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Kazakhstani In-Service Teachers' Views on Implementing the Trilingual Education Policy through Pedagogical Translanguaging

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Abstract

Bilingual and trilingual education is becoming the new normality where the use of multiple languages are targeted toward teaching both language and content subjects. Kazakhstan, which is known for its unique bilingual-making history, is now embracing trilingualism or the policy of the "Trinity of Languages" as the policymakers usually refer to it. The policy expects secondary schools to shift to trilingual schooling which essentially puts the in-service teachers in a very challenging position. This is because the three languages in the policy which are Kazakh, Russian, and English were assigned as the mediums of instruction making it important to investigate the policy's main implementers' attitude towards it. As in such trilingual contexts, the use of multiple languages tends to be present in classroom spaces, this research sets out to explore it from a pedagogical translanguaging perspective. In this research study, I explored Kazakhstani in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging in implementing the policy, whether their attitudes influence their teaching practices, and what strategies they employ to incorporate pedagogical translanguaging into their teaching. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews with eleven in-service teachers who were purposefully selected for the study in accordance with the inclusion criteria. Besides the in-depth semi-structured interviews, I also conducted lesson observations with each of the eleven teachers, and document analysis was also included as a triangulation method.

The findings of this study highlighted the fact that the in-service teachers had varying opinions and attitudes toward pedagogical translanguaging, and these were mostly reflected in the ways they taught in classroom spaces. The document analysis showed some aspects of mismatch and ongoing changes and setbacks to the policy. In view of these findings, the study provides implications for future research as well as recommendations for different stakeholders where the teachers' professional development specifically in translanguaging awareness is identified as one of the most important aspects of implementing the policy.

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A list of key terms and abbreviations

Codeswitching	"the alternate use of two languages" (Grosjean, 2010, p. 52)
Codemixing	"the mixing of various linguistic units… primarily from two participating grammatical systems within a sentence" (Kim, 2006, p. 45)
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EMI	English medium of instruction
Plurilingualism	"captures individuals' dynamic, fluid and constantly evolving repertoire, accentuating day-to-day interactions and tasks that may require different languages and/or dialects" (Galante, 2022, p. 478)
TEP	Trilingual Education Policy
Translanguaging	"multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds" (García, 2009, p. 45)

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to present the rationale for this research study and the reasons for exploring the subject under discussion. The chapter begins with research aims which provides an explanation on what this thesis work focuses on. Next, research significance is discussed along with the identification of the research gaps. This is followed by identifying three research questions that were formulated to guide this research study. The researcher's positionality and biographical segments are also presented which identify the ways in which they are linked to this research study.

Lastly, the chapter provides a theoretical paradigm, and a brief discussion of the educational system in Kazakhstan as well as presents the structure of the thesis which gives an overview of the five chapters that constitute this thesis work.

1.2 Research Aims

Kazakhstan became the first country in Central Asia to implement the trilingual education policy or the "Trinity of Languages" as it is officially being referred to. The adoption of this language policy is now as Karabassova (2022) perfectly noted became "a hot potato issue in Kazakhstan" (p. 789) and I would also add that even now the policy is still on everyone's lips and attracts different stakeholders' interest to this day. The policy undertakes a top-down approach (Goodman & Karabassova, 2018; Karabassova, 2020; 2021; 2022) and first existed in a form of discourse until the government began actively pushing the idea of trilingual teaching and learning which eventually mandated certain types of schools to become trilingual and start the implementation of the trilingual education. This, in turn, brought many changes to the school system where one of the main changes consisted of adopting the three languages (Kazakh, Russian, and English) as the mediums of instruction

for a specific set of disciplines. By doing so the policy intends to target the development of the students' proficiencies in Kazakh, Russian, and English languages and also to grow and educate a multilingual speaking generation (Karabassova, 2020). As a result, the teachers are expected to teach in accordance with the assigned medium of instruction (Kazakh, Russian, and English) making this context an interesting case for research for several reasons.

First of all, as mentioned at the beginning of this section Kazakhstan seems to be the first Central Asian country to switch from bilingual education to trilingual; meaning that the country will have to develop its own model of trilingualism without being able to adopt a model from a neighbouring country with a similar language and historical background. Second of all, the country will be among the first ones to implement a trilingual education policy with languages that do not originate from the same language groups (Sarmurzin et al., 2023). Other countries with a longstanding history of implementing trilingual education and schooling such as Luxembourg (Luxembourgish, French, and German) and Friesland (Frisian, Dutch, and English) teach through the languages that come from the same or similar language family groups. This means that in the case of Luxembourg, the languages such as Luxembourgish, French, and German belong to West Germanic, and similarly in Friesland the languages such as Frisian, Dutch, and English also come from a West Germanic group. However, when it comes to Kazakhstan, the three languages which are Kazakh, Russian, and English come from different language groups (Sarmurzin et al., 2023) making this policy both unique and challenging at the same time.

While there are a number of obvious advantages and perspectives of the policy, it still raises numerous concerns and doubts in regard to its implementation (Bakytzhanova, 2018; Karabassova, 2019; 2020; 2021), teacher readiness (Karabassova & San Isidro, 2020; Klyshbekova, 2023; Mehisto et al., 2022), teacher resistance (Karabassova, 2020), and most importantly, the appointment of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) (Goodman & Karabassova, 2018; Klyshbekova, 2020; Yessenbekova, 2023).

Undoubtedly, one of the key issues that this policy presents is the English language becoming the medium of instruction for science-based subjects which are Chemistry, Physics, Biology, and Computer Science (Karabassova, 2019; 2020; 2021; Mehisto et al., 2022). This initiative puts teachers, especially those whose mediums of instruction had to be changed, in a quite challenging position. As part of the policy, these teachers are expected to not only deliver the content of their disciplines but also have the capacity to teach through the assigned medium of instruction. Clearly, this aspect forms the main backbone of this research in which the core aim is to explore specifically in-service teachers' views and implementation of the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan; especially those who had been affected by the imposed requirements of the policy.

Inspired by my personal reflections, positionality, interest in "multilingual selves" (Henry & Thorsen, 2018; Thompson, 2020) and "lingua franca multilingualism" (Makoni & Pennycook, 2012) I decided to embark on this research journey from a pedagogical translanguaging perspective which is now experiencing an upsurge in a scholarly context where its role is being explored in trilingual and multilingual settings (Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Cenoz & Gorter, 2021; Galante, 2020; Leonet et al., 2017; Wong & Tai, 2023; Zhang & Chan, 2022). Pedagogical translanguaging is an instructional approach that enables the teacher to use an entire linguistic repertoire the students have at their disposal in order to: a) create a metalinguistic awareness (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017;); b) make meaning (Tai & Li Wei, 2021b); c) cultivate the students' multilingual identities (Seltzer & Garcia, 2019); d) and most importantly to create "a better balance of language and content" (Cenoz & Santos, 2020, p. 7).

