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THE ROLE OF THE KOREAN DIASPORA IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN NORTHERN KAZAKHSTAN (1938-1980 yy.)

Abstract

This article examines the development of public education in Northern Kazakhstan from 1938 until the late 1980s., focusing on the role of the Korean diaspora. Following their deportation and subsequent adaptation, Koreans became actively involved in the region's educational system.

Before deportation, many Koreans had studied in educational institutions in the Far Eastern region or the RSFSR. After resettlement in Northern Kazakhstan, they continued their education in higher educational institutions of regional centers, particularly at the Kostanay Teachers' Institute, and later worked as teachers in urban and rural schools. Population growth and the evacuation of civilians, especially children, during the war significantly increased the demand for teaching staff.

Over time, Koreans established themselves as qualified and innovative educators, contributing to the education of several generations. Through sustained professional effort, they gained recognition as respected members of society; among them were Honored Teachers of the Republic of Kazakhstan and prominent scholars in the field of education.

Keywords: deportation, repression, resettlement, Korean diaspora, socio-economic development of Northern Kazakhstan, public education, Korean schools, Korean teachers.

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СОЛТҮСТІК ҚАЗАҚСТАНДАҒЫ КОРЕЙ ДИАСПОРАСЫНЫҢ ХАЛЫҚТЫҚ БІЛІМ БЕРУДІ ДАМУДАҒЫ РӨЛІ (1938-1980 жж.)

Аңдатпа

Мақалада корей диаспорасының қатысуы мысалында 1938 жылдан 1980 жылдардың аяғына дейін Қазақстанның солтүстігінде халықтық білім беруді дамыту қарастырылады. Депортациядан және кейіннен бейімделуден кейін корейлер аймақтың білім беру жүйесіне белсенді түрде қосылды. Депортацияға дейін корейлер Қиыр Шығыс аймағындағы немесе РСФСР-дегі оқу орындарында оқыды. Солтүстік Қазақстан аумағына қоныс аударғаннан кейін олар мүмкіндікті пайдаланып, облыс орталықтарының жоғары оқу орындарында, атап айтқанда Қостанай мұғалімдер институтында оқуын жалғастырды. Педагогикалық білім алғаннан кейін корей қоғамдастығының өкілдері өздерін қала және облыс мектептерінде педагог ретінде белсенді түрде жүзеге асырды. Соғыс кезеңінде халықтың өсуі және бейбіт тұрғындарды, әсіресе балаларды осы аймаққа эвакуациялау педагогикалық кадрларға деген қажеттілікті едәуір арттырды.

Корей педагогтары өздерін білім беру процесіне және жастардың бірнеше ұрпағын тәрбиелеуге елеулі үлес қосқан білікті жаңашыл ретінде көрсетті. Олар өздерінің қажырлы еңбектерімен елдің лайықты азаматтарының мәртебесін дәлелдеді. Олардың ішінде Қазақстан Республикасының еңбек сіңірген мұғалімдері мен ғалым-педагогтары бар, бұл отандық білім беру жүйесіндегі корей диаспорасының интеграциясы мен кәсіби дамуының жоғары деңгейін көрсетеді.

Түйінді сөздер: депортация, қуғын-сүргін, қоныс аудару, корей диаспорасы, Солтүстік Қазақстанның әлеуметтік-экономикалық дамуы, халыққа білім беру, корей мектептері, мұғалімдер.

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РОЛЬ КОРЕЙСКОЙ ДИАСПОРЫ В РАЗВИТИИ НАРОДНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ В СЕВЕРНОМ КАЗАХСТАНЕ (1938–1980 гг.)

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается развитие народного образования на севере Казахстана с 1938 года до конца 1980-х годов, на примере участия корейской диаспоры. После депортации и последующей адаптации корейцы активно включились в систему образования региона.

