheless, they still bring diversity of cultures.

Overall, global citizenship is believed to be one of the aims of curriculum internationalisation. However, it goes along with the concept of competitiveness due to globalisation and the aspiration of Kazakhstan to become a developed country.

Educating a competitive graduate was another perceived aim of curriculum internationalisation. "The double role of internationalization in furthering both cooperation and competition among countries is a new reality of our more globalized world" (Knight, 2010, p. 216). Internationalisation is becoming more influenced by the global knowledge economy which leads to a more competitive approach rather than cooperative (Teichler, 2004). As Kazakhstan is a developing country, it is important for the government to enhance economic competitiveness of the country on the international scale. It is known that one of the main forces of development is education. Integrating international perspectives can enhance graduates' prospects in the international labour market (Rizvi, 2015; Leggott & Stapleford, 2007). This idea is dictated by the dominant political ideology in the UK and the USA at the moment – neoliberalism (Giroux, as cited in Nevradakis, 2014; Giroux, 2005). Therefore, curriculum internationalisation is believed to help the country take a significant place among the developing countries in the international arena which is crucial for Kazakhstan.

The research discovered some strategies that can help achieve that aim. The compliance of the curriculum with international standards, the use of English as the language of instruction, cultural diversity of the staff and students, teaching and learning quality and international connections and partnerships were named as the strategies to educate a competitive graduate. Interestingly, the use of English as the language of instruction, diversity of the staff and students and the establishment of international partnerships are among the nine misconceptions of internationalisation proposed by de Wit (2011). He (ibid.) states that using English as the language of instruction leads to the decrease in the significance of foreign languages learning and deterioration in the quality of education. The latter is justified by the fact that local teachers are forced to teach in English even if they do not know it well. As for the diversity in student body, there is a problem of integrating international and local students because students usually prefer the company of their compatriots (de Wit, 2011; Leask & Carroll, 2011). However, in this study, those aspects were identified as the strategies or techniques fostering internationalisation, not internationalisation itself. Nevertheless, these strategies or aspects are considered as important in the context of curriculum internationalisation in Kazakhstan. Although, it is challenging to implement those strategies due to a number of reasons. Firstly, the school is in non-English speaking environment. Secondly, Kazakhstan is not the first choice for the international staff and students to come to. Other challenges associated with curriculum internationalisation will be discussed later.

Furthermore, the above-mentioned strategies could identify internationalisation as westernisation. Apart from the obvious reference to English as the language of instruction, it can be explained by a number of facts discovered by the research. Firstly, the term 'international' was often used in the school discourse. Although there was no explicit definition of 'international' in either documents or interviews, there were numerous references to such countries as the USA, the UK and Finland. Furthermore, there was a call for establishing collaborations with "the recognised international organisations". Obviously, the most recognised and popularised educational organisations come from the Western countries including CIS (Council of International Schools) which was mentioned

several times in the discourse. Therefore, it can be implied that 'international' is synonymous to 'Western' or 'Anglophone'.

Then, unlike the cultural diversity in global citizenship education which advocated the presence of the representatives of different cultures regardless of their L1, the cultural diversity to help educate the competitive graduate referred explicitly to the staff and students with English as their L1. This could help create an English-speaking environment and bring a national school closer to an international which will increase the graduates' chances to enter international/Western universities.

Another important fact was that internationalisation in this case required the compliance of the curriculum with international standards which included improving teaching and learning (Henze, 2014; Krasnoshchyokov, 2014; Bobrov, 2009; Soderqvist, 2007; Mok, 2007). Here the quality of education was measured in terms of the Anglophone standards (Palmer & Cho; 2012). For example, the teachers of Kazakh and Russian were required to adopt the methodology of teaching English in order to teach Kazakh and Russian, Science subjects were required to be taught in English, the staff were sent to the Western Europe and the USA for the professional development. Furthermore, the school requires teaching such skills and competencies as critical thinking, self-determination and autonomy which are considered as characteristic of Western or Anglo-Saxon pedagogy (Holliday, 2016).

Consequently, curriculum internationalisation could be perceived as westernisation. This means that curriculum internationalisation is most likely to promote the values and competencies of the Western world or the English speaking developed countries, to be exact. Thus, curriculum internationalisation might enhance the hegemony of the Western or Anglophone perspectives on education (Leask, 2015; Mok, 2007; Palmer & Cho, 2012; Zeleza, 2012; Soudien, 2005). This is obvious due to the tendency of the students from poorer countries to enter universities in the richer countries (Killick, 2015; Leask, 2015). Therefore, curriculum internationalisation is likely to contribute to the hegemony of the USA and Western European universities (Killick, 2015; Leask, 2015). However, despite the negative view on the West imposing its worldviews (Dervin, 2016; Maringe, 2010; Al Farra, 2000), westernisation is viewed as a positive process in education of Kazakhstan by the school stakeholders. The



school stakeholders perceived it as the way to educate competitive school graduates in order to facilitate the economic prosperity of Kazakhstan.

Having identified the definition of curriculum internationalisation in the context of secondary education of Kazakhstan, the study discovered the perceived challenges associated with the implementation of curriculum internationalisation. These challenges and issues will be discussed below.

### **8.2.2 Research question 2**

#### **What are the perceived challenges of curriculum internationalisation in a secondary school?**

In order to answer the second research question, I applied a thematic analysis of the interviews with the school stakeholders. The results of this analysis are illustrated in the figure below.

The tension between a global citizen and national identity was identified as the main issue of curriculum internationalisation. Global citizenship presupposes commitment of people to the global community which means putting the interests of the world over the interests of one's own country and nationality. In contrast, national identity presupposes patriotism and commitment to one's own country and national community. The intercultural competence which is a core element of global citizenship is defined predominantly from Western perspectives (Deardorff, 2016). However, despite the common view on westernisation as colonisation by the West of the rest of the world (Dervin, 2016), it should be taken into consideration that different forms of colonisation and peoples' movement have always occurred throughout the history. It is not possible to say that the current national identity of Kazakhstani citizens has not changed since the establishment of the Kazakh khanate or Kazakh Empire. Angouri (2016) compares identity with culture stating that the term 'identity' covers a range of complex notions just like culture. "People move between places, social roles, life stages, genders, abilities, social classes and even cultures" (Gillespie, Howarth & Cornish, 2012, p. 394) which leads to the creation of different layers of an identity. The identity is fluid and changes under various circumstances. Moreover, due the current interconnectedness of the world, it is hard to define what 'Western' actually means (Sen, 2007) as it was stated in *Chapter 1* (p. 13). Another challenge in defining 'Western' is the non-essentialist view on culture where culture is seen as fluid and socially

constructed (Holliday, 2016; Crane, 1994). This also means that culture is politically and ideologically laden (King, 1991).

This tension is especially significant for Kazakhstan as it is struggling to revive its Kazakhstani identity weakened by the Soviet past and the current neo-liberal view on internationalisation (Yakavets, 2014; Piattoeva, 2010; Reid, Gill & Sears, 2010; Fierman, 2005; Oommen, 1997). This is vivid in the languages policy of the school: all the students and teachers are required to know three languages: Kazakh, Russian and English. The national language plays an important role in national identity formation (Angouri, 2016). Therefore, it is no wonder that the research revealed the significance of reviving the Kazakh language for the school stakeholders. There is a concern that internationalisation will lead to denationalisation (de Wit & Adams, 2010) and westernisation which was discussed above.

The second perceived issue of curriculum internationalisation was the challenge in changing the teaching and learning approach in the secondary school. The study demonstrated the difficulty of switching to a more innovative student-centred approach both for the teachers and students. As curriculum internationalisation was viewed as the innovation of the curriculum and improvement of the education quality, it inevitably led to the update of the teaching methods (Ortloff, Shah, Lou & Hamilton, 2012; Haigh, 2002). Innovation requires time and commitment. The participants acknowledged that although the school provided them with in-service training, the teachers did not have time to improve their professional competency.

Another problem of curriculum internationalisation was connected with the cultural diversity of the staff and student body. All the participants came to an agreement that diversity played a prominent role in curriculum internationalisation. The presence of the representatives of different nationalities, races and ethnicities can help to build the intercultural competence of the students and staff members. However, the participants also acknowledged that it was challenging to recruit high quality international staff or attract international students to Kazakhstan. This is explained by the fact that Kazakhstan is not the first-choice destination for internationals as it is an unknown and still developing country.

The outcomes of this research contribute to the research on curriculum internationalisation of secondary education. This contribution is particularly unique because it provides a non-Western perspective on curriculum internationalisation and the challenges associated with it. The results of this research can be used to shed light on the mechanisms fostering curriculum internationalisation in a state-funded secondary school. Specifically, this research revealed the complexity of curriculum internationalisation of secondary education in Kazakhstan which means there is no straightforward definition of curriculum internationalisation. The study discovered the influence of different beliefs and ideologies on curriculum internationalisation such as cosmopolitanism and neoliberalism. In addition, this case study identified tensions and challenges as well as the structural issues that accompany curriculum internationalisation of secondary education in Kazakhstan. Those tensions and challenges include issues connected with languages learning, national identity and cosmopolitanism and an immediate historical past of Kazakhstan being part of the USSR. Therefore, it can be concluded that the research has made substantive contribution to research in the field of curriculum internationalisation of national secondary education on the example of a post-Soviet Asian country – Kazakhstan.

Apart from theoretical contribution, this thesis has contributed methodologically which will be discussed below.

### **8.3 Implications and recommendations**

Globalisation is a “world-wide interconnectedness” which impacts every aspect of our life (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt & Perraton, 1999). According to the report of the World Bank (2007, as cited in Bates, 2011), a new ‘global middle class’ will have appeared by 2030. As education plays a significant role in the life of the majority of people, it could not be ignored by globalisation and corresponding political ideologies. The globalisation of economies have led to the changes in the social life on many communities. These changes lead to questioning the current state and definition of the modern schooling and its relevance in preparing its graduates for the new globalised life.

#### **8.3.1 Theoretical implications**

This study is an attempt to fill in the gap in the research in government-funded schools internationalisation. Admittedly, the research is not big enough to

generalise the results but this case study might contribute to building theories on government-funded schools internationalisation. The above review of the literature demonstrates the lack of research in Central Asian and/or Muslim countries. Thus, this study can respond to the call for an in-depth research of national schools internationalisation in the context of a post-Soviet Asian country. The case is also unique due to the country's historical background. Although, the country is in Central Asia, it differs from other Asian and Muslim countries because it was a part of the Soviet Union which led to Russification and religion abolishment.

This research has been guided by social constructivist approach as it was discussed in Methodology chapter. This theory helps to accept the multiplicity of the truths and the importance of stakeholders' views on the conception of curriculum internationalisation. Therefore, I was able to construct the conception of curriculum internationalisation based on the school stakeholders' responses and the school documents.

The main theoretical implication of this research relates to the conceptualisation of internationalisation. This research discovered the perceived conceptualisation of the term which revealed the tension between global citizenship and national citizenship education as well as between global citizenship and neoliberal ideology in the context of Kazakhstan. Another issue was the problem with translating such terms as 'intercultural competence', 'internationalisation' and 'curriculum' from English into Kazakh and Russian as will be discussed in *Researching multilingually* later.

### **8.3.2 Methodological implications**

Curriculum studies are important to see what is going on in practice. Such studies are important to inform policy and curriculum makers' decisions as well as teachers'. First of all, this is the first study, to my knowledge, to examine the perceptions of curriculum internationalisation in a secondary school in Kazakhstan. The use of the case study methodology appeared to be a powerful instrument to obtain rich data in order to create an informed insight into the perspectives of the school stakeholders: teachers, senior management team, teachers, parents and students (Mehisto, 2015; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Yin, 2009; Stringer, 2007).

### **8.3.2.1 Researching multilingually**

Researching multilingually is one of the most significant methodological contributions of this research (Holmes, Fay, Andrews & Attia, 2013). As this study aimed at exploring the perceived definition of curriculum internationalisation, I decided that using the language of the researched was crucial to obtain rich data. This research was thus conducted in three languages: Kazakh, Russian and English because the school promotes the Trilingual policy. The trilingual policy presupposes the unity of Kazakh, Russian and English languages. Therefore, the participants spoke either the three languages, or at least one of them. The interviewees could choose the language they wanted to be interviewed in. This helped bring their voices into the research because it was easier for them to express their thought in their own language. This revealed the difficulty with conceptualizing some essential terms of curriculum internationalisation which will be discussed below. The documents were also in the three languages. I also tried to include literature in three languages but there was a limited number of publications in the field of education internationalisation in Kazakhstan in Russian and nothing in Kazakh, to my knowledge. Being a multilingual researcher also helpful in obtaining a whole picture of the case through background observations of the school culture and activities.