When introducing the policy to the public the former President of the country Nursultan Nazarbayev kept making references to European countries where multilingualism has become a normality (Karabassova, 2020) and thus asserted that Kazakhs should also strive to achieve the command of the three languages. As the trilingual education policy in

Kazakhstan is positioning itself as aiming at strengthening and developing multilingualism it is important to explore it from this perspective by adopting the pedagogical translanguaging lens and understanding its role in this specific context's language policy. Therefore, through this multilingual inquiry, this research aims to explore and understand the following key aspects: a) the in-service teachers' attitudes toward pedagogical translanguaging; b) the in-service teachers' use of the pedagogical translanguaging practice in implementing the trilingual education policy; c) the strategies that in-service teachers use to incorporate the pedagogical translanguaging practice into their teaching; d) the role of pedagogical translanguaging in official policy related documents. On top of this, the research study aims not only to add and contribute to this field of knowledge but also to develop the different stakeholders' understanding of the concept of translanguaging by exploring the policy from this perspective. Lastly, it is hoped that by conducting this research, pedagogical translanguaging will receive attention in the Kazakhstani context and be considered as a legitimate teaching strategy that can be part of both bilingual and multilingual classrooms. It is also hoped that the research will stimulate more Kazakhstani researchers to explore the issue of language policy and planning from this standpoint.

While in this section I provided a brief overview of the research and its aims, the next section identifies the research gap and provides the reasons that contribute to this specific research being significant and worthy of study.

1.3 Research Gaps

While there are a number of studies conducted on Kazakhstani trilingual education policy seeking pre-service teachers' views (Kydyrbayeva et al., 2021), parents' views (Kambatyrova, 2020), and students' views (Aubakirova, 2017), there is still lack of studies done that explore the views and experiences of the main people behind the policy who are

required to implement it, namely in-service teachers. Karabassova (2020, p. 49) perfectly noted that:

> While the trilingual policy was being introduced, parents and students were asked their opinion to some extent, but teachers were never consulted.

Therefore, as a way of addressing this urgent need and the contextual research gap, the in-service teachers were chosen as main participants of this research study. As this group of teachers are being called “change agents" of the policy (Karabassova, 2022) i.e., they are the key people to implement the policy, it is important to seek their views and attitudes toward the policy, and at the same time understand how they are approaching the implementation and acting as “change agents” (Karabassova, 2022). Besides, it is equally important to explore if these teachers are experiencing challenges (i.e., language barrier) when it comes to implementing the policy and whether they are “allowed” to compensate for these challenges or “language barriers” by resorting to other languages. On top of that it is equally important to note that there is a dearth of studies in identifying how these teachers cope with language barriers, their selection of languages, and lastly which teaching strategies they tend to use. Interestingly, there is also a moderate amount of studies and literature on trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan as a whole. To compare, in a recent systematic review study conducted by Sarmurzin et al. (2023) they were able to identify only 37 articles that fit their criteria whereas another study in a different trilingual setting in Europe was able to identify 145 articles (Alcántara et al., 2023). Besides this, to the best of my knowledge, there is no previous study that explored the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan from a pedagogical translanguaging perspective before. Given the rise of studies on the role of pedagogical translanguaging conducted in such settings as China (Zhang & Chan, 2022), Canada (Galante, 2020), South Africa (Schoeman et al., 2023), Spain (Cenoz & Santos, 2020) and USA (Wong & Tai, 2023), Kazakhstan’s case will add interesting insights to this growing scholarly field and possibly bring important recommendations for different stakeholders including the policymakers who introduced the policy on a top-down basis.

1.4 Research Significance

While identifying the potential gaps in the chosen research area it is impossible not to think about and mention the significance of the conducted research. There are a set of strong contributing factors that make this research significant and worthy of study. These factors are presented below.

Firstly, as mentioned in the previous research gap section, most of the research on trilingual education policy has been conducted to seek pre-service teachers' views (Kydyrbayeva et al., 2021), parents' views (Kambatyrova, 2020), and students' views (Aubakirova, 2017) and little attention has been paid to in-service teachers' views. In order to get a complete picture of the trilingual education policy and understand the ways in which it is being implemented it is necessary to seek the views and experiences of this specific group too. By interviewing the in-service teachers and observing their lessons it becomes possible to understand the policy and teaching within the policy at an in-depth level. This in turn provides an opportunity to identify these teachers' best practices, needs, and challenges that they experience which in turn can be fed into the further development and formation of the policy.

Secondly, besides trilingualism, Kazakhstan is also known to be multilingual and multicultural with more than 130 ethnicities living in the country (Bakytzhanova, 2018; Yestekova, 2015). The policy too highlights the importance of multilingualism and thus was established in order to enhance the command and knowledge of the three languages. In other words, the policy which undertakes such a view needs to be explored from a similar kind of approach. Thus, the study adopts a multilingual approach to explore the trilingual education policy and more specifically undertakes pedagogical translanguaging as a framework to explore the phenomenon under discussion. The research undoubtedly will add knowledge to the dearth of studies conducted in this direction, especially given the fact that the role of pedagogical translanguaging has not been investigated in the Kazakhstani context before.

Especially since most studies conducted on pedagogical translanguaging practices took place within bilingual education programs (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Hamman, 2018; Palmer et al., 2014; Schwarts & Asli, 2014) and other trilingual settings (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; 2020; Cenoz & Santos, 2020). While in bilingual settings teachers and students mostly share the same linguistic repertoires which in turn allows them to easily utilise these languages as tools for teaching and learning purposes; in multilingual settings, this practice proves to be challenging especially if the teacher and students do not share the same linguistic repertoires (Galante, 2020). Moreover, pedagogical translanguaging would be quite difficult to incorporate into teaching if teachers do not have any predisposition to open up a space for their students' languages and use them as resources (Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Cenoz & Gorter, 2021; Galante, 2020; Leonet et al., 2017; Wong & Tai, 2023; Zhang & Chan, 2022). Therefore, the study contributes to the understanding of this never-ending debate amongst scholars on maximum exposure (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020) and the creation of language synergies (Cenoz & Santos, 2020) by exploring a specific group of teachers' views on language choices they make as part of teaching and policy implementation in a rather multilingual context.

Thirdly, while several studies on trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan have relied on only one research instrument in the form of interviews (Goodman & Abdimanapova, 2020; Karabassova, 2021) or document analysis (Sarmurzin et al., 2023), this study used data triangulation by adopting more than one method to collect the data set. By incorporating interviews, lesson observations, and document analysis together this research seeks to provide an in-depth understanding and analysis of not only the policy but also the experiences of those who are implementing it. To be exact, the research captures all levels that shape multilingual education which consists of macro, meso, and micro levels (Kirss et al., 2021). The macro level captures the policy itself, and its processes through conducting the analysis of policy related documents. The meso and micro levels capture in-service

teachers' views and experiences of implementing the trilingual education policy in a particular trilingual school through conducting semi-structured interviews and lesson observations. Thus, this research fills the above stated research gaps by exploring the phenomenon in three specific levels by adopting a triangulation method for the purposes of an in-depth analysis.

Fourthly, it is hoped that the conducted research will add to the fund of knowledge on the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan and help to shape it into a more language-inclusive form. As paradoxically as it may sound the "multilingual teaching practices are not part of the *status quo* in Kazakhstani schools" (Klyshbekova, 2023, p. 2) which means that teachers may not be viewing the other languages in the policy as resources and not relying on the students' knowledge of those languages. It seems that the trilingual education policy may not be implementing its core purpose which is to build upon the students' entire linguistic repertoire; or as Mehisto et al. (2014) proclaimed that the languages in the policy seem to be "presented from a monoglossic perspective, as three separate entities" (p. 172) which may potentially mean that the students are not benefiting from their knowledge of other languages. For this reason, the research seeks to understand whether such practices are part of the in-service teachers' classrooms in one trilingual school. By investigating this, the research provides implications and recommendations on the implementation of the trilingual education policy from a pedagogical translanguaging perspective.