До депортации корейцы обучались в учебных заведениях Дальневосточного региона или РСФСР. После переселения на территорию Северного Казахстана, они воспользовались возможностью и продолжили учиться в вузах областных центров, в частности в Кустанайском учительском институте. Получив педагогическое образование, представители корейской общины активно реализовали себя в качестве педагогов в школах города и области. Рост населения и эвакуация гражданских лиц, особенно детей, в период войны в этот регион, значительно увеличил потребность в педагогических кадрах.

Корейские педагоги проявили себя как квалифицированные новаторы, внесшие значительный вклад в образовательный процесс и воспитание нескольких поколений молодежи. Они убедительно доказали своим упорным трудом статус достойных граждан страны. Среди них имеются заслуженные учителя Республики Казахстан и ученые-педагоги, что свидетельствует о высоком уровне интеграции и профессионального развития корейской диаспоры в отечественной системе образования.

Ключевые слова: депортация, репрессии, переселение, корейская диаспора, социально-экономическое развитие Северного Казахстана, народное образование, корейские школы, учителя.

Introduction

The education system of the Republic of Kazakhstan has developed in conditions of ethnic and cultural diversity, making the interaction between state educational institutions and ethnic communities an important subject of historical research. The Korean diaspora of Northern Kazakhstan is of particular interest because its formation and development were closely connected with deportation, resettlement, social adaptation, and integration into Soviet society.

The Korean diaspora in Northern Kazakhstan emerged as a result of the forced resettlement of Koreans from the Soviet Far East in the late 1930s. These processes affected patterns of settlement, access to education, professional trajectories, and the preservation of ethnocultural identity. Under Soviet conditions, when institutional opportunities for maintaining national cultural practices were limited, education became an important channel of social mobility, professional development, and integration into the wider society.

Education should therefore be considered not only as an institutional mechanism for transmitting knowledge but also as a sphere in which socialization, professional formation, and cultural practices intersected. In the multiethnic regions of Northern Kazakhstan, schools and pedagogical institutions operated within a state system that increasingly emphasized common educational standards while also responding, at different periods, to the needs of ethnic groups. This creates a basis for examining the relationship between educational integration and the preservation of elements of Korean cultural identity.

The historiography provides a general framework for understanding these processes, but the educational history of Koreans in Northern Kazakhstan remains insufficiently studied as a distinct regional problem. V.A. Ten and Ten V.A. and B.B. Pak examined deportation and the fate of Far Eastern Koreans on the basis of archival materials [1]. G.K. Zadorozhny studied the development of schools in Kazakhstan in 1946–1970 [2], while I.K. Ternovoy examined the organization and development of pedagogical institutes [3]. D.V. Men focused on the Korean intelligentsia in Kazakhstan [4], and Kim Seung Hwa addressed the history of Soviet Koreans [5].

N.F. Bugai's studies examined the deportation of peoples of the USSR and the forced resettlement of Koreans from the Far East to Central Asia and Kazakhstan [6]. B.R. Sherniyazdanov and K.G. Akanov considered the historical memory and adaptation experience of Koreans deported to Kazakhstan [7]. After 1991, research on Korean history in Kazakhstan expanded substantially. G.V. Kan and other scholars contributed to the formation of Korean studies in Kazakhstan [8]. The publication of Koreans of Kazakhstan: An Illustrated History [9] and the multi-volume History of Koreans in Kazakhstan [10] further broadened the documentary and historiographical basis of the field [11]. These studies provide important contextual information, but they do not fully reconstruct the regional dynamics of public education and the development of Korean teaching personnel in Northern Kazakhstan.

The research gap addressed in this article concerns the insufficiently systematized study of the participation of the Korean population in public education in Northern Kazakhstan from the late 1930s to the final Soviet decades. Particular attention is paid to changes in the network of schools, the position of Korean-language education, access to secondary and higher education, teacher training, and the relationship between migration, urbanization, and educational trajectories.

The aim of the study is to reconstruct and interpret the role of the Korean diaspora in the development of public education in Northern Kazakhstan from the late 1930s to the dissolution of the Soviet Union, with particular attention to school education, teacher training, educational mobility, and the preservation of Korean-language and cultural practices.