In connection with data collection, it is necessary to acknowledge the fact that there was a difficulty in translating the terms 'curriculum' and 'internationalisation'. There are no Russian and Kazakh equivalents. Both terms are borrowed: in Russian from English 'internatsionalizatsiya' and 'kurricyulum', and in Kazakh from Russian 'internatsionaldandyru', as illustrated in Figure 7. As I was interested in the participants' understanding of curriculum internationalisation, I could not explain the term to them in order not to impose my views on them. 'Curriculum' was translated into Kazakh and Russian as 'a school programme'. Some of the interviewees confessed that they had to google the term before the interview; others said they had never thought about curriculum internationalisation. Therefore, it was important to help the participants reflect on the concept of curriculum internationalisation within their practice at school. Furthermore, no school documents explicitly referred to curriculum internationalisation.

Methodological contribution of this research is primarily lies in researching multilingually. To my knowledge, there is a limited amount of research in a multilingual setting. This can help understand the difference of the perceptions of some concepts in Western and non-Western cultures.

### **8.3.2.2 Limitations and delimitations**

There are a few aspects that can potentially limit this research. One of the main limitations of interpretive research is its subjectivity (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Bryman, 2001; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2001). Interpretive research is a value-laden inquiry. It is "an interactive process shaped by his or her [researcher's] personal history, biography, gender, social class, race, and ethnicity, and by those of the people in the setting" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p.9). Dervin (2016) argues that researchers' interpretations and research participants' perceptions may be influenced by "context, social position, emotions, intertextuality, etc." (Angouri, 2016, p. 138). Admittedly, my interpretation of the findings of the research could be influenced by my own perceptions of curriculum internationalisation as well as my background as a teacher at the school under examination. Moreover, the participants' construction of reality is influenced by the presence of the researcher (Dervin, 2016; Gibson & Hua, 2016). This is closely connected with power asymmetry. My position as a researcher gave me more power and control over the study. This is particularly relevant in working with minors. Although I noticed that the students (minors) were more confident about their answers than the adults. I often noticed that the mature participants when answering my questions kept asking me if they were right or not. It was really hard to explain to them that I was not looking for the right answer. Instead, my aim was to reveal their perceptions. Reality is subjective and emergent and negotiated between the participants (Angouri, 2016). While the negotiation between participants was obvious in focus group interviews with the students, there were some cases when teachers discussed the interview questions without me. For instance, a teacher who had already been interviewed discussed it with the one who had not been. Nevertheless, in my opinion, such discussion results in deeper reflections on curriculum internationalisation by the participants and the diversity of views which helps understand complexities and tensions connected with curriculum internationalisation.

Lack of rigour is considered as another limitation of qualitative case study research due to researcher bias (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Flyvbjerg, 2006; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2001). I need to admit that I could be subject to researcher bias. This is explained by the fact that I used to work at the school under examination. In order to minimise the impact of researcher bias, I applied data triangulation and member checking. This means that I applied multiple methods of data collection and multiple sources of data as well as sending the preliminary findings to the interviewed participants for validation.

On the positive side, being a part of the school helped me recruit participants and build a friendly rapport with them. Moreover, it gave me background knowledge of the case which enriched the contextual understanding of the case. The participants can also be biased as they are not experts in internationalisation and international education. However, the aim of this research was to explore the perceived definition of curriculum internationalisation and its challenges. This means that the research revealed the reproduction of the truth that was true in that particular situation at that particular time period. Furthermore, Yin (2009) argues that any research including experiments can be biased. Thus, subjectivity, researcher and participant bias cannot be totally eliminated but certain measures can be taken to minimise them.

Another limitation of case study research is that it produces too much data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2001). However, such amounts of data can facilitate rich descriptions of the case and give an in-depth understanding of the unique case (Punch, 2014). Moreover, NVivo software helps the researcher to handle large volumes of data. Transcribing and analysing the data was time-consuming: it took me three months. However, having spent that much time with transcribing and analysing the large volume of data helped me obtain a full picture of the problem. Visualising the data with the help of NVivo software helped me handle that amount of data.

The last but not least critique of interpretive research is being unable to make generalisation on the basis of the inquiry. This research was limited by the specific setting of the study: a particular school; the time when the research was conducted and the development of the interview questions (Gibson & Hua,

2016). It is difficult to replicate and generalize from the findings of this research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Flyvbjerg, 2006; Bryman, 2001). Nevertheless, the aim of this research was to obtain an understanding the phenomenon from the point of view of the school stakeholders (Creswell, 2013). Therefore, this case study was conducted not for generalisation but for generating context-dependent knowledge for a better understanding of curriculum internationalisation (Flyvbjerg, 2006).

Another limitation could be the transcription and translation issues as when translating and transcribing the researcher brings in her own interpretations into the data. In order to reduce the impact of translation on the interpretation of the results I acted both as a translator and a researcher. Furthermore, although I considered being a part of the researched culture benefits the research (Fink, Kölling & Neyer, 2005), some researchers find that the participants are more at ease with foreigners (Welch, Marschan-Piekkari, Penttinen & Thavanainen, 2002). However, I did not experience any problem with interviewing the participants. On the contrary, being a multilingual researcher helped the participants express their views easier. For example, sometimes the participants started speaking Russian and then switched to Kazakh, or started with Russian and switched to English. Some of the parents agreed to be interviewed only on the condition that the interview was conducted in Kazakh. However, all the possible measures were taken to reduce the limitations, as discussed in *Chapter 3 (p. 73)*.

### **8.3.3 Implications for policy**

Although the findings of this case study cannot be generalised, there is a possibility for analytic generalisation due to the rich description of the case and transparency of the data collection and data analysis procedures (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Kvale, 2007). The research is likely to raise questions about policy and practice in curriculum internationalisation of secondary education in Kazakhstan. For example, the study reveals the tensions the school experiences when trying to combine nationalism with cosmopolitanism as well as structural issues (e.g. lack of time, work overload). Moreover, the



study has shown multiple aspects and challenges of curriculum internationalisation in a non-Western country that has just gained its independence. As the research applied multiple methods and multiple sources to obtain an in-depth picture of curriculum internationalisation within a secondary school of Kazakhstan, it can help inform policy making and thinking about curriculum internationalisation. For instance, the study demonstrated the importance of teaching and learning innovation which requires in-service training for the staff as well as the significance of international staff in the school in order to enhance internationalisation. Thus, this research can help the policy makers reflect on the process of curriculum internationalisation and foresee the possible challenges associated with it. Moreover, this case study can help the policy makers hear and listen to the school stakeholders who actually implement the educational reforms at school.

#### **8.4 Recommendations for future research**

This research has revealed the perceived definitions of curriculum internationalisation in a secondary school of Kazakhstan and the perceived challenges and issues connected with that. However, taking into consideration the above-mentioned limitations I propose the following recommendations for future research.

1. Conduct a comparative case study of two or more secondary schools in Kazakhstan in order to compare the results of the research in different schools. Such research design will enhance the generalisability of the research. As the number of this type of schools is growing in Kazakhstan, there will be a possibility to compare the schools in different cities of Kazakhstan to understand the contextual factors influencing the perceptions of the school stakeholders. Furthermore, a comparative case study can be conducted in the school of this type and a mainstream school to examine the difference of perceptions of curriculum internationalisation (Flyvbjerg, 2006).
2. Mixed methods research can be applied to collect data: a questionnaire and in-depth interviews. Questionnaires are useful in a site-specific case study because "they can capture the specificity of a particular situation" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p. 382). A questionnaire can be used to inform the questions for the interviews. This will help to word more focussed questions. Applying mixed methods can improve the validity and reliability of the research. Mixed methods research uses multiple tools to illuminate different aspects of the same research question (Symonds & Stephen, 2010).
3. This research was focussed on the perception of curriculum internationalisation. Thus, there is still space for researching the implementation of curriculum internationalisation in practice. It could be explored through an ethnographic case study where ethnographic interviews and observation can be applied. Ethnography allows researching the culture of a school and people in naturalistic settings without being disturbed by the researcher (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). It can be used for "describing a culture and understanding a way of life from the point of view of its participants" (Punch, 2014, p. 125). However, an ethnographic study is time consuming as it requires a total immersion of the researcher into the culture of the school.

## Bibliography

Abdi, A. A., Shultz, L., & Pillay, T. (2015). Decolonizing global citizenship In A. A. Abdi, L. Shultz & T. Pillay (eds.) *Decolonizing global citizenship education* (pp. 1-9). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Abuashaikh, M. & Tamimi, S. (1996). The impact of global education on developing teacher trends towards world civilization In *Teacher education and school reform: international yearbook on teacher education*, Ministry of Education, Jordan.

Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) (2013). Available at <http://www.shanghairanking.com/ARWU2013.html>

Agar, M.H. (1980). *The professional stranger: an informal introduction to ethnography*. London: Academic Press

Aguiar, A. & Nogueira, M.A. (2012) 'Internationalisation strategies of Brazilian private schools', *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, 22(4), pp. 353-368. DOI: 10.1080/09620214.2012.745344.

Al Farra, S. (2000). Images of international education in national and international schools: a view from Jordan In M. Hayden & J. Thompson (Eds.). *International schools and international education: improving teaching, management and quality* (pp.51-61). London: Kogan Page Ltd.

Albrow, M. (1990). Introduction in M. Albrow & E. Kings (eds.) *Globalization, Knowledge and Society* (pp. 3–13). London: Sage publications.

Alred, G., Byram, M. & Fleming, M. (Eds.) (2006). *Education for intercultural citizenship: concepts and comparisons*. Languages for intercultural communication and education, 13. Clevedon: Multilingual Matter LTD.

Altbach, P.G. & Teichler, U. (2001) 'Internationalization and exchanges in a globalized university', *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 5(1), pp. 5-25.

Andreotti, V. D. O. (2014). Soft versus critical global citizenship education In S. McCloskey (ed.) *Development education in policy and practice* (pp. 21-31). Palgrave Macmillan UK.

Andreotti, V.D.O. (2011a) 'Introduction: the political economy of global citizenship education', *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9 (3-4), pp. 307-310.

Andreotti, V.D.O. (2011b) '(Towards) decoloniality and diversity in global citizenship education', *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9 (3-4), pp. 381-398.

Andrews, D.L. & Ritzer, G. (2007) 'The global in the sporting glocal', *Global Networks*, 7(2), pp. 135-153.

Angouri, J. (2016). Studying identity In Z. Hua (ed.) *Research methods in intercultural communication: a practical guide* (pp. 37-52). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Appadurai, A. (2006). Disjuncture and difference in the global economy In M.G.Durham & D.M.Kellner (eds.) *Media and cultural studies: keywords* (pp. 584-603).

Appiah, K.A. (2006). *Cosmopolitanism: Ethics in a World of Strangers*. New York: Norton.

Apple, M. W. (2008) 'Can schooling contribute to a more just society?', *Education, citizenship and social justice*, 3(3), pp. 239-261.

Ball, S. J. (1993) 'What is policy? Texts, trajectories and toolboxes' *The Australian Journal of Education Studies*, 13(2), pp. 10-17.

Ball, S. J. (2012, March) 'Show me the money! Neoliberalism at work in education', *FORUM: For Promoting 3–19 Comprehensive Education*, 54(1), pp. 23-28.

Ball, S.J. (1998) 'Big Policies/Small World: An introduction to international perspectives in education policy', *Comparative Education*, 34(2), pp. 119-130  
DOI: 10.1080/03050069828225

Ball, S.J. (2003) The teacher's soul and the terrors of performativity, *Journal of Education Policy*, 18 (2): 215-228, DOI: 10.1080/0268093022000043065

Banks, J. A. (2001) 'Citizenship education and diversity: Implications for teacher education', *Journal of teacher education*, 52(1), pp. 5-16.

Bartlett, S. & Burton, D. (2012). *Introduction to education studies*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edn. London: Sage.

Bates, R. (2011) Assessment and international schools In R.Bates (ed.) *Schooling internationally: globalisation, internationalisation and the future for international schools* (pp. 148-164). London: Routledge.

Bates, R. (ed.) (2011). *Schooling internationally: globalisation, internationalisation and the future for international schools*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Bazeley, P., & Jackson, K. (2007). *Qualitative data analysis using NVivo*.

Beck, U. & Sznaider, N. (2006) 'Unpacking cosmopolitanism for the social sciences: a research agenda', *British Journal of Sociology*, 57(1), pp. 1-23.

Benavot, A. (1992) 'Curricular content, educational expansion, and economic growth', *Comparative education review*, 36(2), pp. 150-174.

Bennett, M. J. (2009). Defining, measuring, and facilitating intercultural learning: a conceptual introduction to the Intercultural Education double supplement.