Fifthly, this research specifically seeks the in-service teachers' views and opinions on the trilingual education policy in order to share their experiences of implementing this policy. It is believed that this research provided a platform for this group of teachers to voice their opinions on the policy, their attitudes toward it, the benefits that they see in the policy as well as the challenges that they experience when implementing it on a day-to-day basis. It is hoped that the research will raise awareness of the use of such practices as pedagogical translanguaging and that the teachers do not feel guilt when using languages other than the

medium of instruction. It is also hoped that in-service teachers who are implementing the policy or pre-service teachers who will be faced with the implementation of the policy will read this thesis work and learn about such transformative teaching practices as pedagogical translanguaging and start viewing it as a legitimate teaching practice. Moreover, other stakeholders and policymakers who read this thesis work will learn about multilingual practices and that language separation is not the only teaching establishment that should be within the classroom setting.

Finally, to reiterate the studies conducted on trilingual education policy have reported that the English language is becoming the core of the policy leaving behind Kazakh and Russian (Karabassova, 2020) while others are claiming that the three languages in the policy are not being utilised in unison and are staying in isolation from each other (Klyshbekova, 2020; Mehisto et al., 2014). In other words, if to adopt Ruiz's (1984) language orientation terminology then it becomes clear that the languages are not being used as resources to benefit one another but rather being separated as "solitudes" (Cummins, 2008) or seen as "problems" (Ruiz, 1984).

As the policy's main purpose is to produce multilingual students, I believe it is important to explore it from a perspective that does not isolate the languages from each other but rather puts all of the linguistic repertoires at the forefront. This perspective or rather a concept is called a pedagogical translanguaging practice which is being adopted as a theoretical framework for this thesis work. The adoption of such a concept to explore the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan was not coincidental as a translanguaging practice was proven to be efficient in different trilingual contexts including the Basque Country (Cenoz & Santos, 2020) and Hong Kong (Tai & Li Wei, 2021b) to name a few. Thus, the main aim of this research study is to explore the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan from a pedagogical translanguaging perspective. Specifically, the study aims to identify Kazakhstani in-service teachers' attitudes towards pedagogical translanguaging; if the

teachers utilise pedagogical translanguaging in their teaching practices; and to what extent they utilise it. After all Cummins' (2010, p. 9) words provide an important call to action as they state the following:

> If you want students to emerge from schooling after 12 years as intelligent, and linguistically talented, then treat them as intelligent, imaginative, and linguistically talented from the first day they arrive at school.

Thus, inspired by Cummins' (2010) words and provided justifications above, this research study is centred around pedagogical translanguaging and multilingualism as a whole.

1.5 Research Questions

When it comes to the research questions De Vaus (2005, p. 17) has made a perfect observation by stating that:

> In the same way an architect needs to know the purpose of the building before designing it… social researchers must be clear about their research question before developing the research design.

Indeed, the formulation of research questions is an essentiality that needs to be fulfilled before starting any research-related activities (Bryman, 2007; Kishore et al., 2011; Ratan et al., 2019). According to Ratan et al. (2019, p. 16),

> A good research question (RQ) forms the backbone of good research, which in turn is vital in unraveling mysteries of nature and giving insight into a problem.

Ratan et al. (2019) suggest that every researcher needs to elaborate on and cover such aspects as feasibility, interest, novelty, and relevance when formulating the potential research questions. As was discussed in the research aims and research significance sections above, I was keen to learn about the teachers' views and their experiences in relation to the implementation of the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan. As in-service teachers were my main focus and interest of study, I already knew that my research questions needed to reflect their views and practices. Having a specific group in mind as well as the research

problem in a particular context allowed me to formulate the questions purposefully and meaningfully.

Thus, keeping in mind the feasibility of the research and its methods and the ability to capture the established research aims, two main and two subsidiary research questions were developed for this research study.

This research study consists of two main research questions and two subsidiary research questions. The research questions used to guide this study are thoroughly presented in Chapter Three: Methodology which also presents the methodological considerations that were in place in order to answer the set research questions. Chapter Four: Results and Discussion and Chapter Five: Conclusion discuss and conclude the ways in which the conducted research was able to answer the given research questions.

Thus, the main research questions of this study are as follows:

1. What are in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging in implementing the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan?
2. How do Kazakhstani in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging influence their teaching practices?

The two subsidiary questions that were adopted to establish data triangulation:

3. What strategies do teachers employ to incorporate pedagogical translanguaging into their teaching practice?
4. How do school documents, and lesson plans reflect the usage of pedagogical translanguaging?

By engaging in this research, my main intention was to explore the in-service teachers' views and experiences in implementing the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan. I was particularly interested in the teaching approaches that they adopted in classrooms and whether the main "multilingual" idea of the trilingual education policy was reflected in their views and their teaching practices. It is hoped that the research will identify the challenges

that the teachers experience due to the policy which came from a top-down basis and also provide the areas the policymakers need to consider when it comes to approaching the "Trinity of Languages" policy. The document analysis that is addressed in research question four is equally needed in order to understand the trilingual education policy as a whole, and whether the multilingual teaching practices such as pedagogical translanguaging are incorporated into the main policy related documents.

1.6 My Biographical Segment and Positionality

I entered this doctoral program knowing what constitutes and shapes my personal experience and beliefs. My educational, cultural, and even linguistic backgrounds have played a major role in defining my research topic, research design, and methodology. All of these backgrounds identify me and my views and therefore can be labelled as my positionality. Merriam et al. (2001) classify positionality as how someone views and stands in relation to the other. This means that positionality identifies one's views and perceptions based on their social, cultural, political, and geographical background (Foote & Bartell, 2011). Researchers need to acknowledge their prior experiences as they might shape their views, understanding, approaches, and even interpretations and presentations of the collected data. Thus, in my mind it is essential to provide an insight into my geographical, cultural, and language background and explain how they might shape my views and relate to the investigated topic of trilingual education policy.

I was born and raised in an independent Kazakhstan by parents who experienced the Soviet regime and now living in independent times. I identify myself as a female in her late twenties who is a mother of a toddler, a wife, a daughter, and a sister. Professionally, I view myself as an early career researcher, a speaker of different languages, a language learner, and an educational enthusiast.

Growing up I found myself speaking more in Russian instead of my mother tongue which is Kazakh. I started to notice this after I went to a school where the medium of instruction was the Kazakh language. My parents could never help me with homework as they were not as fluent in Kazakh as I was. Later, my language preference changed to Kazakh as I spent more time in school and spoke Russian only at home. This was when I realised that I was becoming more Kazakhised while my parents were more Russified. Now, I am fluent in both Kazakh and Russian languages but still feel more Kazakhised and have a strong sense of belonging to my country.

My parents were more Russified due to the historical events that took place in the Soviet Union period. During that time, the Russian language was seen as a resource (Ruiz, 1984) and used as a medium of instruction in most educational sectors. The language was associated with status and belonging to a higher society (Smagulova, 2006). Kazakh language on the other hand was viewed as a problem (Ruiz, 1984) and was mostly associated with rural areas (Smagulova, 2006). Russian medium schools outnumbered the Kazakh ones and as a result, Kazakhstan became the most Russified among other countries that were in the Soviet Union (Dave, 2007). For this reason, some people like my parents who lived in Soviet times were still Russified living in an independent Kazakhstan. However, in the process of writing this thesis work, I began seeing a certain trend among the people including my parents who clearly favoured the use of the Kazakh language and supported its promotion. The changes that are happening in an independent Kazakhstan are bringing vast changes to its socio-political and educational sectors and impacting the language hierarchies. Therefore, I am noticing my parents' change of values and how they transitioned toward seeing themselves as Kazakhised.