The study addresses the following research questions:

1. How did Soviet educational policies affect the organization of education for Korean children in Northern Kazakhstan?
2. How did the number and professional composition of Korean teachers change during the Soviet period?
3. What relationship can be identified between migration, urbanization, and the educational trajectories of Korean youth?
4. To what extent did the expansion of access to public and higher education coexist with the reduction of institutional opportunities for Korean-language education?

Materials and Methods

The study is based on archival documents, statistical materials, published documentary collections, historiographical works, and memoir and interview materials cited in the manuscript. Archival materials were examined in the Central State Archive of the Republic of Kazakhstan, the Archive of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, and regional archives, including the State Archives of the North Kazakhstan and Kostanay regions. The principal documentary groups include fonds of administrative

institutions, educational authorities, and economic and cultural organizations. Some of the archival documents cited in the article are introduced into scholarly circulation for the first time.

The source base is uneven because access to some archival fonds remains limited as a result of incomplete declassification. For this reason, the authors used source triangulation: information from administrative records was compared, where possible, with statistical data, correspondence, reports, published documentary collections, and memoir or interview evidence. This procedure was used to reduce dependence on a single type of source and to identify discrepancies between official policy statements and their implementation at the regional level.

The research employs several specific historical methods. The historical-genetic method was used to trace changes in Korean educational institutions and teaching personnel over time. The problem-chronological method was used to organize the material into the main stages of the period: deportation and wartime adaptation; postwar expansion of education; the reduction of Korean-language schooling; and the development of professional and higher education in the 1960s–1980s. The comparative-historical method was used to compare educational conditions in different northern regions and to compare policy decisions with their documented regional implementation.

Source criticism was applied to establish the provenance, purpose, authorship, and institutional context of archival documents and to distinguish normative decisions from evidence of their implementation. Documentary content analysis was used to identify recurring themes in reports, memoranda, correspondence, and statistical records, including school attendance, teacher staffing, language of instruction, educational infrastructure, and migration. Statistical analysis was used to interpret quantitative indicators of schools, pupils, teachers, migration, and educational attainment. Historical hermeneutics was used to interpret the meaning of administrative terminology and policy language within the political and institutional context of the Soviet period.

The study also uses institutional and structural-functional approaches to examine public education as a system of interconnected schools, pedagogical institutes, administrative bodies, teachers, pupils, and families. The systems approach makes it possible to relate changes in educational institutions to broader processes of migration, urbanization, labor demand, and social integration. The principles of historicism and objectivity guide the interpretation of sources, while conclusions are limited to what can be supported by the available documentary evidence.

Results

The development of Kazakhstan's general education system from 1941 to the 1970s should be considered in the context of the country's major socio-political changes. The Great Patriotic War had a direct impact on school staffing, pupil attendance, educational resources, and the organization of teaching.

The following document illustrates this:

“Order No. 803 of November 2, 1941, issued by the Regional Department of Public Education (OblONO) No. 1. Comrade P.P. Choi is to be relieved of his duties as director of the Aleksandrovskaya Secondary School of the Kostanay District on the basis of his submitted request (departure to the front). Acting Head of OblONO, Koshkina”[12, L.4].

Samson Grigorievich Kvan was likewise mobilized to the front. He was wounded several times, returned to his unit, and later sustained a severe injury during the Battle of Stalingrad. After the victory, he graduated from the Karaganda Medical Institute and worked as a physician-radiologist in the city hospital of Kostanay[13, L.1].

Koreans were employed predominantly in agriculture, while public education became one of the important professional spheres available to them. As a result, Korean professional trajectories were concentrated in both agricultural and intellectual occupations. The destruction of part of the Korean intelligentsia during the 1930s increased the importance of professional training and the formation of a new educated stratum. During the war, Korean teachers, like other educators, faced the additional task of teaching and caring for children and adolescents under difficult social and material conditions.