- Bennigsen, A. (1969). Colonization and decolonization in the Soviet Union. *Journal of Contemporary History*, 4(1), 141-151.
- Billig, M. (1995). *Banal nationalism*. London: Sage.
- Bobrov, L.K. (2009) 'In the context of education internationalisation', *Higher Education in Russia*, 10. Available at <https://cyberleninka.ru/article/v/v-kontekste-internatsionalizatsii-obrazovaniya> [Бобров, Л. К. (2009), 'В контексте интернационализации образования', *Высшее образование в России*, (10)].
- Bogdan, R. & Biklen, S. (1982). *Qualitative research for education*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bottery, M. (1992) 'Education, dissent, and the internationalisation of schooling', *Westminster Studies in Education*, 15(1), pp. 69-78. DOI: 10.1080/0140672920150107.
- Bottery, M. (2006) 'Educational leaders in a globalising world: a new set of priorities?', *School Leadership & Management: Formerly School Organisation*, 26(1), pp.5-22 DOI: 10.1080/13634230500492822
- Brandenburg, U., & De Wit, H. (2011) 'The end of internationalization', *International Higher Education*, (62). DOI: <https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2011.62.8533>
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006) 'Using thematic analysis in psychology', *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3 (2), pp. 77-101.
- Bredella, L. (2003). Afterword. What does it mean to be intercultural? In G.Alred, M.Byram & M.Fleming (eds.) *Intercultural experience and education*, vol.2 (pp. 225-239). Clevedon: Multilingual matters ltd.
- Bridges, D. & Jonathan, R. (2003) Education and the market in Blake, N., Smeyers, P., Smith, R. & Standish, P. *The Blackwell guide to the Philosophy of Education* (pp. 126-145). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing. DOI: 10.1111/b.9780631221197.2002.00010.x

- Bridges, D. & Sagintayeva, A. (2014). Introduction In D.Bridges (ed.) *Educational reform and internationalisation: the case of school reform in Kazakhstan* (pp.xxii-xlii). The Cambridge Education Research series. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bridges, D. (1994) Parents: customers or partners? In D.Bridges & T.McLaughlin (eds.) *Education and the market place* (pp.65-79). London: Falmer Press.
- Bridges, D. (ed.) (2014). *Educational reform and internationalisation: the case of school reform in Kazakhstan*. The Cambridge Education Research series. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bridges, W. (1995). *Jobshift: How to prosper in a workplace without jobs*. Da Capo Press.
- Brogan, K., & Ó Laoire, M. (2011). Intercultural learning in the study abroad context In A. Witte & T. Harden (Eds.) *Intercultural competence: concepts, challenges, evaluations* (pp. 255-274). Bern, Switzerland: Peter Lang.
- Brown, W. (2011) 'Neoliberalized knowledge', *History of the Present*, 1(1), pp. 113-129.
- Bryman, A. (2001). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Byram, M. & Grundy, P. (eds.). (2002). *Context and culture in language teaching and learning*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Byram, M. & Leman, J. (Eds.) (1990). *Bicultural and trilingual education: the Foyer model in Brussels*. Clevedon: Multilingual matters Ltd.
- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Byram, M. (2006). Developing a concept of intercultural citizenship In G. Alred, M. Byram & M. Fleming (Eds.) *Education for intercultural citizenship: concepts and comparisons* (pp. 109-129). Clevedon: Multilingual Matter LTD.

Byram, M. (2008). *From foreign language education to education for intercultural citizenship: essays and reflections*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Byram, M., Nichols, A. & Stevens, D. (Eds.). (2001). *Developing intercultural competence in practice* (Vol. 1). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Byram, M., Zarate, G., & Neuner, G. (1997). *Sociocultural competence in language learning and teaching: studies towards a common European framework of reference for language learning and teaching*. Council of Europe.

Cambridge, J. & Carthew, C. (2007). Schools self-evaluating their international values: a case study In M.Hayden, J.Levy, & J.Thompson (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of research in international education* (pp. 283-298). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications, Inc.

Cambridge, J. (2002) 'Global product branding and international education', *Journal of Research in International Education*, 1(2), pp. 227-243.

Cambridge, J. (2012) 'International education research and the sociology of knowledge', *Journal of Research in International Education*, 11(3), pp. 230-244. DOI: 10.1177/1475240912461988

Camicia, S.P. & Franklin, B.M. (2011) 'What type of global community and citizenship? Tangled discourses of neoliberalism and critical democracy in curriculum and its reform', *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9 (3-4), pp. 311-322.

Carber, S. (2009) 'What will characterize international education in US public schools?' *Journal of Research in International Education*, 8(1), pp. 99–109.

Carder, M. (2007). *Bilingualism in international schools: a model for enriching language education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Caruana, V. (2007). Internationalisation of HE in the UK: 'Where are we now and where might we go?'. Presented at the Education in a Changing Environment Conference, Salford.



Cenoz, J. (2009). *Towards multilingual education: Basque educational research from an international perspective*. Buffalo, N.Y.: Multilingual matters.

Chankseliani, M. (2016) 'Escaping Homelands with Limited Employment and Tertiary Education Opportunities: Outbound Student Mobility from Post-Soviet Countries', *Population, Space and Place*, 22, pp. 301-316.

Chankseliani, M., & Hessel, G. (2016a). Case studies of the most popular European destinations for mobile students from Russia, Eastern Europe, Caucasus, and Central Asia. Available at <https://ora.ox.ac.uk/objects/uuid:307e125e-6def-4b5e-8c3e-a984a6ddd2d1>.

Chankseliani, M., & Hessel, G. (2016b). International student mobility from Russia, Eastern Europe, Caucasus, and Central Asia to the UK: trends, institutional rationales and strategies for student recruitment. Research report. Available at [https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=Chankseliani%2C+M.%2C+%26+Hesse%2C+G.+%282016%29.+International+student+mobility+from+Russia%2C+Eastern+Europe%2C+Caucasus%2C+and+Central+Asia+to+the+UK%3A+trends%2C+institutional+rationales+and+strategies+for+student+recruitment.&btnG=&hl=ru&as\\_sdt=0%2C5](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=Chankseliani%2C+M.%2C+%26+Hesse%2C+G.+%282016%29.+International+student+mobility+from+Russia%2C+Eastern+Europe%2C+Caucasus%2C+and+Central+Asia+to+the+UK%3A+trends%2C+institutional+rationales+and+strategies+for+student+recruitment.&btnG=&hl=ru&as_sdt=0%2C5)

Chomsky, N. (1998). *Profit over people: neoliberalism and the global order*. New York: Seven Stories Press.

Choudaha, R., & de Wit, H. (2014) 'Challenges and opportunities for global student mobility in the future: A comparative and critical analysis', *Internationalisation of higher education and global mobility*, pp. 19-33.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education*, 7th edn. London & New York: Routledge.

Costa Afonso, C. (2011). Intercultural competence: a major issue in foreign language teacher training? In A. Witte & T. Harden (Eds.) *Intercultural competence: concepts, challenges, evaluations* (pp. 127-140). Bern, Switzerland: Peter Lang.

- Crane, D. (1994). Introduction: the challenge of the sociology of culture to sociology as discipline In D. Crane (ed.) *The sociology of culture* (pp. 1-19). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Crang, M. & Cook, I. (2007). *Doing ethnographies*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Creswell, J.W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: choosing among 5 approaches, 3rd edn*. London: Sage Publications.
- Crick, B. (2000). Introduction to the new curriculum In D.Lawton, J.Cairns & R.Gardner (ed.) *Education for citizenship* (pp. 3-8). London: Continuum.
- Crippin, G. (2008) 'Internationalism in education: making it a reality in international schools through standards', *Reflecting on Identities: Research, Practice and Innovation*, pp. 385-396.
- Cummins, J. (2008) 'BICS and CALP: Empirical and theoretical status of the distinction' In B.Street and N.H.Hornberger (eds.) *Encyclopaedia of language and education* (pp. 487-499). New York: Springer.
- Davies, A. (2003). *The native speaker: myth and reality*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Davies, B., & Bansel, P. (2007) 'Neoliberalism and education', *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 20(3), pp. 247-259.
- Davis, A. (1999) 'Educational Assessment: a critique of current policy', *Impact*, 1, pp. vii-49.
- De Haan, H. (2014) 'Internationalization: interpretations among Dutch practitioners', *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 18(3), pp. 241-260.
- De Luca, C., & Board, S. E. (1994). *The Impact of Examinations Systems on Curriculum Development: An International Study*. UNESCO.

De Wit, H. (2011a) 'Globalisation and internationalisation of higher education' [introduction to online monograph], *Revista de Universidad y Sociedad del Conocimiento (RUSC)*, 8(2), pp. 241-248.

De Wit, H. (2011b). Law of the stimulative arrears? Internationalisation of universities of applied sciences, misconceptions and challenges In H. De Wit *Trends, issues and challenges in internationalisation of higher education* (pp. 7-23). Amsterdam: Centre for Applied Research on Economics and Management, School of Economics and Management of the Hogeschool van Amsterdam.

De Wit, H. (2011c). *Trends, issues and challenges in internationalisation of higher education*. Amsterdam: Centre for Applied Research on Economics and Management, School of Economics and Management of the Hogeschool van Amsterdam.

De Wit, H., & Adams, T. (2010). Global competition in higher education: a comparative study of policies, rationales, and practices in Australia and Europe In L.Portnoi, V.Rust & S.Bagley (eds) *Higher Education, Policy, and the Global Competition Phenomenon* (pp. 219-235). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

De Wit, H., Hunter, F., Howard, L., & Egron-Polak, E. (2015). *Internationalisation of higher education*. Brussels: European Parliament.

Deardorff, D.K. (2016). How to assess intercultural competence In Z. Hua (ed.) *Research methods in intercultural communication: a practical guide* (pp. 120-134). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Deardorff, D.K., Wit, H. De, Heyl, J.D. & Adams, T. (eds.) (2012). *The SAGE handbook of international higher education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications, Inc.

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (2008). Introduction: the discipline and practice of qualitative research In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (eds.) *The Landscape of qualitative research. Theories and issues* (pp.1-45). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dervin, F. (2016). *Interculturality in education: A theoretical and methodological toolbox*. Springer.

DiYanni, R. (2007). Internationalizing the US secondary and University curriculum in M. Hayden, J. Levy & J. Thompson (Eds.) (pp. 152-163) *The Sage handbook of research in international education*. London: Sage Publications.

Dobson, A. (2005) 'Globalisation, cosmopolitanism and the environment', *International Relations*, 19, pp. 259-273.

Doherty, C. & McLaughlin, J. (2015) Internationalizing school curriculum in Australasia – as niche, by test, or at heart? In M.Hayden, J.Levy, & J.Thompson (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of research in international education*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. (pp. 555-568). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Dolby, N. & Rahman, A. (2008) 'Research in international education', *Review of Educational Research*, 78(3), pp. 676-726.

Dunne, C. (2011) 'Developing an intercultural curriculum within the context of the internationalisation of higher education: terminology, typologies and power', *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(5), pp. 609-622.

Evans, M. (2008). Citizenship education, pedagogy, and school contexts In J.Arthur, I.Davies, & C.Hahn *The Sage handbook of education for citizenship and democracy* (pp. 519-532). London: Sage publications Ltd.

Fahmi, M., Maulana, A., & Yusuf, A. A. (2011). *Acceleration or internationalization? A cost-effectiveness-analysis of improving school quality in Indonesia*. Semarang, Indonesia: Center for Economics and Development Studies (CEDS) Padjadjaran University.

Fairclough, N. (2001). The discourse of New Labour: critical discourse analysis In M.Wetherall, S.Taylor & S.Yates (eds.) *Discourse as data: a guide for analysis* (pp. 229-266). London: SAGE/Open University.

Fasold, R. (1985) 'Societal multilingualism', *Sociolinguistics of Society*, pp. 1-34. New York: Basil Blackwell Inc.

Felluga, D.F. (2015) *Critical Theory: The Key Concepts*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Feniger, Y., Livneh, I., & Yogev, A. (2012)'Globalisation and the politics of international tests: the case of Israel', *Comparative Education*, 48(3), pp. 323-335.

Fern, E. F. (1982) 'The use of focus groups for idea generation: the effects of group size, acquaintanceship, and moderator on response quantity and quality', *Journal of marketing Research*, pp. 1-13.

Fetterman, D.M. (1989). *Ethnography: step by step*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Fierman, W. (1998) 'Language and identity in Kazakhstan: formulations in policy documents 1987-1997', *Communist and post-communist studies*, 31(2), pp. 171-186.