Later, at school and then at the university I was exposed to the English language, and I became fluent in English as well. During that time such concepts as translanguaging, codeswitching, plurilingualism, metalinguistic awareness, and language needs were not

familiar to me nor to my teachers. At that point, I still did not realise the importance of acknowledging students' language needs or explaining the tasks in the students' linguistic repertoires and that these languages should be present and used in classroom spaces. Since I was very passionate about languages, I was able to learn them quite quickly even if it was through the traditional maximum exposure that was practised by many during that time. But there were some of my peers who struggled with learning the languages and the teachers kept following the one language-only ideology in teaching. Although internally I knew that ignoring the students' existing languages and not viewing them as an asset was not benefiting both parties. For this reason, I can tell that my journey toward translanguaging was not coincidental but was rather intentional and triggered by my desire to view languages as a whole and not necessarily as separate and unrelated entities.

When I became an English language teacher, I fell into the "minimum of first language and maximum of target language" pit myself. This was mainly due to the fact that "multilingual teaching practices are not part of the *status quo* in Kazakhstani schools" (Klyshbekova, 2023, p. 2) and I tended to follow the strategies practised by many. As I mentioned in my opinion-based article (Klyshbekova, 2023, p. 2):

> Whenever I tried to use other languages, it was seen as a deficit issue with it being used out of necessity rather than as a way of acknowledging diverse languages and identities as a form of inclusivity.

Thus, on the occasions when I decided to resort to other languages my students were quite hesitant to do so themselves but as I began to increasingly incorporate such practices, they grew familiar with it and were, in fact, more responsive to these multilingual practices. This led me to learn more about different theories and concepts which in turn allowed me to start experimenting and adding different strategies to improve my teaching skills. One of the strategies that I stumbled upon and actively utilised was switching between languages and using them as legitimate teaching practices. I became more open to my students' language needs and was not hesitant to use them if I saw that they were struggling. However, I have to

admit that there were times when I thought that my students needed to experience English to the fullest and thus felt guilty when I was deliberately avoiding a monolingual approach. From time to time, I could see the advantages of translanguaging but still did not know about the existence of such a concept.

Finally, when I decided to pursue a graduate degree, I became familiar with translanguaging, which I was actually using in my teaching practice unknowingly. I was able to understand why such distinguished scholars as Cenoz and Gorter (2020), García (2009), and Wei (2018) were advocating for translanguaging in classrooms and promoting it as a legitimate teaching strategy that can be used both in bilingual and multilingual settings. Translanguaging takes a holistic view of languages and does not separate the languages. It does not exclude the students' existing language repertoires but rather draws upon them. Thus, the more I read and made new discoveries about this concept, the more confident I became in my past teaching experience (Klyshbekova, 2023). Reflecting on this now, it seems that my language background and even my teaching experience where I was unknowingly promoting a multilingual pedagogical approach led me to the concept of translanguaging. On top of that, the unique educational reform in Kazakhstan known as the trilingual education policy fuelled my interest in investigating how translanguaging might fit in with this reform. This recalls Flick's (2018) words that stated the following: "Sometimes a personal experience leads researchers to decide to study a topic" (p. 84) and this is quite relevant to my case. Therefore, it can be said that the choice of the research topic, questions, research site, and research design has been significantly influenced by my personal stance, how I view the world, my sense of belonging, and my positionality.

Since my positionality was shaped by my experiences and Kazakhstan's socio-political history, so will my participants' attitudes and teaching practices be shaped by theirs. This means that throughout this research I will encounter a variety of different views and understandings of the language policy and multilingualism as a whole. Having established

my own positionality and my interest in the research topic I believe it is important to explore the views of practitioners as when it comes to top-down policies there is no such thing as one size fits all.

1.7 Theoretical Paradigm: An Interpretivist Approach

This research study is of interpretivist paradigm as the main aim of this study is to explore the participants' views and experiences on this specific phenomenon. According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017, p. 33):

> This approach makes an effort to 'get into the head of the subjects being studied' so to speak, and to understand and interpret what the subject is thinking or the meaning s/he is making of the context.

In other words, interpretivism requires that the investigated social phenomenon should be understood "through the eyes of the participants rather than the researcher" (Cohen et al., 2007, p.21). It refuses "to adopt any permanent, unvarying (or foundational) standards by which truth can be universally known" (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p.204) and admits multiple socially constructed realities. The aim of interpretivism is to understand the participants in their own contexts. In other words, as Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p. 6) put it:

> The interpretive bricoleur understands that research is an interactive process shaped by his or her personal history, biography, gender, social class, race, and ethnicity, and by those of the people in the setting.

Similarly, as Dean (2018, p. 3) sustained:

> The unique entanglement of the researcher, with their research and the researched, is central to an interpretivist's reflexive research practice.

In some ways interpretivists' approach opposes positivism which is heavily reliant on quantitative methods for the purposes of "generalisability claims" (Dean, 2018, p. 3). But interpretivist methodology usually fits well with a qualitative type of research design in the form of ethnographies or case studies for the purposes of conducting more in-depth studies (Dean, 2018; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2014). The process of data

analysis is usually inductive which allows the researcher to understand the investigated phenomenon by collapsing the patterns into broader themes (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). The ontological position of interpretivist stance holds that reality may differ from person to person (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) and thus there may exist multiple forms of reality (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). This stance allowed me to understand and expect the fact that not only language and science-based teachers would have different views and experiences but also teachers from the same discipline group may report and talk about differing views and opinions. This way I did not predefine my participants' views in accordance with the disciplines they teach but rather expected to learn about their differing views and multiple forms of reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

The epistemological position of interpretivist stance holds that every person constructs his or her own meaning in different ways (Crotty, 1998). Knowledge may derive from different cultural and historical traits, and it is dependent on how the person interprets the world that surrounds them (Cohen et al., 2011). For this reason, it is essential for the researcher to investigate how people perceive the world and understand their constructions of the world. Methodologically, the interpretivist approach allows the research to adopt a qualitative inquiry with a range of different research methods including the conduction of observations. For this reason, besides conducting interviews, I felt the need to observe the in-service teachers' lessons and immerse myself in their realities to understand both my participants and their context better.

Thus, when approaching the conduction of this research I had Kivunja and Kuyini's (2017) core characteristics of interpretivist paradigm in my mind. According to Kivunja and Kuyini's (2017, p. 34) these characteristics entail that:

> The admission that the social world cannot be understood from the standpoint of an individual;
> The belief that realities are multiple and socially constructed;
> The acceptance that there is inevitable interaction between the researcher and his or her research participants;
> The acceptance that context is vital for knowledge and knowing;

> The belief that knowledge is created by the findings, can be value laden and the values need to be made explicit;
> The need to understand the individual rather than universal laws;
> The belief that causes and effects are mutually interdependent;
> The belief that contextual factors need to be taken into consideration in any systematic pursuit of understanding.