Owing to the mass evacuation of people from frontline cities and regions, as well as from Moscow and Leningrad, the population of Kazakhstan increased significantly. According to archival data on

evacuees relocated from the western regions of the USSR to the northern regions in 1941–1942 [14, L.1], as of October 15, 1941, 22 percent of all evacuees sent to Kazakhstan settled in the northern regions; from October 15, 1941, to January 1, 1943, this figure was approximately 17 percent. In total, the evacuated population of the northern region amounted to 137,765 persons, while across Kazakhstan the figure reached 870,620 persons, or 15 percent of all evacuees to the Kazakh SSR.

Among the arrivals were school-age children; the children of the local population and resettlers continued their studies, and children's homes from the Moscow region were also evacuated. Thus, the education system continued to function. These difficulties were characteristic of the wartime period: there was a shortage of teachers and school supplies, and many families were in dire conditions; children often lacked writing materials, clothing, and food. Despite the influx of evacuees, population density in the northern regions remained low. School classes were disrupted for four main reasons, jointly or separately [15, L.267]: low attendance; shortage of teaching staff; insufficient funding due to diversion of resources to military needs; and the remoteness of schools from pupils' places of residence.

To trace the development of Korean schools in the northern region, it is necessary to turn to the prewar years, which makes the subsequent dynamics (or regression) more visible. By 1939, two schools with 280 Korean pupils each operated in northern Kazakhstan, in the Kostanay and North Kazakhstan regions [16, L.17]. By the end of 1940–early 1941, these schools ceased to operate as Korean-language schools and were reorganized. This followed a 1938 decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party (Bolsheviks) of Kazakhstan, “On the Reorganization of National Schools” [17, L.2], which declared the continued existence of separate national schools and special departments within Soviet schools harmful. The resolution stated that bourgeois nationalists working within the public education system of the Kazakh SSR had established special national schools (German, Bulgarian, Korean, Dungan, and others), turning them into centers of bourgeois-nationalist and anti-Soviet influence on children.

Documents concerning Korean schools in 1938–1939 contain apparently contradictory information. Rather than resolving the discrepancy through assumption, the documents should be read as evidence of changing administrative directives. The available records indicate that the policy toward separate national schools was revised and that Korean teachers continued to work in the education system despite these institutional changes [18, L.29].

It is noteworthy that during the war Koreans were increasingly appointed to district- and city-level leadership positions. This tendency indicates the growing authority, competence, Russian-language proficiency, responsibility, and diligence of Koreans, as well as the respect they commanded. They headed collective farms, including non-Korean ones, such as Pak Ki Boi, B.G. Choi, Li Gi Seb, A.I. Shegai, N.A. Hegai, and Pak M.; they also served as deputy heads of enterprises, machine-tractor stations, procurement offices, and construction organizations (V.P. Shegai, Nikolai Choi, Nikolai Pak, Pak Sen Man). School directors included L.M. Pak, A.B. Ten, A.M. Pak, S.B. Kim, K.E. Khan, and others. During this period, the Korean intelligentsia, particularly within the teaching profession, was formed and strengthened.

After the end of the Great Patriotic War, educational problems could not be resolved quickly. Korean teachers had to improve their Russian-language proficiency, as they worked in regular Russian-language schools. The implementation of universal compulsory education required the involvement of school-age children, as well as adolescents who had participated in wartime labor, in order to complete seven-year schooling. The loss of breadwinners in many families forced children and adolescents to engage in work inappropriate for their age: they left school and worked in industry, households, or collective farms. This situation is documented in the Decision of the Executive Committee of the Kostanay Region No. 94 of February 14, 1956, “On the Results of the Work of Schools of the Region for the First Half of the 1955–1956 Academic Year.” The document states that 1,248 students in the region were not attending school without valid reasons. Particularly high numbers were recorded in Dzhetysay (141 person), the Karabalyk district (146 person), and Zhetysay (125 person). Academic performance in the region was low: out of 72,965 students, only 12,328 were achieving satisfactory

results (17 percent). Performance was especially low in the Taranov district, where 18.7 percent of 4,534 pupils showed unsatisfactory results; in Kostanay city, 1,588 out of 8,482 pupils were failing in several subjects. OblONO officials identified insufficient professional training of teachers as a key factor and emphasized the need for improved qualification of teaching staff. Reassignment of teachers also occurred, with transfers from senior grades to primary levels in Russian-language schools. In other words, personnel were considered the key factor. Moreover, the war deprived many children of parental care and shelter, which increased the demand for trained caregivers in children's homes.