Fierman, W. (2005) 'Kazakh language and prospects for its role in Kazakh "groupness"', *Ab Imperio*, 2, pp. 393-423.

Fimyar, O., Yakavets, N. & Bridges, D. (2014). Educational reform in Kazakhstan: the contemporary policy agenda In D. Bridges, (Ed.) *Educational reform and internationalisation: the case of school reform in Kazakhstan* (pp. 53-68). The Cambridge Education Research series. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Fink, G., Kölling, M. & Neyer, A. (2005). The cultural standard method. EI Working papers/Europainstitut, 62. Europainstitut, WU Vienna University of Economics and Business, Vienna. Available at <http://epub.wu.ac.at/450/1/document.pdf>

Fleming, M. (2006). The concept of 'intercultural citizenship': lessons from fiction and art In G. Alred, M. Byram & M. Fleming (Eds.) *Education for intercultural citizenship: concepts and comparisons* (pp. 130-143). Clevedon: Multilingual Matter LTD.

Flyvbjerg, B. (2013). Case study In N.K.Denzin & Y.S.Lincoln (eds.), 4th edn. *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (pp.169-204). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Fontana, A. & Frey, J.H. (2005). The interview: from neutral stance to political involvement In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (eds.) *Sage handbook of qualitative research* (pp.695-727). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Fortuijn, J. D. (2002) 'Internationalising learning and teaching: a European experience', *Journal of Geography in higher education*, 26(3), pp. 263-273.

Friedman, T. L. (2000). *The Lexus and the olive tree: Understanding globalization*. Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Fryer, T. (2009) 'Stakeholder experience of a dual language international school: a qualitative case study of a private international school in Hong Kong', *Journal of Research in International Education*, 8(2), pp. 210-222.

Fuller, B., & Rubinson, R. (1992). *The Political Construction of Education: The State, School Expansion, and Economic Change*. New York, NY: Praeger Publishers.

Garcia, G., Skutnabb-Kangas, T. & Torres-Guzman, M.E. (Eds.) (2006). *Imagining multilingual schools: languages in education and glocalization*. Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters.

Gardner, R. (2000). Global perspectives in citizenship education In D.Lawton, J.Cairns & R.Gardner *Education for citizenship* (pp. 228-241). London: Continuum.

Gareis, E. (1995). *Intercultural friendship: A qualitative study*. University Press of Amer.

Gellar, C. (2002) 'International education: a commitment to universal values', *International education in practice: Dimensions for national and international schools*, pp. 30-35.

Gerassimova, A. (2007) 'Patriotism as an ethno-political category', *Vlast*, 4 [Герасимова, А. (2007). Патриотизм как этнополитическая категория. *Власть*, (4)].

Gibson, B. & Hua Z. (2016). Interviews In Z. Hua (ed.) *Research methods in intercultural communication: a practical guide* (pp. 181-195). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Gillespie, A., Howarth, C.S. & Cornish, F. (2012) 'Four problems for researchers using social categories', *Culture & Psychology*, 18(3), pp. 391-402.

Gipps, C. (1995) 'What Do We Mean by Equity in Relation to Assessment?' *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 2(3), pp. 271-281  
DOI: 10.1080/0969595950020303

Giroux, H. A. (2005) 'The terror of neoliberalism: rethinking the significance of cultural politics', *College Literature*, 32(1), pp. 1-19.

Giulianotti, R., & Robertson, R. (2006) 'Glocalization, globalization and migration: The case of Scottish football supporters in North America', *International Sociology*, 21(2), pp. 171–198.

Gleason, G. (2004). Central Asia: Ancient societies and the new millennium In S.P.Heyneman & A.J.DeYoung (eds.) *The challenge of education in Central Asia. A volume in international perspectives on educational policy, research, and practice* (pp. 11-20). Connecticut, the USA: Information Age Publishing Inc.

Grace, G. (1988). *Education: Commodity or public good?* Wellington: Victoria University Press.

Grimshaw, T. (2015). Critical perspectives on language in international education In M.Hayden, J.Levy, & J.Thompson (eds.) *The Sage handbook of research in international education*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. (pp. 217-232). London, UK: Sage publications Ltd.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions and Emerging Confluences In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (eds.) *Sage handbook of qualitative research* (pp.191-216). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1989) *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Guilherme, M. (2007). English as a global language and education for cosmopolitan citizenship. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 7(1), pp. 72-90.

Gundara, J. (2000). Social diversity, inclusiveness and citizenship education In D.Lawton, J.Cairns & R.Gardner (ed.) *Education for citizenship* (pp.14-26). London: Continuum.

Gushchin, I.I. State policy of education internationalisation in Japan. *Secondary Vocational Education*, 11 [Гущин, И. И. (2012). Государственная политика интернационализации образования Японии. *Среднее Профессиональное Образование*, 11].

Haigh, M.J. (2002) 'Internationalisation of the curriculum: designing inclusive education for a smaller world', *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 26(1), pp. 49-66. DOI: 10.1080/03098260120110368.

Hamilton, L. & Corbett-Whittier, C. (2013). *Using case study in education research*. London: Sage publications Ltd.

Hammersley, M. & Atkinson, P. (2007). *Ethnography: principles in practice*. London & New York: Routledge.

Hannum, E., & Buchmann, C. (2003) 'The consequences of global educational expansion', *American Academy of Arts and Sciences*.

Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (ed.) (2000). *International schools and international education: improving teaching, management and quality*. London: Kogan Page Ltd.



Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (eds.) (2001). *International education: principles and practice*. London: Kogan Page Ltd.

Hayden, M. & Wong, C. (1997) 'The International Baccalaureate: international education and cultural preservation', *Educational Studies*, 23(3), pp. 349-361.

Hayden, M. (2011) 'Transnational spaces of education: the growth of the international school sector', *Globalisation, societies and education*, 9(2), pp. 211-224.

Hayden, M., Thompson, J. & Walker, G. (2002). *International education in practice: dimensions for national and international schools*. London: Kogan Page Ltd.

Hayden, M.C. & Thompson, J.J. (1995) 'Perceptions of international education: a preliminary study', *International Review of Education*, 41(5), pp. 389-404.

Hayden, M.C. & Thompson, J.J. (1997) 'Student perspectives on international education: a European dimension', *Oxford Review of Education*, 23(4), pp. 459-478, DOI: 10.1080/0305498970230403

Hayden, M.C., Thompson, J. J. & Williams, G.O. (2003) 'Student perceptions of international education: a comparison by course of study undertaken', *Journal of Research in International Education*, 2(2), pp. 205–232.

Haywood, T. (2015). International mindedness and its enemies In M.Hayden, J.Levy, & J.Thompson (eds.) *The Sage handbook of research in international education*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. (pp. 45-58). London, UK: Sage publications Ltd.

Held, D., McGrew, A., Goldblatt, D. & Perraton, J. (1999). *Global Transformations. Politics, Economics and Culture*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Henze, J. (2014). Global climate, local weather: perspectives of internationalisation in Chinese higher education In B.Streiwieser (ed.)

*Internationalisation of higher education and global mobility* (pp.187-208).  
Oxford, UK: Symposium Books Ltd.

Heyneman, S.P. & DeYoung, A.J. (Eds.) (2004). *The challenge of education in Central Asia*. A volume in international perspectives on educational policy, research, and practice. Connecticut, the USA: Information Age Publishing Inc.

Heyneman, S.P. (2004). One step back, two steps forward. The first stage of the transition for education in Central Asia In S.P.Heyneman & A.J.DeYoung (Eds.) *The challenge of education in Central Asia. A volume in international perspectives on educational policy, research, and practice* (pp. 3-8).  
Connecticut, the USA: Information Age Publishing Inc.

Heyward, M. (2002) 'From international to intercultural: Redefining the international school for a globalized world', *Journal of research in international education*, 1(1), pp. 9-32.

Hill, I. (2000) 'Internationally-minded schools', *International schools journal*, 20(1), pp. 24-37.

Hill, I. (2007a) 'Multicultural and international education: never the twain shall meet?', *Review of Education*, 53(3), pp. 245-264.

Hill, I. (2007b). International education as developed by the international baccalaureate organisation In M.Hayden, J.Levy & J.Thompson (eds.) *The Sage handbook of research in international education* (pp. 25-37). London: Sage Publications.

Hobsbawm, E. J., & Kertzer, D. J. (1992) 'Ethnicity and nationalism in Europe today', *Anthropology today*, 8(1), pp. 3-8.

Hodkinson, P., & Hodkinson, H. (2001, December). The strengths and limitations of case study research. In *learning and skills development agency conference at Cambridge*, 1(1), pp. 5-7.

Holliday, A. (2016). Studying culture In Z. Hua (ed.) *Research methods in intercultural communication: a practical guide* (pp. 23-36). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Holmes, P. & Dervin, F. (2016). *The cultural and intercultural dimensions of English as a Lingua Franca*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Holmes, P. Fay, R., Andrews, J. and Attia, M. (2013) 'Researching multilingually: new theoretical and methodological directions', *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 23 (3), pp. 285-299.

Hoppers, O.C. (2014) Globalization and the social construction of reality: affirming or unmasking the "inevitable"? In N. P. Stromquist & K. Monkman (eds.) *Globalization and education: Integration and contestation across cultures*, 2nd edn. (pp. 101-118). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Hoskins, B. & Sallah, M. (2011) 'Developing intercultural competence in Europe: the challenges', *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 11(2), pp. 113-125, DOI: 10.1080/14708477.2011.556739.

Jackson, J. (2011) 'Cultivating cosmopolitan, intercultural citizenship through critical reflection and international, experiential learning', *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 11(2), pp. 80-96.

James, K. (2005) 'International education: the concept, and its relationship to intercultural education', *Journal of Research in International Education*, 4(3), pp. 313-332. DOI: 10.1177/1475240905057812.

Johnson, M.S. (2004). The legacy of Russian and Soviet education and the shaping of ethnic, religious, and national identities in Central Asia In S.P. Heyneman & A.J. DeYoung (eds.) *The challenge of education in Central Asia. A volume in international perspectives on educational policy, research, and practice* (pp. 21-36). Connecticut, the USA: Information Age Publishing Inc.

Joiner, R., Littleton, K., Faulkner, D. & Miell, D. (2000). *Rethinking collaborative learning*. London: Free Association Press.

Jonathan, R. (1997) *Illusory freedoms: liberalism, education and the market*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Jones, E. & Killick, D. (2007). Internationalization of the curriculum In E.Jones & S.Brown (eds.) *Internationalizing higher education* (pp 109-119). Abingdon: Routledge.

Karin, E., & Chebotarev, A. (2002). The policy of Kazakhization in state and government institutions in Kazakhstan In N.Masanov et al. *The Nationalities Question in Post-Soviet Kazakhstan, Chiba: Institute of Developing Economies*. Available at [http://www.ide.go.jp/library/English/Publish/Download/Mes/pdf/51\\_05.pdf](http://www.ide.go.jp/library/English/Publish/Download/Mes/pdf/51_05.pdf)

Kelly, A.V. (1999). *The curriculum: theory and practice*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Kelly, A.V. (2004). *The curriculum: theory and practice*. 5th edition. London: Sage Publications.

Kennedy, K.J. (2008). The citizenship curriculum: ideology, content and organization In J.Arthur, I.Davies, & C.Hahn *The Sage handbook of education for citizenship and democracy* (pp. 483-491). London: Sage publications Ltd.

Kerr, D. (2000). Citizenship education: an international comparison In D.Lawton, J.Cairns & R.Gardner (ed.) *Education for citizenship* (pp.200-227). London: Continuum.

Khoo, S. (2011) 'Ethical globalisation or privileged internationalisation? Exploring global citizenship and internationalisation in Irish and Canadian universities', *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9(3-4), pp. 337-354.

Killick, D. (2015). *Developing the global student: higher education in an era of globalization*. London: Routledge.

Kim, Y. Y., & Gudykunst, W. B. (1988). *Theories in intercultural communication* (Vol. 12). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

King, A. D. (Ed.). (1991). *Culture, globalization and the world system: Contemporary conditions for the representation of identity* (Vol. 3). University of Minnesota Press.

King, R. (2004). Globalization and the university In R.King (ed.) *The University in the global age* (pp. 45-66). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Knight, J. (1994). *Internationalization: elements and checkpoints*. Ottawa: Canadian Bureau for International Education.

Knight, J. (2003) 'Updated internationalization definition', *International Higher Education*, 33, pp. 2-3.

Knight, J. (2004) 'Internationalization remodeled: definition, approaches, and rationales', *Journal of studies in international education*, 8(1), pp. 5-31.