Besides the mentioned it also has to be noted that interpretivist paradigm is not without criticism as many raised its "lack of generalisability and objectivity" (Dean, 2018, p. 3). Dean (2018) challenges these types of criticisms by stating that they are mostly "a matter of philosophical differences" (p. 3). Dean (2018), Yanow (2014), and Yanow and Schwartz-Shea (2014) agree that interpretivists were able to demonstrate trustworthiness and quality of their research which in its turn challenges the above stated criticisms.

Having established the research paradigm which adopts an interpretivist approach the following section presents a brief overview of the investigated research context, specifically the discussion of the school education system that is in place in Kazakhstan.

1.8 Research Context: School Education System in Kazakhstan

Kazakhstan's educational system consists of pre-primary education, primary and secondary school education (lower secondary, upper secondary, vocational, and technical colleges) as well as university-level education (Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctoral degrees) (See Table 1). OECD's (2015, p. 2) review describes Kazakhstan's education system and planning overall as:

> The strategic planning of resource use in Kazakhstan is essentially driven by the centre, in a top-down approach, and is controlled through a bureaucratic process of verification of whether specific norms have been followed. The planning does not include phases of discussions and leaves little room to adjust overall strategic goals to specific local conditions. The lack of consultation with stakeholders means that education strategies might not fully reflect the rich diversity present in the country.

Indeed, to this day the policies that were introduced to make rapid changes in the educational system have all been of a top-down approach including the policy under the investigation in this research study. Although it must be mentioned that the country is

putting all of its efforts and resources in order to move away from its Soviet past and modernise the educational system (Karabassova, 2020). The following paragraph provides an overview of each step in the educational systems that are in place in Kazakhstan and begins by explaining the pre-primary level of education in Kazakhstan.

1.8.1 Pre-primary Education System in Kazakhstan

The pre-primary education level is not compulsory in Kazakhstan. This level of education provides care to children whose ages range from zero to six years (OECD, 2015). OECD (2015) review notes that pre-primary education has a low attendance in Kazakhstan, and this is especially common in rural areas. Parents have the option of putting their children into either governmental or private pre-primary educational settings such as nurseries where the former is provided free of charge and the latter is on a fee basis. Once children hit the age of five or six, they attend year zero which takes a form of preparation for the primary education level (Zhussipbek, 2019). To clarify, this is somewhat similar to the reception year in the United Kingdom and is attended by children after they turn the age of four. As in the reception, the zero year introduces the children to basic skills as reading, writing and helps them with the transition from pre-primary education to primary education level.

1.8.2 Primary and Secondary School Education System in Kazakhstan

The primary education level includes grades from one to four and children may start this level of education at either six or seven years. Normally children enrol in primary school at the age of seven but in the cases of enrolling at six, they will be required to demonstrate that they were introduced to basic skills (UNESCO, 2011). At this stage of education, children learn to further develop basic skills such as reading and writing. They are also introduced to simple arithmetic as well as to such disciplines as “Knowledge of oneself”, “The world

around us", "Music" and "Handicrafts" (UNESCO, 2011). Special attention is also given to the development of such senses as love and respect for the Motherland (UNESCO, 2011). The lower secondary level includes grades from five to nine and the upper secondary level of education includes grades from ten to twelve (OECD, 2015). At this level of education, the students besides learning the compulsory disciplines need to also develop such essential skills as social adaptation and a sense of citizenship (UNESCO, 2011).

Both primary and secondary school systems can be accessed through two types of schools which are known as mainstream schools, private and international schools. Mainstream schools in Kazakhstan are located both in cities and rural areas and these types of schools are free of charge for all students. All students in Kazakhstan are eligible for free of charge admission to mainstream schools (The Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 1995) which are also mostly constituted of free of any entry examinations. To note, the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan (1995) guarantees a free school education to every resident of the country. Moreover, school students in both primary and secondary schools are also entitled to free textbooks (OECD, 2015) and primary level students to free school meals. Private and international schools, on the other hand, are located mostly in large cities and are known to provide education either on a scholarship basis or charge fees that range depending on a specific school type. These types of schools are accessed by students mostly due to their own or their parents' desire to study in these specific schools. Normally the students need to pass certain entry examinations and go through a tough selection process in order to be admitted to such schools. The types of examinations that the students need to take also vary depending on the specific school's type and established internal requirements. Moreover, such schools are also known for offering "a more international curriculum and experience" (OECD, 2015, p. 38) and this could be another reason as to why parents tend to prefer these schools to mainstream ones. Each school regardless of whether being a mainstream type or a private/international type needs to offer

compulsory disciplines, but at the same time "each school develops its own educational plan, distributing hours across subjects and defining extracurricular activities" (OECD, 2015, p. 58).

Also, it must be mentioned that in Kazakhstan there are other types of schools that are called specialised schools (OECD, 2015). These types of schools are mostly for students with special educational needs who require special support i.e., visual support, hearing support, and other relevant types of support (OECD, 2015).

Starting from the primary level of schooling the education is considered compulsory and begins at either the age of six or seven and normally continues for four years (OECD, 2015). To illuminate, the following table illustrates the full educational system that is in place in the Republic of Kazakhstan:

Table 1.

1. **Pre-primary education** (nurseries and pre-school preparation)
2. **Primary education** (Grades 1-4; the start at the age of 6 or 7; school types: mainstream, private, international, specialised)
3. **Lower secondary education** (Grades 5-9; school types: mainstream, private, international, specialised)
4. **Upper secondary education** (Grades 10-12; school types: mainstream, private, international, specialised) OR **Vocational and technical college** (2 or 3 years; college and tehnikum)
5. **Bachelor's degree programme** (4 years; the university level)
6. **Master's degree programme** (2 years; the university level)
7. **Doctoral degree programme** (4 years; the university level)

Note. Adapted from OECD (2015) The education system of the Republic of Kazakhstan

The lower secondary school education continues for five years and then is followed by another two years in upper secondary school (OECD, 2015). The students who complete the lower secondary school education receive a certificate and can then continue their education either at upper secondary school (high school) or at vocational and technical schools also

known as "*tehnikums*" (colleges). But before that, the students at lower secondary schools are required to complete an examination called "External Assessment of Academic Achievement" (OECD, 2015). In accordance with the results that the students receive from the examination, they will be recommended to either continue upper secondary education or enrol in a *tehnikum.* The "External Assessment of Academic Achievement" examination needs to be taken after completing the ninth grade of the lower secondary education. According to OECD reports (2014; 2015) around two-thirds of students who complete all nine grades of education prefer to continue their education in upper secondary schools; and the rest prefer to enrol in vocational and technical schools (*tehnikums* or colleges). The subjects taught at these tehnikums depend on the student's specific choice of further career and upon graduation they receive a non-university level degree. The students who complete upper secondary school are mandated to take a Unified National Test (UNT) which is a "form of a unified, combined examination for completing secondary education and entering university" (OECD, 2007, p. 42). This is similar to A-levels that students take as a school leaving qualification in the United Kingdom. The students in Kazakhstan pass a Unified National Test (UNT) to receive a certificate that confirms the completion of the full secondary education (OECD, 2007). After the completion of the upper secondary school and depending on the UNT results the students may continue their education at the Bachelor level. Later after the Bachelor's degree, the students may also apply for a Master's and then a Doctoral degree.