From 1945 to 1958, the number of seven-year schools attended by Korean children increased from 37 to 66, and the number of secondary schools from 12 to 22; many young men and women entered higher educational institutions, as higher education increasingly became a pathway into various professional spheres [19,p.212]. Teachers of Korean nationality returned from the labor army, and attention turned to the future. Education was widely regarded within the Korean community as a guarantee of a stable future.

The postwar decade was significant for the Korean population because instruction in the native language was practiced in schools of the Kazakh SSR that had a sufficient number of Korean pupils. Where the proportion of the Korean population was high or where they lived in compact settlements, it was considered feasible to maintain a staff of Korean-language teachers. However, archival evidence indicates an opposite trend.

A characteristic example is the memorandum of A. Sembaev, Deputy Minister of Education of the Kazakh SSR, addressed to Suzhikov, Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan, dated September 19, 1953, "On the State of the Education of Children of Korean Nationality in the Schools of the Republic" [20, L.32]. The memorandum notes that children of Korean nationality were mainly educated in Russian-language schools. The study of the native language beyond the standard curriculum, it argued, would overload pupils; therefore, adjustments were proposed, namely, that Korean-language instruction be introduced at the expense of Kazakh-language lessons. Sembaev also stated that the necessary conditions existed, including teaching staff and literature, which was planned to be supplied through the Moscow book distribution agency (Moskovskiy knigotorg).

On December 26, 1953, Protocol No. 34 of the Secretariat of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan recorded the approval of the Ministry of Education's proposal to introduce Korean-language study and literary reading in selected schools with Korean pupils. The Ministry of Education was instructed to provide teachers, textbooks, teaching aids, and curricula. The document was signed by Zh. Shayakhmetov, Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan [21, L.32]. This decision indicates that limited institutional support for Korean-language education remained possible in the mid-1950s.

However, five years later, according to an information note of the Ministry of Education of the Kazakh SSR requested by the Department of Science, Higher Educational Institutions, and Schools of the Central Committee (May 15, 1958), officials considered it inexpedient to transfer Korean pupils to instruction in their native language in all subjects. This decision was justified by the insufficient concentration of the Korean population required to open separate schools or parallel classes, as well as the lack of material and technical resources, including textbooks and teaching aids in the Korean language for all subjects.

An analysis of these documents reveals a persistent tendency, also reflected in a letter addressed to N.I. Belyaev, a member of the Presidium of the Central Committee of the CPSU, dated May 12, 1958, and signed by Nam Kharen, executive editor of the newspaper "Lenin Kichi". The letter emphasizes that, in the Far East, Korean national culture had been represented by theaters, libraries, radio broadcasting, two higher educational institutions, and five secondary specialized institutions, and that five national newspapers had been published. In the Kazakh SSR, the Korean intelligentsia continued to grow; however, a critical situation had developed in the preservation of national culture, especially the language.

In support of Nam Kharen's statement, the following facts may be cited. In the northern regions of Kazakhstan, no schools offering instruction in the Korean language remained [22, L.4], while three

schools in the southern regions taught children without textbooks or curricula. Across the republic, only seven teachers had a good command of the Korean language [23, L.4].

The use of the Korean language had been reduced to a minimum, confined to the narrow sphere of everyday communication. With subsequent generations, even this sphere of use in many families gradually declined as representatives of the older generation passed away. National schools could have been partially preserved through the establishment of boarding schools, but this required a locally concentrated Korean population, which was possible only in the southern regions of the republic [24, p. 69].