Knight, J. (2010). Internationalization and the competitiveness agenda In L.M. Portnoi, V.D. Rust & S.S. Bagley *Higher Education, Policy, and the Global Competition Phenomenon* (pp. 205-218). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Knight, J. (2012). Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education In D.K.Deardorff, H.De Wit, J.D.Heyl & T.Adams (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 27-42). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications, Inc.

Korniyenko, N.A. (2011) 'Citizenship and patriotism: the basis of spiritual and moral development and education of an individual', *Akmelogiys*, 4, pp. 38-44)  
[Корниенко, Н. А. (2011). Гражданственность и патриотизм: основа духовно-нравственного развития и воспитания личности. *Акмеология*, (4), 38-44].

Krasnoshchyokov, V.V. (2014) 'University internationalisation as the factor of the graduate quality improvement', *Fundamental Research*, (6-5).  
[Краснощеков, В. В. (2014) 'Интернационализация вуза как фактор повышения качества выпускника', *Фундаментальные исследования*, (6-5)].

Kubow, P., Grossman, D. & Ninimiya, A. (2000). Multidimensional citizenship: educational policy for the 21<sup>st</sup> century In J.J. Kogan, & R. Derricott (eds.) *Citizenship for the 21<sup>st</sup> century* (pp. 131-150). London: Kogan Page Ltd.

Kuzhabekova, A.S. (2000). *Past, present and future of language policy in Kazakhstan* (Master of Arts). The University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, North Dakota.

Kvale, S. (2008). *Doing interviews*. London: Sage Publications.

Lambert, D. & Lines, D. (2000) *Understanding assessment: purposes, perceptions, practice*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Langley, L., Villarreal, L., Columbia, B., & Centre for Curriculum, Transfer and Technology. (1997). *Best practice guidelines for internationalizing the curriculum*. The Ministry.

Langmann, E. (2011) 'Representational and territorial economies in global citizenship education: welcoming the other at the limit of cosmopolitan hospitality', *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9 (3-4), pp. 399-410.

Larkins, R. (2008) 'A battle we must not lose', *The Australian* (Higher Education Supplement), p. 25.

Lawton, D. (2000). Overview: citizenship education in context In D.Lawton, J.Cairns & R.Gardner (ed.) *Education for citizenship* (pp. 9-13). London: Continuum.

Leask, B. & Carroll, J. (2011) 'Moving beyond 'wishing and hoping': internationalisation and student experiences of inclusion and engagement', *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(5), pp. 647-659.

Leask, B. (2004, July). Transnational education and intercultural learning: Reconstructing the offshore teaching team to enhance internationalisation. Australian Universities Quality Forum.

Leask, B. (2009) 'Using formal and informal curricula to improve interactions between home and international students', *Journal of studies in international education*, 13(2), pp. 205-221.

Leask, B. (2015). *Internationalizing the curriculum*. New York: Routledge.

Leggott, D., & Stapleford, J. (2007) 'Internationalisation and employability', *Internationalising higher education*, pp. 120-134.

Leung, S.W. & Lee, W.O. (2006). National identity at a crossroads: the struggle between culture, language and politics in Hong Kong In G. Alred, M. Byram & M. Fleming (Eds.) *Education for intercultural citizenship: concepts and comparisons* (pp. 23-46). Clevedon: Multilingual Matter LTD.

Levine, T. R., Park, H. S., & Kim, R. K. (2007) 'Some conceptual and theoretical challenges for cross-cultural communication research in the 21st century', *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 36(3), pp. 205-221.

Loveland, T., Miyakawa, H., & Hirayama, Y. (2004) 'International collaboration in secondary level education', *Journal of Technology Studies*, 30(3), pp. 10-19.

Lucas, E. (1998). Report on the issue of 'What is an internationally-minded school?' Unpublished paper.

Lucas, R. E. (1997). Internal migration in developing countries. *Handbook of population and family economics*, 1, pp. 721-798.

Luke, A. (1997) 'Theory and practice in critical discourse analysis', *International encyclopaedia of the sociology of education*, pp. 50-57.

Luke, A., & Luke, C. (2000). *A situated perspective on cultural globalization* (pp. 275-297). London: Routledge.

MacClelland, R. (2001) 'Managing assessment in the international school In S.Blandford & M.Shaw (eds.) *Managing international schools* (pp. 48-62). London: Routledge.

Marginson, S. (1999) 'After globalization: Emerging politics of education', *Journal of Education Policy*, 14(1), pp. 19-31.

Maringe, F. (2010). The meanings of globalization and internationalization in HE: findings from a world survey, In F. Maringe & N. Foskett (eds.) *Globalization and internationalization in Higher Education – theoretical, strategic and management perspectives* (pp. 17-34). New York: Continuum International Publishing.

Marshall, H. (2011) 'Instrumentalism, ideals and imaginaries: theorising the contested space of global citizenship in schools', *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9 (3-4), pp. 411-426.

Martin, S. & Feng, A. (2006). The construction of citizenship and nation building: the Singapore case In G. Alred, M. Byram & M. Fleming (Eds.) *Education for intercultural citizenship: concepts and comparisons* (pp. 47-68). Clevedon: Multilingual Matter LTD.

Matthews, J. (2002) 'International education and internationalisation are not the same as globalisation: emerging issues for secondary schools', *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 6(4), pp. 369-390.

Matuszkiewics, R. (2010) 'The language issue in Kazakhstan – institutionalizing new ethnic relations after independence', *Economics and Environmental Studies*, 10(2), pp. 211-227.

McIntosh, P. (2005). Gender perspectives on educating for global citizenship In N.Noddings (ed.) *Educating citizens for global awareness* (pp. 22-39). New York: Teachers College Press.

McKillop-Ostrom, A. (2000). Student mobility and the international curriculum in M. Hayden, & J. Thompson (eds.). *International schools and international education: improving teaching, management and quality* (pp.73-84). London: Kogan Page.



McMahon, W. W., & Boediono, W. W. (1992) 'Universal basic education: An overall strategy of investment priorities for economic growth', *Economics of Education Review*, 11(2), pp. 137-151.

Mehisto, P. (2015). Kazakhstan: From twenty trilingual schools to thousands? In P. Mehisto & F. Genesse (Eds.) *Building bilingual education systems: forces, mechanisms and counterweights*. The Cambridge Education Research series (pp.109-130). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Mehisto, P., Kambatyrova, A. & Nurseitova, K. (2014). Three in one? Trilingualism in educational policy and practice In D. Bridges, (Ed.) *Educational reform and internationalisation: the case of school reform in Kazakhstan* (pp. 152-176). The Cambridge Education Research series. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Mendis, P. (2007). *Glocalization: The human side of globalization as if the Washington consensus mattered*, 2nd ed. Morrisville, NC: Lulu Press.

Merrill, M., Yakubova, S., & Turlanbekova, Z. (2015) 'Internationalizing quality assessment in Central Asia', *International Higher Education*, 64, pp. 22-24. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2011.64.8561>

Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: an expanded sourcebook*, 2nd edn. Newbury Park, Calif. and London: Sage.

Miller, D. (2000). *Citizenship and national identity*. Cambridge, UK: Polity press.

Mok, K.H. (2007) 'Questing for internationalization of universities in Asia: critical reflections', *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3/4), pp. 433-454.

Morgan, D. L. (1996). *Focus groups as qualitative research* (Vol. 16). Sage publications.

Mukazhanova, A.Zh. (2009) 'Peculiarities of interethnic consent of Kazakhstani people', *Vestnik RUDN*, pp. 83-88. [Мукажанова, А.Ж. (2009). Особенности воспитания межнационального согласия казахстанцев].

Myers, J.P. (2010) 'Exploring adolescents' thinking about globalization in an international education program', *Journal of Research in International Education*, 9(2), pp. 153-167.

Nazarbayev, N. (2004) To competitive Kazakhstan, competitive economics, competitive nation. Retrieved from [http://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses\\_of\\_president/poslanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazakhstan-n-a-nazarbaeva-narodu-kazakhstana-19-mart-2004-g\\_1342416361](http://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses_of_president/poslanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazakhstan-n-a-nazarbaeva-narodu-kazakhstana-19-mart-2004-g_1342416361)

Nazarbayev, N. (2006). "Kazakhstan's strategy of joining the world's fifty most competitive countries". Retrieved from [https://tengrinews.kz/zakon/prezident\\_respubliki\\_kazahstan/konstitutsionnyiy\\_stroy\\_i\\_osnovyi\\_gosudarstvennogo\\_upravleniya/id-K060002006\\_/](https://tengrinews.kz/zakon/prezident_respubliki_kazahstan/konstitutsionnyiy_stroy_i_osnovyi_gosudarstvennogo_upravleniya/id-K060002006_/)

Nazarbayev, N. (2007). New Kazakhstan in the new world. Retrieved from <http://www.embkazjp.org/additionalpages/newkazakhstan.html>

Nazarbayev, N. (2009). Through crisis to innovation and development. Retrieved from [http://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses\\_of\\_president/poslanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazakhstan-n-a-nazarbaeva-narodu-kazakhstana-6-marta-2009-goda\\_1342421128](http://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses_of_president/poslanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazakhstan-n-a-nazarbaeva-narodu-kazakhstana-6-marta-2009-goda_1342421128)

Nazarbayev, N. (2010). "A new decade, a new economic growth, and new opportunities for Kazakhstan" Retrieved from <http://prokuror.gov.kz/eng/state/acts-president/new-decade-new-economic-growth-and-new-opportunities-kazakhstan>

Nazarbayev, N. (2012). Strategy "Kazakhstan – 2050". Retrieved from [http://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses\\_of\\_president/poslanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazahstan-nnazarbaeva-narodu-kazakhstana-14-dekabrya-2012-g](http://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses_of_president/poslanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazahstan-nnazarbaeva-narodu-kazakhstana-14-dekabrya-2012-g)

Nazarbayev, N. (2014). 'Strategy Kazakhstan-2050: new political course of the established state'. Retrieved from

[http://www.akorda.kz/en/addresses/addresses\\_of\\_president/address-by-the-president-of-the-republic-of-kazakhstan-leader-of-the-nation-nnazarbayev-strategy-kazakhstan-2050-new-political-course-of-the-established-state](http://www.akorda.kz/en/addresses/addresses_of_president/address-by-the-president-of-the-republic-of-kazakhstan-leader-of-the-nation-nnazarbayev-strategy-kazakhstan-2050-new-political-course-of-the-established-state)

Nazarbayev, N. (2014). "Kazakhstan Way – 2050: Common Aim, Common Interests, Common Future". Retrieved from

[http://www.akorda.kz/en/addresses/addresses\\_of\\_president/address-of-the-president-of-the-republic-of-kazakhstan-nnazarbayev-to-the-nation-january-17-2014-3](http://www.akorda.kz/en/addresses/addresses_of_president/address-of-the-president-of-the-republic-of-kazakhstan-nnazarbayev-to-the-nation-january-17-2014-3)

Nazarbayev, N. (2017). *Third modernisation of Kazakhstan: global competitiveness*. Retrieved from

[http://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses\\_of\\_president/poslanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazahstan-nnazarbaeva-narodu-kazahstana-31-yanvarya-2017-g](http://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses_of_president/poslanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazahstan-nnazarbaeva-narodu-kazahstana-31-yanvarya-2017-g)

Nevradakis, M. (2014) Henry Giroux on the Rise of Neoliberalism. *Truthout*.

Retrieved from <http://www.truth-out.org/news/item/26885-henry-giroux-on-the-rise-of-neoliberalism>

Nilsson, B. (2000). Internationalising the curriculum In M.Joris, M.Otten, B.Nilsson, H.Teekens & B.Wächter *Internationalisation at home: a position paper* (pp. 21-28). Amsterdam: European Association for International Education.

Nisbett, J. & Watt, J. (1984). Case study In J.Bell, T.Bush, A.Fox, J.Goodey & S.Goulding (eds.) *Conducting small-scale investigations in educational management* (pp. 79-92). London: Harper and Row.

Nussbaum, M. (1999) 'Women and equality: The capabilities approach', *International Labour Review*, 138(3), pp. 227-245.

Nussbaum, M.C. (1996). *For Love of Country: Debating the Limits of Patriotism*. Boston: Beacon Press.

O Beachain, D. & Kevlihan, R. (2011). *State-building, identity and nationalism in Kazakhstan: Some preliminary thoughts*.

O'Connell, K. (2016) Neoliberalism: 'Profit Goes To Apple And Microsoft, Not To The Taxpayer'. *MintPress News*. Retrieved from <http://www.mintpressnews.com/neoliberalism-profit-goes-apple-microsoft-not-taxpayer/220388/>

OECD (2015), Education Policy Outlook 2015: Making Reforms Happen, OECD Publishing. Available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264225442-en>

Olson, J. F., Martin, M. O., & Mullis, I. V. (Eds.). (2008). *TIMSS 2007 technical report*. TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center.