Both primary and secondary types of schools are compulsory, and parents can choose which schools they want their children to attend but the priority would still be given to those living in the school neighbourhood area (OECD, 2015) or catchment area as it is called in the United Kingdom. Mainstream schools are considered to be day schools, and, in some cases, they are referred to as half-day schools or two-shift schools (OECD, 2015). Some of the mainstream schools operate even in three shifts and a special program called "100 Schools,

100 Hospitals Program" was established in order to eradicate the meaning of three shifts (OECD, 2015). Private and international schools on the other hand run as full-day schools which in fact are considered to be suitable and preferred by many working parents. The curriculum of mainstream schools includes such compulsory disciplines as arts, language, humanities, and science-based disciplines. Language-based disciplines include Kazakh Language and Literature, Russian Language and Literature, and English Language. Arts and humanities disciplines include the History of Kazakhstan, Geography, Arts, Physical Education (PE), and Music. Science subject disciplines include Mathematics, Geometry, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Computer Science.

Over the past ten to fifteen years there has been an upsurge in the establishment of certain schools which target gifted and talented students. These schools are classified as private or international types of schools and they are known to have a rigorous selection process, better resources and facilities as well as strong teaching staff. As a result, they tend to have an increased number of strong students who represent their schools in Olympiads and then later have a high tendency to enter a well-established higher educational institution. The number of such schools is increasing year by year but the strongest and most well-known among all are the following: Bilim-Innovation Lyceums (BIL) (formerly known as "KTL" Kazakh Turkish Lyceum), Daryn, Miras, and Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools (NIS) which was the research site of this study. These schools are considered as flagmen in providing education for gifted and talented students and have many branches in the large cities of Kazakhstan. Apart from the mentioned, these schools are also becoming increasingly known as schools that provide and implement the trilingual education policy which is the main subject of discussion of this thesis work. In fact, Bilim-Innovation Lyceums (BIL) were the first schools to implement trilingual schooling even before the introduction of the "Trinity of Languages" policy in 2007 (Karabassova, 2020). However, the trilingual schooling in these schools is slightly different from the idea of the "Trinity of Languages" policy as the

mediums of instruction in these schools are Kazakh, Turkish, and English. Besides being the first type of school to offer trilingual schooling Bilim-Innovation Lyceums (BIL) schools are also known as single-sex schools meaning that there are Bilim-Innovation Lyceums (BIL) schools for gifted girls and Bilim-Innovation Lyceums (BIL) schools for gifted boys.

The second type of school that implemented trilingual teaching and policy was a branch-based school called Daryn. According to Karabassova (2020, p. 43) in this type of school:

> Trilingualism is implemented by teaching one or several science and mathematics subjects through English; Kazakh language, Kazakh literature, and History of Kazakhstan are taught through Kazakh in Russian-medium classes (RMC); and Russian language and literature, through Russian in Kazakh-medium classes (KMC).

However, Shamshidinova et al. (2014) indicated that the trilingualism in the previously mentioned schools did not result in students becoming highly proficient in any of the three languages. Therefore, the government which introduced the trilingual education policy or the “Trinity of Languages" in 2007 decided to make profound changes to the school educational system and created a special type of school in 2008 (Karabassova, 2020; Nazarbayev, 2007; Shamshidinova et al., 2014). As a result of this, Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools (NIS) were set up specifically to test and implement the trilingual education policy (Karabassova, 2020; Shamshidinova et al., 2014) and act as “the main site for testing the multilingual educational model and educational innovation” (Karabassova, 2020, p. 43). Unlike Bilim-Innovation Lyceums (BIL) Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools (NIS) are considered to be mixed-gender schools that are also known as schools for the “best and brightest” (Fimyar, 2018) students. Fimyar (2018, p. 303) provides the exact characteristics of these schools by stating the following:

> NIS schools are highly selective and very well resourced, purpose-built schools, with modern technology and robotic equipment, which serve only 1% of the student cohort in the country.

In other words, NIS schools were purposefully built in order to educate talented students who will become “the future intellectual leaders of the country” (Fimyar, 2018, p. 304). These schools instruct students “in a trilingual environment of Kazakh, Russian, and

English" (Fimyar, 2018, p. 304) and thus have a competitive admission process. In order to be admitted to the schools the students need to pass rigorous examinations in such disciplines as Mathematics and Languages (Kazakh, Russian, and English) (OECD, 2015). Besides these, the students need to also demonstrate knowledge of spatial thinking and quantitative reasoning (OECD, 2015).

Having established the school education system that is in place in Kazakhstan, it is important to note that the trilingual education as well as one of the mentioned schools namely Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools (NIS) are discussed further in the literature review chapter. The next section brings together the structure of the thesis with a brief overview of each respective chapter.

1.8.3 Teacher Profession in Kazakhstan and Teacher Agency

It is well known that teachers are the agents in driving change (Yakavets et al., 2023) as they foster innovation and become the key people to implement new reforms and policies. For teachers to be able to perform these changes it becomes important to make them feel "empowered and have voice and autonomy in their day-to-day professional practices" (Molla & Nolan, 2020, p. 68). In other words, teacher agency is viewed as vital (Rushton et al., 2024) especially as they respond to the changes brought by the policy reform. According to Biesta and Tedder (2007), agency refers to:

> This concept of agency highlights that actors always act *by means of* their environment rather than simply *in* their environment [so that] the achievement of agency will always result from the interplay of individual efforts, available resources and contextual and structural factors as they come together in particular and, in a sense, always unique situations. (p. 137)

To put it differently, agency can be understood as not something that people can possess or have, it is more related to what people do (Biesta et al., 2015). It is also not about the quality of people but rather about the quality of engagement with the tasks or changes. Therefore, agency needs to be in place particularly "in a context where some teachers find themselves

negotiating or struggling against the constraints of policy and leadership" (Molla & Nolan, 2020, p. 68).

When it comes to school policies teacher agency plays a critical role in their implementation. Creation of a good environment in which teachers are empowered to bring changes and influence the curriculum helps them to exercise and enact their agency effectively (Jenkins, 2020). As teachers are considered to be as "actors acting by-means-of-an-environment rather than simply in an environment" (Biesta & Tedder, 2006, p. 19) it is essential for the school administration to support and empower them. Teachers need to have an opportunity to "exert influence on things they believe they can influence" (p. 170) and be in a position to share their thoughts and views on curriculum or policy implementation.

Teacher profession in Kazakhstan is considered to be very demanding and challenging at the same time. It is mostly associated with "low status with teachers being under-paid, overburdened, and undervalued" (Qanay et al., 2024, p. 390) and often navigating the rapidly changing educational reforms. Despite the numerous attempts to decentralise the education system in Kazakhstan (Qanay et al., 2024; Yakavets et al., 2017), it still remains to be highly hierarchical and adopts the top-down approach. The World Report (2013) stated that:

> While education policy is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Science (MoES), the municipal level's (Kaz. Akimat) education department are responsible for delivery. (p. 2)

This suggests that the Ministry of Education and Science (MoES) is the central body that sets and shapes the educational aims and standards and passes down the new regulations to "regional, city, and district education departments" (Qanay et al., 2024, p. 390). These education departments, in their turn, control the ways in which the regulations are implemented at the local level. This in a way as Yakavets et al. (2017) suggested leaves little room for teachers and school principals' involvement in relation to reforms. As recipients of the regulations and reforms, school principals are engaged with enacting these regulations

and communicating new reforms and guidelines to teachers (Qanay et al., 2024). Teachers, in turn, are expected to respond to these guidelines by implementing them.