The reorganization of the republic's school network continued until 1970, with schools being consolidated. In the northern regions of Kazakhstan, for example, the situation in Pavlodar region was as follows: rural schools totaled 526, including 230 primary schools, 185 eight-year schools, and 111 secondary schools [25, L.20]. The number of childcare institutions and children enrolled in them was as follows: in rural districts, 200 preschool institutions serving 12,193 children; in the cities of Pavlodar, Ekibastuz, and Ermak, 98 institutions serving 16,847 children [26, L.23]. At the same time, there were no schools offering Korean-language instruction.

As part of the consolidation policy, small rural settlements were gradually phased out; policy dictated that work brigades and farm sections should function only as places of employment rather than residential settlements [27, L.12]. For example, state farms in the Kzyl-Tu district of the Kokchetav region had 36 schools, 20 houses of culture and clubs, 26 libraries, 20 kindergartens and nurseries, 10 hospitals, 142 shops, 21 canteens, and four state-farm technical schools.

A comprehensive plan for educational development in the 1970s was adopted in the republic. Although not without shortcomings, archival evidence shows that its implementation produced positive results. In the northern region, small rural schools were eliminated while the number of secondary schools increased. In a number of regions and districts, pupils were provided with free meals in school canteens. Universal compulsory education policies were also implemented at large industrial enterprises, where schools for working youth, vocational schools, and technical colleges were established [28, L.20; L.69–70].

A significant factor influencing fluctuations in the school-age population was internal migration within the Kazakh SSR. The most intensive exchange occurred between the Kokchetav, Karaganda, Kustanay, North Kazakhstan, and Tselinograd regions. In this migration flow, children under 16 years of age constituted 41.6 percent, while Korean children accounted for only 0.2 percent. The share of children under six years of age - potential first graders declined in both urban and rural areas, and no Korean children were recorded in this category.

Another illustrative fact is as follows. By 1968, summaries on the number of groups and pupils studying their native language in Russian-language schools in the Kokchetav region provided data for only two languages: Kazakh and German; no reference to the Korean language appears. Although school directors (Krasnoyarsk Secondary School, N.V. Tyan; Stepnyak Boarding School of the Enbekshilder District, V.G. Pak) proposed establishing extracurricular clubs for the study of the Korean language and culture for the general development of Korean children, these initiatives were rejected [29, L.2, 4].

These data suggest that migration and demographic change affected the size and distribution of the school-age population. For cohorts born in 1962–1964, the birth rate fell to approximately seven per 100 population, indicating a demographic decline. The available evidence therefore points to the interaction of demographic change, migration, and the reorganization of the educational network.

The first group to leave were the evacuees, who returned to the liberated European regions of the USSR. Later, following the 20th Congress of the CPSU and the permission granted to deported peoples to leave Kazakhstan and return to their historical homelands, peoples of the North Caucasus made use of this opportunity. In the postwar years, migration flows remained relatively stable, with the final evacuees leaving Kazakhstan. At the same time, a counter-wave of deportees and exiles arrived: individuals who had been in Nazi captivity, former “Vlasovites,” members of the OUN, those labeled

“enemies of the people,” as well as new waves of special settlers, German and Japanese prisoners of war. Karlag and Steplag labor camps continued to operate, and campaigns such as the “Doctors’ Plot,” along with other ideological prosecutions and accusations of sabotage during postwar reconstruction, resulted in the arrival of members of the intelligentsia, many of whom later became part of Kazakhstan’s intelligentsia. These processes, however, did not yet significantly affect Koreans, who remained in Kazakhstan, worked, studied, and generally did not seek to return to the Far East, as mass rehabilitation after the 20th Congress of the CPSU did not extend to them [30, L.2].