Oommen, T. K. (ed.) (1997). *Citizenship and national identity: from colonialism to globalism*. London: Sage Publications, Ltd.

Ortloff, D.H., Shah, P.P., Lou, J. & Hamilton, E. (2012) 'International education in secondary schools explored: a mixed-method examination of one Midwestern state in the USA', *Intercultural Education*, 23(2), pp. 161-180.

Osler, A. (2011) 'Teacher interpretations of citizenship education: national identity, cosmopolitan ideals, and political realities', *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 43(1), pp. 1-24.

Otten, M. (2000). Impacts of cultural diversity at home In M.Joris, M.Otten, B.Nilsson, H.Teekens & B.Wächter *Internationalisation at home: a position paper* (pp. 15-20). Amsterdam: European Association for International Education.

Otter, D. (2007) 'Globalisation and sustainability. Global perspectives and education for sustainable development in Higher Education', *Internationalising higher education*, pp. 42-53.

Paige, R. M., Jorstad, H. L., Siaya, L., Klein, F., & Colby, J. (2003) 'Culture learning in language education', *Culture as the core: Perspectives on culture in second language learning*, pp. 173-236.

Pain, E. (2011) 'The political regime in Russia in the 2000s: Special features, inherited and acquired', *Russian Social Science Review*, 52(6), pp. 48-69.

Palmer, J.D. & Cho, Y.H. (2012) 'South Korean higher education internationalization policies: perceptions and experiences', *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 13, pp. 387-401.

Parker, W. (2010). Oppositions and possibilities In A.Reid, J.Gill & A.Sears (eds.) *Globalization, the nation-state and the citizen: dilemmas and directions for civics and citizenship education* (pp. 209-215). New York: Routledge.

Parker, W.C. (2011) 'International education' in US public schools', *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9(3-4), pp. 487-501.

Parmenter, L. (2006). Beyond the nation? Potential for intercultural citizenship education in Japan In G. Alred, M. Byram & M. Fleming (eds.) *Education for intercultural citizenship: concepts and comparisons* (pp. 144-163). Clevedon: Multilingual Matter LTD.

Parmenter, L. (2011) 'Power and place in the discourse of global citizenship education', *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9 (3-4), pp. 367-380.

Parmenter, Lynne K. (1997) *Becoming international in a Japanese junior high school : an ethnographic study*. Durham theses, Durham University. Available at Durham E-Theses Online: <http://etheses.dur.ac.uk/1635/>

Pavlenko, A., & Blackledge, A. (Eds.). (2004). *Negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts* (Vol. 45). Multilingual Matters.

Pearce, R. (2015). Culture and identity: a method for exploring individuals within groups In M.Hayden, J.Levy, & J.Thompson (eds.) *The Sage handbook of research in international education*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. (pp. 185-199). London, UK: Sage publications Ltd.

Piattoeva, N. (2010). Perceptions of the past and education of future citizens in contemporary Russia In A.Reid, J.Gill, & A.Sears (eds.) *Globalization, the*

*nation-state and the citizen: dilemmas and directions for civics and citizenship education* (pp. 128-142). New York: Routledge.

Pieterse, J.N. (2006). Globalization as hybridization In M.G.Durham & D.M.Kellner (eds.) *Media and cultural studies: keywords* (pp. 658-680).

Poore, P. (2005) 'School culture: The space between the bars; the silence between the notes', *Journal of Research in International Education*, 4(3), pp. 351-361.

Popkewitz, T.S. (2008). *Cosmopolitanism and the age of school reform: science, education, and making society by making the child*. New York: Routledge.

Population census: nationalities, religion and languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan (2009) [Perepis' naseleniya: natsional'nyi sostav, veroispovedaniye i vladeniye yazykami v Respublike Kazakhstan]. Retrieved from [http://stat.gov.kz/faces/wcnav\\_externalld/p\\_perepis?\\_afLoop=717828205513606#%40%3F\\_afLoop%3D717828205513606%26\\_adf.ctrl-state%3D160wemonpg\\_50](http://stat.gov.kz/faces/wcnav_externalld/p_perepis?_afLoop=717828205513606#%40%3F_afLoop%3D717828205513606%26_adf.ctrl-state%3D160wemonpg_50)

Prashby, K. (2011) 'Cultivating global citizens: planting new seeds or pruning the perennials? Looking for the citizen-subject in global citizenship education theory', *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9 (3-4), pp. 427-442.

Punch, K.F. (2014). *Introduction to social research: quantitative and qualitative approaches*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

QCA (1998). Education for citizenship and the teaching of democracy (Crick report). London: QCA.

Reid, A., Gill, J. & Sears, A. (2010). The forming of citizens in a globalizing world In A.Reid, J.Gill & A.Sears (eds.) *Globalization, the nation-state and the citizen: dilemmas and directions for civics and citizenship education* (pp. 3-17). New York: Routledge.

Resnik, J. (2012a) 'Sociology of international education – an emerging field of research', *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, 22(4), pp. 291-310. DOI: 10.1080/09620214.2012.751203

Resnik, J. (2012b) 'International education', *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, 22(4), pp. 285-289, DOI: 10.1080/09620214.2012.751200

Rizvi, F. & Lingard, B. (2010). *Globalizing education policy*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Rizvi, F. (2000). Internationalisation of curriculum. *RMIT teaching and learning strategy*, RMIT website (June 6, 2006). Available at <http://www.pvci.rmit.edu.au/ioc>.

Rizvi, F. (2005) 'International education and the production of cosmopolitan identities', *RIHE International Publication Series 9*. Paper presented at the March 4<sup>th</sup>, 2005 Transnational Seminar Series at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Rizvi, F. (2007). Internationalisation of curriculum: a critical perspective In M., Hayden, J. Levy, & J. Thompson (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of research in international education* (pp. 390-403). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications, Inc.

Rizvi, F. (2015). Internationalisation of curriculum: a critical perspective In M., Hayden, J. Levy, & J. Thompson, (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of research in international education*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. (pp. 337-350). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.

Rogers, R. (Ed.). (2011). *An introduction to critical discourse analysis in education*. New York and London: Routledge.

Room, G. (2000) 'Globalisation, social policy and international standard-setting: the case of higher education credentials', *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 9(2), pp. 103-119.

Ross, H., & Lou, J. (2005) 'Glocalizing Chinese higher education: Groping for stones to cross the river', *Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies*, 12(1), pp. 227–250.

Ryan, J., & Hellmundt, S. (2003, October). Excellence through diversity: Internationalisation of curriculum and pedagogy. In *17th IDP Australian International Education Conference*, pp. 21-24.

Ryan, P. (2006). Interculturality, identity and citizenship education in Mexico In G. Alred, M. Byram & M. Fleming (Eds.) *Education for intercultural citizenship: concepts and comparisons* (pp. 11-22). Clevedon: Multilingual Matter LTD.

Ryan, Y. (2004). Teaching and learning in the global era In R.King (ed.) *The university in the global age* (pp. 164-180). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave.

Sanderson, G. (2011) 'Internationalisation and teaching in higher education', *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(5), pp. 661-676.

Scott, J. 1990. *A Matter of Record: Documentary Sources in Social Research*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.

Sellar, S. & Lingard, B. (2013) 'Looking East: Shanghai, PISA 2009 and the reconstitution of reference societies in the global education policy field', *Comparative Education*, 49(4), pp. 464-485, DOI 10.1080/03050068.2013.770943

Sen, A. (2007). *Identity and violence: the illusion of destiny*. New Delhi: Penguin.

Shamshidinova, K., Ayubayeva, N. & Bridges, D. (2014). Implementing radical change: Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools as agents of change In D. Bridges (ed.) *Educational reform and internationalisation: the case of school reform in Kazakhstan* (pp. 71-82). The Cambridge Education Research series. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.



- Shiva, V. (1998). The greening of global reach In G. Thuatail, S. Dalby & P. Routledge (eds.) *The Geopolitics Reader* (pp.230-143). New York & London: Routledge.
- Shore, C. & Wright, S. (1999) 'Audit culture and anthropology: neo-liberalism in British higher education', *The Journal of the Royal Anthropological Institute*, 5(4), pp. 557–575.
- Simons, H. (2009). *Case study research in practice*. SAGE publications.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T., & McCarty, T. L. (2008). Key concepts in bilingual education: Ideological, historical, epistemological, and empirical foundations In *Encyclopaedia of language and education* (pp. 1466-1482). Springer US.
- Slethaug, G. (2007). *Teaching abroad: international education and the cross-cultural classroom*. Hong-Kong: Hong-Kong University Press.
- Smith, A. D. (2001). *Nationalism*. Cambridge: Polity.
- Söderqvist, M. (2002). *Internationalisation and its management at higher-education institutions. Applying conceptual, content and discourse analysis*. Helsinki School of Economics.
- Somerset, A. (1996) Examinations and educational quality In A.Little & A.Wolf (eds.) *Assessment in transition: learning, monitoring and selection in international perspective* (pp. 263-284). Emerald Group Publishing.
- Soudien, C. (2005) 'Inside but below: The puzzle of education in the global order', *International handbook on globalisation, education and policy research*, pp. 501-516.
- Spivak, G. (1990). *The Post-colonial Critic: Interviews, Strategies, Dialogues*. New York & London: Routledge.
- Stake, R.E. (2005). Qualitative case studies In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (eds.) *Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp.443-466). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Starkey, H. (2007). Language education, identities and citizenship: developing cosmopolitan perspectives. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 7(1), pp. 56-71.

Stein, S., Andreotti, V. D. O., & Suša, R. (2016) 'Beyond 2015', within the modern/colonial global imaginary? Global development and higher education', *Critical Studies in Education*, pp. 1-21.

Stenhouse, L. (1985) 'A note on case study and educational practice', *Field methods in the study of education*, pp. 263-271.

Streiwieser, B. (2014). Introduction In B.Streiwieser (ed.) *Internationalisation of higher education and global mobility* (pp. 11-18). Oxford, UK: Symposium Books Ltd.

Stringer, E. 2007. *Action research*, 3rd edn. Los Angeles: Sage.

Suleimenova, E.D. (2010) 'Ethnolinguistic processes or influence of shifts in ethnic structure of population to language situation'. *Dynamics of language situation in Kazakhstan*, p.387.

Suny R.G. (1993). *The revenge of the past: nationalism, revolution, and the collapse of the Soviet Union*. Stanford.

Sylvester, R. (2002) 'Mapping international education: A historical survey 1893-1944', *Journal of Research in International Education*, 1(1), pp.90-125.

Symonds, J.E. & Gorard, S. (2010) 'Death of mixed methods? Or the rebirth of research as a craft', *Evaluation and Research in Education*, 23(2), pp. 121-136. DOI: 10.1080/09500790.2010.483514

Tarozzi, M. & Torres, C.A. (2016). *Global citizenship education and the crises of multiculturalism: comparative perspectives*. London: Bloomsbury.

Taylor, S. (2004) 'Researching educational policy and change in 'new times': Using critical discourse analysis', *Journal of Education Policy*, 19(4), pp. 433-451.

Teekens, H. (2000) Teaching and learning in the international classroom, *Internationalisation at Home: A Position Paper*, pp. 29-34.

Teichler, U. (2004) 'The changing debate on internationalisation of higher education', *Higher Education*, 48(1), pp. 5-26.

Thompson, J. J. (2001). Towards a model for international education In M. Hayden & J.Thompson (eds.) *International education: principles and practice* (pp. 276-290). London: Kogan Page Ltd.

Tikly, L.P. (2004) 'Education and the new imperialism', *Comparative Education*, 40 (2), pp. 173-198.

Tucker, J.L. (1991). *Global education is essential to secondary school social studies*. NASSP Bulletin.

Tudball, L. (2005) 'Grappling with internationalisation of the curriculum at the secondary school level: issues and tensions for educators', *Australian Journal of Education*, 49(1), pp. 10-27.

Ualiyeva, S. & Edgar, E. (2011) 'Inter-ethnic marriages, mixed origin and 'friendship of peoples' in the Soviet and post-Soviet Kazakhstan', *Neprikosnovenny zapas*, 6(80). Available at <http://magazines.russ.ru/nz/2011/6/u18-pr.html> [Уалиева, С. И Эдгар, Э. (2011). Межэтнические браки, смешанное происхождение и «дружба народов» в советском и постсоветском Казахстане].

Van der Wende, M. (1997) 'Internationalising the curriculum in Dutch higher education: An international comparative perspective', *Journal of studies in international education*, 1(2), pp. 53-72.

Van Dijk, T. A. (1993) 'Principles of critical discourse analysis', *Discourse & society*, 4(2), pp. 249-283.