Teacher profession in Kazakhstan is considered to be dominated by women with every fifth teacher being over 50 years old (Bridges & Sagintayeva, 2014). This could be because certain challenges and stumbling blocks may discourage younger people from entering the profession. Among the many challenges teachers face, workload and remuneration stand out as the most critical. Teacher workload and remuneration are interrelated as teachers get paid in accordance with the hours they work. While the standard work hours may constitute 18 hours per week, the maximum workload can get up to 27 hours per week. The workload in Kazakhstan is called *stavka* and teachers operating on different *stavka* get paid differently as well. This results in teachers having uneven workloads with some having additional responsibilities and tasks. According to OECD (2014a), the teachers' maximum remuneration consisted of 5,520 USD which is nearly ten times lower than the OECD maximum. Nevertheless, as part of elevating teachers' status, the remuneration has been reconsidered, and starting from the 1st of January 2020, teachers' salaries increased by 25%. A further annual increase was promised for four consecutive years. Additionally, the President of the country launched a new Law on the Teacher's Status, which is targeted towards taking the pressure off the teachers by monitoring their workloads and providing additional training opportunities both within and outside the country. However, there is still more to be done in terms of teachers' autonomy and their involvement in decision-making as they are the key agents in enacting changes and implementing policies.

1.9 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into five chapters which are called as follows: Chapter One: Introduction, Chapter Two: Literature Review, Chapter Three: Methodology, Chapter Four: Results and Discussion, Chapter Five: Conclusion. In this Chapter One: Introduction, I

introduce the research topic, the gaps, the research significance, and the aims of the study along with the questions that guide this research study. I also provide an insight into my positionality and biographical segment and explain the ways in which they are linked to this research work. Additionally, I provide information and elaborate on the Kazakh school system as well as the theoretical paradigm and explain how my prior experiences led me to this research study.

Chapter Two: Literature Review, which is the next chapter, presents a detailed review of the existing literature starting from Kazakhstan's historical background and the reasons for implementing the trilingual education policy. I also look at other countries' educational models and tie the trilingual education policy with multilingualism and provide the reasons as to why the policy needs to be approached and examined from the pedagogical translanguaging prism. The main aim of this chapter is to provide the reader with an understanding of the pedagogical translanguaging method and how it can impact the implementation of the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan. The theoretical framework supporting the research study is also presented in this chapter along with the key scholars' studies conducted in this field.

Chapter Three: Methodology explains the employed methodological foundation including the research design and its site, piloting process, data collection instruments along with participant characteristics. The chapter also provides the steps taken for data analysis and outlines the specific approaches that were adopted for these purposes. When it comes to data analysis, the chapter also provides information on the utilised data analysis software and discusses the translation and transcription processes in an in-depth manner due to the involvement of the three languages which were Kazakh, Russian, and English. Lastly, the chapter outlines the ethical implications that were in place when conducting this research study.

Chapter Four: Findings, Analysis and Discussion presents the result extracts from the collected data, analysis of the research, and its interpretation. Further, the chapter provides an analysis of the research by linking it to the adopted theoretical framework and also discusses it by linking it to the key literature presented in Chapter Two: Literature Review. Chapter Five: Conclusion presents the conclusion of the research study by bringing together the most significant results from the previous Chapter Four: Findings, Analysis and Discussion. While providing the answers to the research questions, it also looks at the implications for further research, provides the limitations of this research study, possible suggestions for stakeholders, and directions for future research. Additionally, the chapter includes a section on the discussion of the contribution to the development of the translanguaging field, as it is the main theoretical framework that helped to guide this research study. Lastly, the chapter includes my personal reflection on this doctoral journey and concludes with a discussion of the key points and important observations I made throughout this time.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Literature Review Introduction

This chapter presents the review of the key literature that underpins the current research study thus providing contextual information and the reasons for adopting the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan. The chapter provides a thorough examination of current and relevant literature on the investigated phenomenon and starts by providing a historical overview of the country by focusing on the years leading up to the introduction of the "Trinity of Languages" policy in Kazakhstan. This part of the chapter mainly focuses on rendering to the reader the reasons for adopting the policy, the roles of the three languages in the policy as well as the challenges that teachers are faced with in implementing the policy. The chapter then continues by highlighting the roles of special schools that are implementing the policy and touch upon the different programmes that are pertinent to such schools one of which is Content and Language-Integrated Learning (CLIL). This part of the chapter, before transitioning to the second one, brings to the reader's attention the role of translanguaging and highlights its transformative aspects as well as its applicability in trilingual settings. Next, the chapter expands by focusing on the origin of translanguaging, and its development by different scholars and explains the differences between its two types which are identified as spontaneous translanguaging and pedagogical translanguaging. The works of those who are known as innovators of translanguaging as well as the key scholars and contributors are presented and discussed thoroughly. The chapter then narrows down its focus to pedagogical translanguaging and covers the use of pedagogical translanguaging in different trilingual contexts. After presenting the review of pedagogical translanguaging in detail the chapter then discusses the literature that explored teachers' views on using such practices and presents different countries' educational models. Lastly, the chapter explains the adopted theoretical framework in the form of pedagogical translanguaging and discusses how the

framework fits the research before moving on to the next chapter which is Chapter Three: Methodology.

2.2 Background and Context of the Research Study

Before diving into the discussion of pedagogical translanguaging, which is the main focus of this research study, it is important to provide background and contextual information about Kazakhstan. Since the trilingual education policy or so-called the "Trinity of Languages" policy was impacted by the historical events that took place in the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic, the following section starts with a discussion of events that led Kazakhstan into the Soviet Union.

2.3 Kazakhstan in the Soviet Union

The beginning of the eighteenth century was marked as a difficult period in the history of the Kazakh people. Zhungars, China, Kalmyks, and Bashkirs represented serious threats to the Kazakh people by making numerous attacks and invasions (Smagulova, 2006). The wars and invasions devastated the Kazakh people and put them in a position where they had to find a way to save themselves from attackers and neighbouring enemies. Thus, there was a difficult decision between being dominated by the Russian empire or Zhungars in order to stop these attacks and save their people (Bodger, 1980). In 1730, Abylkhair the Khan of the Little Horde had to send an envoy to the Russian tsarist empire and ask for help and protection from the Zhungars (Smagulova, 2006). In 1731, empress Anna Ioannovna accepted the request and Abylkhair Khan undertook the oath of allegiance which meant Kazakhs had to protect the Russian caravans in Central Asia, and in return, the Kazakhs received the protection of the Russian empire (Bodger, 1980). This became a turning point in the history of the Kazakh people where henceforward the Kazakhs' future was intertwined and controlled by Russia (Bodger, 1980; Pavlovic, 2003). Towards the nineteenth century,

Russian influence and control became more significant (Ayagan et al., 2010). The Russian Empire introduced a number of reforms that parted Kazakhstan into three provinces: Orenburg, West Siberia, and Turkistan (Kan & Shayakhmetov, 2012). The implementation of the new reforms, obtaining Kazakh lands, and changing administrative power caused a huge wave of migration to Kazakhstan. The representatives of such ethnicities as Russians, Koreans, Germans, Tatars, Ukrainians, Poles, and Chechens began the migration to the Kazakh land (Smagulova, 2006).

Kazakhstan entered the Union of Soviet States in 1920 and became a Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic (KazSSR) in 1936 (Smagulova, 2006), and became one of the fifteenth states that were part of the union.