In the North Kazakhstan region, in 1970, 1,111 adolescents aged 16–17 moved from rural areas to cities, of whom 900 were girls (30 were Korean, or 0.03 percent). Of these, 20 percent entered city schools, 60 percent secondary specialized educational institutions (SSUZ), and 20 percent evening schools [31, L.4].

In the Pavlodar region, an analysis of migration motives and age groups showed two primary migration routes: from village to city and from region to region. In both cases, migrants sought more favorable living conditions and more promising employment, and urban infrastructure attracted rural residents. A total of 970 respondents completed questionnaires in Pavlodar. Among them, 144 were school-age children, 319 were aged 20–29, 122 were aged 30–39, 137 were aged 40–49, and 248 were aged 50 and older. According to the survey results, only four Korean families changed their place of residence: one moved to the Far East, one moved from region to region, and two moved from village to city.

A shortage of teaching staff emerged, as additional classes were created in urban schools of the northern regions. Urbanization required mid-level specialists, and the inflow of pupils into vocational schools increased; moving to the city also forced young people to resolve the dilemma of employment and further education. In the Pavlodar region alone, more than fifteen enterprises required young qualified workers [32, L.6], as the regional demand for labor in January 1970 amounted to 11,114 workers [33, L.12].

An important role in addressing teacher training problems was played by the government decision to unify pedagogical institutes and teacher-training colleges under the Ministry of Education. In Kazakhstan, 17 pedagogical institutes and 18 pedagogical colleges were transferred to the Ministry’s jurisdiction. This reform made the accounting, recruitment, training, and placement of young specialists, as well as staff retraining and pedagogical practice, more efficient. Links between higher and secondary specialized institutions and schools were strengthened. Korean representatives of the intelligentsia increasingly appeared among academic staff and played a leading role in a number of higher educational institutions. By the 1970s, Koreans were widely represented among qualified teachers who continued to improve their professional skills [34, L.15].

Regional Councils of Working People’s Deputies in northern Kazakhstan were instructed to accelerate the implementation of universal compulsory education. Decisions on the placement of schools in districts of the Kostanay region depended on economic conditions, demographic factors, and educational needs, a pattern typical for all northern regions of Kazakhstan.

Pedagogical institutes (Pavlodar, Kokchetav named after Ch. Valikhanov, Kostanay, Petropavlovsk) and teacher-training colleges operated in regional centers. Among their graduates were Korean teachers who received state honors: Honored Teacher of the Republic (Kvon E.), four recipients of the title “Excellent Worker of Public Education of the USSR,” and four awarded the badge “For Excellent Work” [35].

The educational attainment of Korean teachers in the northern region increased between 1980 and 1990. Their number rose from 29 (19 women) to 66 (51 women). The number with higher education increased from 28 in 1980 to 64 in 1990. The proportion of experienced specialists also grew: in 1980, seven teachers had 11–15 years of experience and twelve had more than 15 years; by 1990, these figures had increased to 15 and 28, respectively [36, L.9, 11, 34]. Korean teachers represented disciplines including mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, history, primary education, and vocational training. The data also indicate a continuing increase in the proportion of women in the teaching profession.

By 1970, the population of the Kazakh SSR exceeded 13 million, including 81,000 Koreans (0.6 percent), 84.2 percent of whom lived in urban areas. Internal migration within the USSR declined to a negative balance in the mid-1970s; by 1990, emigration from the Kazakh SSR reached 92,300 persons, mainly Germans and Jews. Migration intentions among Koreans, however, remained minimal, and their natural population growth during this period amounted to 12.3 percent [37, p.1-3].

Deportation, resettlement, and adaptation constituted a long process of establishing new patterns of residence, employment, and social participation. The archival evidence demonstrates the expansion of Korean participation in agriculture, education, medicine, and other professional spheres. In the educational field, the growth of the teaching workforce and educational attainment indicates the formation of a stable professional stratum within the Korean population of Northern Kazakhstan.