Van Vught, F., Van der Wende, M., & Westerheijden, D. (2002). Globalisation and internationalisation: policy agendas compared In J.Enders & O.Fulton

(eds.) *Higher education in a globalising world* (pp. 103-120). Netherlands: Springer.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Walker, G. (2000). International education: connecting the national to the global In M. Hayden & J. Thompson (eds.) *International schools and international education: improving teaching, management and quality* (pp.193-204). London: Kogan Page Ltd.

Wall, K., Higgins, S., Hall, E. & Woolner, P. (2013) 'That's not quite the way we see it': the epistemological challenge of visual data', *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 36(1), pp. 3-22.

Ward, V. M., Bertrand, J. T., & Brown, L. F. (1991) 'The comparability of focus group and survey results: Three case studies', *Evaluation review*, 15(2), pp. 266-283.

Weber, S. (2003). A framework for teaching and learning 'Intercultural competence' In G. Alred, M. Byram & M. Fleming (eds.) *Intercultural experience and education* (Vol.2) (pp. 196-212). Clevedon: Multilingual matters Ltd.

Weber, S. (2011) A framework for teaching and learning "Intercultural competence" In G.Alred, M.Byram & M.Fleming (eds.) *Intercultural experience and education* (pp.196-212). Clevedon: Multilingual matters.

Weenink, D. (2009) 'Creating a niche in the education market: the rise of internationalised secondary education in the Netherlands', *Journal of Education Policy*, 24(4), pp. 495-511. DOI: 10.1080/02680930902774620.

Welch, C., Marschan-Piekkari, R., Penttinen, H. & Thavanainen, M. (2002) 'Corporate elites as informants in qualitative international business research', *International business Review*, 11(5), pp. 611-628.

Wellington, J. (2000). *Educational research: contemporary issues and practical approaches*. London: Continuum.

Wellington, J.J. (1996). *Methods and issues in educational research*. Sheffield: University of Sheffield, Division of Education.

Welply, O. (2015) 'Re-imagining Otherness: an exploration of the global imaginaries of children from immigrant backgrounds in primary schools in France and England', *European Educational Research Journal*, 14(5), pp. 430-453.

Westgarth, R. (2014) 'International understanding doesn't always need a journey overseas', *International School: How internationally minded is your school*, 17(1), pp. 14-15. Available at [http://www.johncatt.com/downloads/is17\\_1/offline/download.pdf](http://www.johncatt.com/downloads/is17_1/offline/download.pdf)

White, J. (1996) 'Education and nationality', *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 30(3), pp. 327-344.

Wiley, M. (2011). Global networking and the world of international education In R.Bates (ed.) *Schooling internationally: globalisation, internationalisation and the future for international schools* (pp. 21-38). New York, NY: Routledge.

Wilson, V. (1997) 'Focus groups: a useful qualitative method for educational research?', *British Educational Research Journal*, 23(2), pp. 209-224.

Wiseman, W. A. & Baker, D.P. (2015) 'The worldwide explosion of internationalized education policy', *Global Trends in Educational Policy*, 6, pp. 1-21.

Wiseman, W. A. & Baker, D.P. (2015) 'The worldwide explosion of internationalized education policy', *Global Trends in Educational Policy*, 6, pp. 1-21.

Witte, A. (2011). On the teachability and learnability of intercultural competence: Developing facets of the 'inter' In A.Witte, & T.Harden

*Intercultural competence: concepts, challenges, evaluations* (pp. 89-107).  
Oxford: International Academic Publishers

Witte, A., & Harden, T. (2011). *Intercultural competence: concepts, challenges, evaluations. intercultural studies and foreign language learning, 10*. Oxford: International Academic Publishers.

Woodward, K. (2002). *Understanding identity*. London: Arnold.

Yakavets, N. & Dzhadrina, M. (2014). Educational reform in Kazakhstan: entering the world arena In D. Bridges, (Ed.) *Educational reform and internationalisation: the case of school reform in Kazakhstan* (pp. 28-52). The Cambridge Education Research series. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Yakavets, N. (2014). Educational reform in Kazakhstan: the first decade of independence In D. Bridges, (Ed.) *Educational reform and internationalisation: the case of school reform in Kazakhstan* (pp. 1-27). The Cambridge Education Research series. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Yan, W., Han, Y. & Cai, Y. (2015). Internationalization and globalization in Chinese K-12 schools and university education In M.Hayden, J.Levy, & J.Thompson (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of research in international education, 2<sup>nd</sup> edn.* (pp. 567-582). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Yeatman, A. (1994) *Postmodern Revisionings of the Political*. New York: Routledge.

Yemini, M. (2012) 'Internationalization assessment in schools: theoretical contributions and practical implications', *Journal of Research in International Education, 11*(2), pp. 152-164.

Yemini, M. (2014) 'Internationalization of Secondary Education—Lessons From Israeli Palestinian-Arab Schools in Tel Aviv-Jaffa', *Urban Education, 49*(5), pp. 471-498.

Yemini, M., Bar-Nissan, H. & Shavit, Y. (2014) 'Cosmopolitanism versus nationalism in Israeli education', *Comparative Education Review*, 58(4), pp. 708-728.

Yin, R.K. (2009). *Case study research: design and methods*, 4th edn. Applied social research methods series (Vol.5). London: Sage Publications.

Young, M. (2008). *Bringing knowledge back: from social constructivism to social realism in the sociology of education*. London: Routledge.

Zarate, G. (2003). Identities and plurilingualism: preconditions for the recognition of intercultural competences. *Intercultural competence*, pp. 85-117.

Zezeza, P. T. (2012). *Internationalization in higher education: Opportunities and challenges for the Knowledge Project in the Global South*.

Zhang, L., Khan, G. & Tahirsylaj, A. (2015) 'Student performance, school differentiation, and world cultures: evidence from PISA 2009', *International Journal of Educational Development*, 42, pp. 43-53

Zharkynbekova, Sh., Akynova, D. & Aimoldina, A. (2013) 'Multicultural situation in Kazakhstan: aspects of language studies', *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 27, pp. 32-37. DOI: 10.5829/idosi.wasj.2013.27.elelc.8

Zsebik, P. (2000). The politics of international education In M. Hayden & J. Thompson (eds.) *International schools and international education: improving teaching, management and quality* (pp.62-72). London: Kogan Page.

<http://kazakhworld.com/the-shanyrak-crystallizes-kazakh-culture-and-history>.

<http://nis.edu.kz/ru/projects/shanyrak>.

[http://www.akorda.kz/ru/national\\_projects/assambleya-naroda-kazahstana](http://www.akorda.kz/ru/national_projects/assambleya-naroda-kazahstana)

<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/education/expateducation/9159942/International-schools-now-more-than-three-million-children-get-a-global-education.html>

<https://admissions.nu.edu.kz/wps/portal>

[www.akorda.kz](http://www.akorda.kz)

[www.ibo.org](http://www.ibo.org)

[www.iea.nl](http://www.iea.nl)

[www.pisa.oecd.org](http://www.pisa.oecd.org)



**Appendix 1 Interview protocol for SMT**

| <b>Interview protocol for administrators.</b>       |             |  |  |
|---|-------------|--|--|
| <b>Topic</b>  | <b>Time</b> | <b>Question</b>  | <b>Probes</b>  |
| Work experience                                     | 5 min       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tell me about your work experience.</li> <li>• What is your role and responsibilities in this school?</li> <li>• Why have you chosen this school?</li> </ul>  | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. What was your past work experience before coming to this school?</li> <li>2. Have you worked in international schools?</li> <li>3. How long have you worked in this school?</li> <li>4. Can you give an example?</li> </ol>  |
| Curriculum internationalisation                     | 5           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think about curriculum internationalisation?</li> <li>• What is most important in curriculum internationalisation?</li> </ul>   | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. How important is school internationalisation? Why?</li> <li>2. Can you give an example?</li> <li>3. Can you elaborate on this?</li> </ol>  |
| Curriculum internationalisation in the given school | 15          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you tell me about this school?</li> <li>• Why does the school want to be accredited by CIS?</li> <li>• Can you tell me about school policies or other documents influencing this school's curriculum internationalisation?</li> <li>• What is the most internationalised</li> </ul> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. How internationalised is this school?</li> <li>2. How is it different from other schools? (mainstream and international)</li> <li>3. How is it similar to other schools? (mainstream and international)</li> <li>4. Can you give an example?</li> <li>5. Can you elaborate on this?</li> </ol> |

|                          |    |  |   |
|--------------------------|----|--|---|
|                          |    | <p>aspect of the curriculum?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What is the role of extracurricular activities in curriculum internationalisation ?</li> <li>• How do teachers respond to the curriculum internationalisation ?</li> <li>• How do parents respond to the curriculum internationalisation ?</li> <li>• How is curriculum internationalisation important for this school?</li> <li>• What is the role of international teachers in this school?</li> </ul> | <p>6. Can you tell me about parental support?</p> <p>7. How are the teachers prepared to curriculum internationalisation?</p> |
| Intercultural competence | 15 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How does the school promote intercultural understanding?</li> <li>• How can the school help teachers incorporate global dimension/perspective into their disciplines?</li> <li>• How does the school prepare the students to live in the globalised and multicultural world?</li> <li>• What do you think about the relationship between local and international teachers, local students and international teachers?</li> </ul>          | <p>1. Can you give an example?</p> <p>2. Can you explain?</p> <p>3. How do you celebrate cultural diversity?</p>              |

|                 |    |  |  |
|-----------------|----|--|--|
|                 |    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Can you tell me about the role of extracurricular activities?</li> </ul>  |  |
| Multilingualism | 15 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>How does the school promote multilingualism?</li> <li>What do you think about the Trilingual educational Policy?</li> <li>How does multilingualism influence the school curriculum?</li> <li>How do teachers respond to multilingualism?</li> </ul> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Can you give an example?</li> <li>Can you elaborate on this?</li> <li>Can you tell me about the supporting programme for those struggling with languages?</li> <li>Can you tell me about the assessment?</li> </ol> |
| Ending          | 5  | <p>Is there anything in this interview you thought I would ask but I didn't?</p> <p>Is there anything you want to add?</p>   |  |

## Appendix 2 Interview protocol for teachers

| Interview protocol for teachers. |       |  |  |
|----------------------------------|-------|--|--|
| Topic                            | Time  | Question   | Probes   |
| Work experience                  | 5 min | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tell me about your work experience.</li> <li>What is your role and responsibilities in this school?</li> <li>Why have you chosen to work at this school?</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What was your past work experience before coming to this school?</li> <li>Have you worked in international schools?</li> <li>How long have you worked in this school?</li> <li>What is your discipline/subject ?</li> </ul> |

|                          |        |   |  |
|--------------------------|--------|---|--|
|                          |        |   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you give an example?</li> </ul>   |
| Intercultural competence | 15 min | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How does the school celebrate cultural diversity?</li> <li>• What do you think about other cultures?</li> <li>• How can students learn about other cultures through your discipline?</li> <li>• How can students learn to respect other cultures and the whole world through your subject?</li> <li>• How can students learn to love and protect the world through your subject?</li> <li>• How does your discipline prepare the students to live peacefully among other cultures in such a globalised world?</li> <li>• How can global perspective be incorporated into your discipline?</li> <li>• How can the school help you incorporate global dimension/perspective into your discipline?</li> <li>• What do you think about team-teaching with international teachers?</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you give an example?</li> <li>• Can you explain?</li> <li>• Have you tried that?</li> </ul>                       |
| Multilingualism          | 15 min | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What is the role of languages in the school?</li> <li>• What do you think about the Trilingual Educational Policy?</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you give an example?</li> <li>• Can you elaborate on this?</li> <li>• Can you tell me about a language</li> </ul> |

|   |        |  |   |
|---|--------|--|---|
|   |        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How does multilingualism influence your discipline?</li> <li>• What is the role of international teachers in this school?</li> <li>• What opportunities does trilingualism provide you with as a teacher?</li> <li>• What challenges does trilingualism provide you with as a teacher?</li> <li>• How can learning languages benefit your students?</li> </ul>  | <p>supporting programme?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you tell me about a language support programme for teachers?</li> <li>• Can you tell me about assessment?</li> </ul>  |
| Curriculum internationalisation in the given school | 15 min | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Why does the school want to be accredited by CIS?</li> <li>• What is the most internationalised aspect of the curriculum?</li> <li>• How do the learners respond to the changes in the curriculum?</li> <li>• How do the learners respond to the changes in the curriculum?</li> <li>• What opportunities does curriculum internationalisation provide you with as a teacher?</li> <li>• What challenges does curriculum internationalisation provide you with as a teacher?</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How is it different from other schools? (mainstream and international)</li> <li>• How is it similar to other schools? (mainstream and international)</li> <li>• Have you tried that? Can you give an example?</li> <li>• Can you elaborate on this?</li> <li>• How are the learners prepared for curriculum internationalisation?</li> <li>• Can you give an example?</li> </ul> |
| Curriculum internationalisation                     | 5 min  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think about curriculum internationalisation?</li> <li>• What is most important in curriculum internationalisation?</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you give an example?</li> <li>• Can you elaborate on this?</li> </ul>  |

|        |       |  |  |
|--------|-------|--|--|
|        |       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you define curriculum internationalisation?</li> </ul>                        |  |
| Ending | 5 min | <p>Is there anything in this interview you thought I would ask but I didn't?</p> <p>Is there anything you want to add?</p> |  |