Discussion

The results demonstrate a complex relationship between the expansion of public education and the preservation of Korean-language education. The archival record shows that Korean children were incorporated into the general Soviet school system, while opportunities for separate Korean-language schooling narrowed. The 1938 reorganization of national schools and the subsequent closure or transformation of Korean-language schools created the institutional conditions for this transition. At the same time, the 1953 decision to introduce Korean-language study in selected schools shows that the policy was not entirely uniform and could allow limited forms of language instruction under specific administrative and demographic conditions.

These findings complement the historiographical conclusions of studies devoted to Soviet educational development, deportation, and the Korean intelligentsia [2–7]. Previous research established the broader context of deportation, adaptation, and educational development, whereas the archival evidence examined here makes it possible to specify how these processes unfolded in Northern Kazakhstan. In particular, the regional documents show that the disappearance of Korean-language schools did not mean the exclusion of Koreans from education. On the contrary, Koreans increasingly participated in the common Russian-language school system and in pedagogical and higher educational institutions.

The quantitative evidence concerning Korean teachers provides an additional dimension to this process. Between 1980 and 1990, the number of Korean teachers in the northern region increased from 29 to 66, while the number with higher education rose from 28 to 64 [36, L.9, 11, 34]. This indicates the consolidation of a qualified professional stratum. The evidence is consistent with the broader historiographical emphasis on the development of the Korean intelligentsia in Kazakhstan [4, 8–11], while providing a more specific regional illustration of that process.

Migration and urbanization also influenced educational trajectories. The data for Northern Kazakhstan and Pavlodar show that movement from rural areas to cities was associated with access to schools, secondary specialized institutions, employment, and urban infrastructure. At the same time, the very small share of Korean children in some migration flows indicates that the educational changes observed in the region cannot be explained by Korean migration alone. Rather, Korean educational trajectories were embedded in broader demographic, economic, and institutional transformations of Soviet Northern Kazakhstan.

The evidence therefore suggests that integration into the Soviet public education system and the weakening of institutional Korean-language education developed simultaneously. Education created opportunities for social mobility and professional advancement, particularly through teacher training and higher education, but these opportunities increasingly operated through common Soviet educational institutions rather than separate national schools. This dual process helps explain how the Korean population could achieve a relatively high level of educational and professional participation while the institutional use of the Korean language in Northern Kazakhstan declined.

5. Conclusion

The study shows that the development of public education among the Korean population of Northern Kazakhstan proceeded through several interconnected stages. The late 1930s and wartime period were characterized by forced resettlement, adaptation to new regional conditions, and the reorganization of the educational network. In the postwar period, access to seven-year, secondary, specialized secondary, and higher education expanded, while the institutional basis of separate Korean-language schooling became progressively narrower.

The archival evidence identifies a significant discrepancy between the formal recognition of the possibility of Korean-language instruction and the conditions for its sustained implementation. The 1953 decision to introduce Korean-language study in selected schools was followed by the 1958 assessment that transferring Korean pupils to instruction in their native language in all subjects was impractical because of population concentration and shortages of textbooks and teaching materials [20–23]. By the late 1960s, archival records from the northern regions no longer document functioning Korean-language schools, and proposals for extracurricular Korean-language and cultural activities were not implemented [29].

At the same time, the reduction of Korean-language schooling did not prevent the development of educational and professional mobility. The number of Korean teachers in the northern region increased from 29 in 1980 to 66 in 1990, while the number with higher education increased from 28 to 64 [36, L.9, 11, 34]. Korean teachers worked across a broad range of disciplines and participated in schools and higher educational institutions. These findings indicate the formation of a stable Korean professional and intellectual stratum within the common Soviet educational system.

The study therefore concludes that the role of the Korean diaspora in Northern Kazakhstan's public education was expressed primarily through participation in and professional development within the state educational system rather than through the long-term preservation of separate Korean-language institutions. Migration, urbanization, demographic change, and state educational policy jointly shaped these trajectories. The findings refine the existing historiography by demonstrating, on the basis of regional archival evidence, how educational integration and the decline of institutional Korean-language schooling occurred simultaneously during the Soviet period.

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