### Appendix 3 Interview protocol for parents

| Interview protocol for parents.                     |       |   |  |
|---|-------|---|--|
| Topic   | Time  | Question  | Probes   |
|   | 5 min | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What grade is your child in?</li> <li>• What is your job?</li> </ul>   | 1.   |
| Curriculum internationalisation in the given school | 15    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you tell me about this school?</li> <li>• How internationalised is the school curriculum?</li> <li>• What the opportunities and challenges does the school curriculum provide your child with?</li> <li>• Why have you chosen this school for your child?</li> <li>• How important is it for you to have your child in an international school?</li> </ul> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. How internationalised is this school?</li> <li>2. How is it different from other schools? (mainstream and international)</li> <li>3. How is it similar to other schools? (mainstream and international)</li> <li>4. Can you give an example?</li> <li>5. Can you elaborate on this?</li> </ol> |
| Intercultural competence                            | 15    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Does the school provide culturally diverse learning environment?</li> <li>• How can teachers and school administration help learners</li> </ul>  | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Can you give an example?</li> <li>2. Can you explain?</li> <li>3. Have you tried that?</li> </ol>  |

|                 |    |  |  |
|-----------------|----|--|--|
|                 |    | <p>acquire global perspective?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How does the school prepare your child to live in the globalised and multicultural world?</li> </ul>   |  |
| Multilingualism | 15 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think about studying 3 languages?</li> <li>• What are the opportunities and challenges of studying 3 languages?</li> <li>• What do you think about the role of international teachers in the school?</li> </ul> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Can you give an example?</li> <li>2. Can you elaborate on this?</li> <li>3. Can you tell me about the supporting programme for those struggling with languages?</li> <li>4. Can you tell me about the assessment?</li> </ol> |
| Ending          | 5  | <p>Is there anything in this interview you thought I would ask but I didn't?<br/>Is there anything you want to add?</p>  |  |

#### Appendix 4 Interview protocol for students

| Interview protocol for students. |       |   |  |
|----------------------------------|-------|---|--|
| Topic                            | Time  | Question  | Probes   |
| School experience                | 5 min | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What grade are you in?</li> <li>• How long have you studied in this school?</li> </ul> | 1.   |
| Curriculum internationalisation  | 5     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think about curriculum internationalisation?</li> </ul>                    | 1. Can you define curriculum internationalisation in your words? |

|   |    |   |   |
|---|----|---|---|
|   |    |   | 2. Can you give an example?   |
| Curriculum internationalisation in the given school | 15 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you tell me about this school?</li> <li>• What is the most internationalised aspect of the curriculum?</li> <li>• What opportunities and challenges does the school curriculum provide you with?</li> </ul>  | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. How internationalised is this school?</li> <li>2. How is it different from other schools? (mainstream and international)</li> <li>3. How is it similar to other schools? (mainstream and international)</li> <li>4. Have you tried that? Can you give an example?</li> <li>5. Can you elaborate on this?</li> </ol> |
| Intercultural competence                            | 15 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Have you been exposed to any cultural differences?</li> <li>• How do you feel about being taught by international teachers?</li> <li>• Have you travelled abroad? How did you feel there?</li> <li>• Have you travelled within Kazakhstan? How did you feel there?</li> <li>• How does the school prepare you to international/local travelling?</li> <li>• Where are you planning to study after finishing the school? Why?</li> <li>• How do you think the school helps you or not to</li> </ul> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Can you give an example?</li> <li>2. Can you explain?</li> <li>3. Have you tried that?</li> </ol>   |



|                 |    |   |  |
|-----------------|----|---|--|
|                 |    | <p>enter that university?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How does the school prepare you to live in the globalised and multicultural world?</li> </ul>  |  |
| Multilingualism | 15 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What is the role of languages in the school?</li> <li>• What do you think about studying 3 languages?</li> <li>• What are the opportunities and challenges of studying 3 languages?</li> </ul> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Can you give an example?</li> <li>2. Can you elaborate on this?</li> <li>3. Can you tell me about the supporting programme for those struggling with languages?</li> <li>4. Can you tell me about the assessment?</li> </ol> |
| Ending          | 5  | <p>Is there anything in this interview you thought I would ask but I didn't?<br/>Is there anything you want to add?</p>   |  |

## Appendix 5 Ethics approval form



Shaped by the past, creating the future

15 December 2015

Aliya Khasseneyeva  
EdD

[Aliya.khasseneyeva@durham.ac.uk](mailto:Aliya.khasseneyeva@durham.ac.uk)

Dear Aliya

**A case study of the conceptions of school internationalisation in a Kazakhstani secondary school.**

I am pleased to inform you that your application for ethical approval for the above research has been approved by the School of Education Ethics Committee. May we take this opportunity to wish you good luck with your research.

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "P. M. Holmes".

Dr. P. Holmes  
Chair of School of Education Ethics Committee

Leazes Road  
Durham, DH1 1TA  
Telephone +44 (0)191 334 2000 Fax +44 (0)191 334 8311  
[www.durham.ac.uk/education](http://www.durham.ac.uk/education)

## Appendix 6 Letter to the school head teacher

Re: Participation in Educational Research study

Confidential

Dear \_\_\_\_\_

I would like to request your permission to collect data related to the conceptions of a secondary school internationalisation in Kazakhstan. The purpose of my research is to explore the secondary schools' stakeholders' perceptions of the school internationalisation and if the school documents conceptualise school internationalisation in the same way.

Your identity and the information obtained in the school will remain confidential. All of the results will be kept confidential and secure. Only my supervisors will see the data. Pseudonyms will be used in place of school and all proper names. The risk involved for anyone who participates in the study is no more than one would encounter in everyday activities. The benefit involved is that the school stakeholders will add their perceptions to the data.

For questions regarding your rights as a subject contacts.

If you agree to participate in my research, please sign the enclosed Informed Consent Form. Please return the Informed Consent Form to me via e-mail.

I sincerely appreciate your taking the time to contribute to my research by participating in this study.

Respectfully yours,

A.

## **Appendix 8 School principal consent form**

Research study on the conceptions of a secondary school internationalisation in Kazakhstan.

School Principal Consent Form

I give consent for you to approach senior management team members, teachers, learners and parents to participate in the research study on the conceptions of a secondary school internationalisation in Kazakhstan.

I have read the Project Information Statement explaining the purpose of the research project and understand that:

- The role of the school is voluntary
- I may decide to withdraw the school's participation at any time without penalty
- The learners will be invited to participate and that permission will be sought from them and also from their parents.
- Only learners who consent and whose parents consent will participate in the project as well as only teachers and senior management team members who consent will participate in this study.
- All information obtained will be treated in strictest confidence.
- The participants' names will not be used and they will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study.
- The school will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study.
- Participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.
- A report of the findings will be made available to the school.
- I may seek further information on the project from Dr Oakleigh Welply via [oakliegh.welply@durham.ac.uk](mailto:oakliegh.welply@durham.ac.uk)

---

Principal

---

Signature

---

Date

Please return to: Aliya.khasseneyeva@durham.ac.uk

## **Appendix 7 Research Information statement.**

My name is Aliya Khasseneyeva, and I am an EdD student at Durham University. I am conducting research on the conceptions of a secondary school internationalisation in Kazakhstan under the supervision of Dr Per Kind and Dr Oakleigh Welply.

Aims of the Research

The research aims to:

- Explore the conceptions of a secondary school internationalisation by the school stakeholders.
- Explore the conceptions of a secondary school internationalisations in the school documents.

Significance of the Research

The research is significant in three ways:

1. It will provide information on the perceived school internationalisation in Kazakhstan.
2. It will provide the school stakeholders with greater understanding about school internationalisation.

Benefits of the Research to School

1. The results of the research will be shared with the school.
2. The results of the research may inform the curriculum internationalisation.

Permission will be sought from the senior management team members, the teachers, the learners and their parents prior to their participation in the research. Only those who consent and whose parents consent will participate. All information collected will be treated in strictest confidence and neither the school nor individual participants will be identifiable in any reports that are written. Participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. The role of the school is voluntary and the School Principal may decide to withdraw the school's participation at any time without penalty.

### **School Involvement**

Once I have received your consent to approach the school stakeholders to participate in the study, I will

- arrange for informed consent to be obtained from participants' parents (if they are minors).
- arrange time with your school for data collection to take place.
- obtain informed consent from participants.

Invitation to Participate

If you would like your school to participate in this research, please complete and return the attached form.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

## **Appendix 9 Informed consent form for the participants**

### **a) Adults**

#### **Declaration of Informed Consent**

- I agree to participate in this study, the purpose of which is to explore the school stakeholders' perceptions of the school internationalisation.
- I have read the participant information sheet and understand the information provided.
- I have been informed that I may decline to answer any questions or withdraw from the study without penalty of any kind.
- I have been informed that data collection will involve the use of recording devices.
- I have been informed that all of my responses will be kept confidential and secure, and that I will not be identified in any report or other publication resulting from this research.
- I have been informed that the investigator will answer any questions regarding the study and its procedures. Aliya Khasseneyeva, School of

Education, Durham University can be contacted via email:

[aliya.khasseneyeva@durham.ac.uk](mailto:aliya.khasseneyeva@durham.ac.uk) or [khasseneyeva\\_a@ast.nis.edu.kz](mailto:khasseneyeva_a@ast.nis.edu.kz)

- I will be provided with a copy of this form for my records.

Any concerns about this study should be addressed to the School of Education Ethics Sub-Committee, Durham University via email to [ed.ethics@durham.ac.uk](mailto:ed.ethics@durham.ac.uk).

---

|      |                                 |             |
|------|---------------------------------|-------------|
|      | Participant Name (please print) | Participant |
| Date |                                 | Signature   |

I certify that I have presented the above information to the participant and secured his or her consent.

---

|      |                           |
|------|---------------------------|
|      | Signature of Investigator |
| Date |                           |

## b) Minors (students)

### Parent/Guardian Informed Consent Agreement

**Please read this consent agreement carefully before you decide to allow your child to participate in the study.**

Dear parents,

Your child is invited to take part in a research study of “**The conceptions of curriculum internationalisation in a Kazakhstani secondary school**”. Please read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have before giving your consent. The study is conducted as part of my EdD studies at Durham University. This research project is supervised by Dr Oakleigh Welply ([oakleigh.welply@durham.ac.uk](mailto:oakleigh.welply@durham.ac.uk)) and Dr Per Kind ([p.m.kind@durham.ac.uk](mailto:p.m.kind@durham.ac.uk)) from the School of Education at Durham University.

Purpose of the research study: The purpose of the study is to learn what senior management team members, teachers, parents and students think about the school internationalisation and how it is implemented in the school.

What your child will do in the study: I will interview your child together with several other children from this school.

The study will take about 1 hour.

The interview with your child will take place at school without interrupting the lessons. Your child is free to decide whether or not to participate. If you agree to let your child participate, your child is free to withdraw at any time without any negative consequences.

All responses your child give will be kept confidential. The records of this study will be kept secure and private. All files containing any information your child gives are password protected. In any research report that may be published, no information will be included that will make it possible to identify you and your child individually. All the proper names will be replaced with pseudonyms. There will be no way to connect your child’s name to the responses at any time during or after the study. However, I cannot guarantee full confidentiality to your child because he/she will be interviewed in a group with other children. Therefore why others may know the information your child has shared

If you have any questions, requests or concerns regarding this research, please contact me via email at [aliya.khasseneyeva@durham.ac.uk](mailto:aliya.khasseneyeva@durham.ac.uk) or [khasseneyeva\\_a@ast.nis.edu.kz](mailto:khasseneyeva_a@ast.nis.edu.kz).

This study has been reviewed and approved by the School of Education Ethics Sub-Committee at Durham University (date of approval: 15/12/2015).

Agreement:

I agree to allow my child to participate in the research study described above.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

You will receive a copy of this form for your records

Aliya Khasseneyeva