In the 1930s under the Soviet Union's rule, due to famine-genocide, the number of Kazakh people reduced dramatically from 5,114,000 to 2,182,000 in 1937 (Masanov et al., 2001). As a result of famine and the ongoing migration of different ethnicities, the Kazakhs became the minority in their own territory (Montgomery, 2013). The repression of Kazakh intellectuals (Zhumanova et al., 2016), and the change of script to Cyrillic (Abdakimov, 1994) took another toll on the Kazakh people. All of this was a political move toward strengthening Russian authority and lessening Kazakh power (Zhumanova et al., 2016).

The changes brought by the new regime were introduced through different sectors and education was one of them. At the beginning of Soviet rule, the policy supported all titular languages (Armenian, Azerbaijani, Belarusian, Estonian, Georgian, Kazakh, Kyrgyz, Latvian, Lithuanian, Moldovan (Romanian), Tajik, Turkmen, Ukrainian, Uzbek) as legitimate mediums of instruction both at school and the university levels. However, over time this too changed towards the Russian-only language of instruction policy.

The schools in the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic had two mediums of instruction which were Kazakh and Russian (Karabassova, 2020). But in 1938, learning the Russian language became mandatory in all non-Russian medium schools, and the Kazakh language was

cancelled in all Russian medium schools in 1955 (Suleimenova, 1997). The financing of Kazakh medium schools was substantially reduced, which in turn had an effect on the admission rate. In 1958 the number of pupils who attended Kazakh medium schools consisted of 75% and by 1991 this number dramatically dropped to 34.4% (Smagulova, 2008). The quality of education offered by Russian medium schools became much higher and parents started to opt for these schools instead of Kazakh ones. Partly, it was due to the majors that these schools offered. The graduates of Kazakh medium schools had limited major options that consisted of only agriculture, culture, and humanities (Smagulova, 2008). The Russian medium schools, on the other hand, led to more desired majors such as politics, engineering, and social sciences. Since the admission rates in Kazakh medium schools were going down, most schools in urban areas had to be closed and the rest were concentrated in rural areas. In 1991 only two Kazakh medium schools were still operating in Almaty, the former capital of Kazakhstan (Fierman, 2006).

Slowly, the Russian language became the dominant language and did not leave any space for the development of the Kazakh language. Along with Kazakh medium schools, Kazakh university departments, Kazakh magazines, newspapers, and channels were closed as well (Smagulova, 2006). As a result, the Russian language was known as the language of administration for 90% of the population living in urban areas (Fierman, 2006) while the Kazakh language was mostly associated with coming from rural areas (Smagulova, 2008). The usage of the Russian language was elitist, showing status, and belonging in an urban area, and opened doors to potential prestigious positions. The Kazakh language, on the other hand, had an association with rural areas, lower literacy, and did not present or offer any economic or educational returns. As a result of that, the worth of the Kazakh language was ceased to nothing (Zhumanova et al., 2016) and thus only 10-15% of the population spoke Kazakh (Fierman, 2006).

The events that took place were aimed at turning multiethnic populations that were part of the Union into one community which was called Soviet people (*Sovetskii narod*) (Beissinger, 2002). It was a special Soviet strategy toward one nation (*odna natciya*) that speaks one language and shares one mentality and most importantly one ideology (Wolczuk & Yemelianova, 2008). During that time the Russian language went beyond the concept of lingua franca (Fierman, 2006). It was not only used as one language to unite other multiethnic people, but also had a deep ideological meaning to it. Under these circumstances, the Kazakh people's language and national identity were significantly weakened as the Soviet Union attempted to create a Russified nation. The Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic became not only predominantly Russified (Dave, 2007), but it was also the last country to leave the Soviet Union. This means that even Russia left the Union before Kazakhstan, and the entire Soviet Union consisted of only the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic. The Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic's sole tenancy of the Soviet Union lasted for four days before it became independent in 1991.

After gaining independence in 1991, the country started to pass new laws and build back its social, economic, educational, and political direction. Above all the country had to rethink its national values, language revitalisation plans, and the course toward derussification which is discussed further in the following section.

2.4 Kazakhstan as an Independent Country

From the previous section, it was evident that Kazakhstan has a long history of being first under the Russian Tsarist Empire, and then, under the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. After the collapse of these Union, Russia was viewed as the heir of the Soviet Union, and Kazakhstan as the successor to the Soviet Union (Buhler, 2001).

In our days, independent Kazakhstan is a multicultural country known to be a large country located in Central Asia. Kazakhstan is also known as the largest landlocked country with one of the lowest populations of almost 19 million people.

After the break of the Union in 1991, the country had to pass new laws and reforms to begin its own route as an independent country. One of the laws and reforms that were passed was on the country's positioning of the languages. From the previous section, it was evident that language played a significant role in all sectors starting from school preference, career choice, and even in identifying one's belonging or not belonging to a certain group. Even after gaining independence, the language issue was still heavily politicised due to the geographical and economic position (Fierman, 1997), and thus the country was struck with a new dilemma of trying to find its political identification (Smagulova, 2006). On the one hand, it seemed logical to follow Uzbekistan's example towards derussification (Boehmer, 2007) after the long years of suppression and make the Kazakh language the sole official language. The country was already divided into two groups that spoke Kazakh and Russian respectively, and there was a need for one language to unite both of these groups (Smagulova, 2006). The status of the Kazakh language needed to be elevated to start distancing the country from the Soviet past. On the other hand, Kazakhstan is a multicultural country with 48% of the population comprised of Russians (Fierman, 1997) and the removal of the Russian language could lead to destabilisation and to a loss of ties with other neighbouring post-Soviet countries. Moreover, the maintenance of the Russian language was needed to avoid any interracial conflicts and to keep peace among different ethnicities living in Kazakhstan (Smagulova, 2008). Needless to say, the Russian language was also needed to keep the Russian speaking population for the country's development of economy. In other words, the Russian language became a lingua franca for different ethnic groups residing within the country. Thus, Kazakhstan decided to take a direction toward bilingual ideology and maintain the usage of both Kazakh and Russian languages. But this time as part of the

language shift phenomenon (Fishman, 1991), the status of the Kazakh language had to become higher than the Russian language. Both of these languages became official while the Kazakh language was announced as the sole state language. Apart from these two languages, other minority languages have been acknowledged as well. According to the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan the Kazakh, Russian, and minority languages are under government protection and every person has a right to speak and express themselves in their own languages and seek usage of this language in education, communication, and child upbringing (Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan, Article 19). From this, it can be seen that the country is completely shifting from the Soviet ideology and trying to be inclusive and stay open to other languages, and at the same time trying to bring back the usage of the Kazakh language. Once again, the country needed to go through another language shift phenomenon in order to bring back the language that was once seen as a problem and turn it into a right and then a resource (Ruiz, 1984). In Soviet times this phenomenon called language shift occurred as one language got dominated by another as the latter was associated with higher status and greater economic returns (Fishman, 1991; De Klerk, 2000). This time the country did not look into an immediate derussification but instead concentrated on the development of the Kazakh language and started to undertake serious policy actions aimed at the Kazakhisation process. The country's aim was to enhance the status of the Kazakh language through acquisition planning and prestige planning. To begin with, the officials, the candidates, and the parliament were expected to speak in the Kazakh language (Smagulova, 2005). The country introduced a special Kazakh language proficiency testing system that required government workers to pass and obtain such a certificate. Radio and TV programs were also encouraged to increase the content in Kazakh and the broadcasting needed to be in the Kazakh language. State organisations were also required to issue their documents in the Kazakh language (O'Callaghan, 2004). The Kazakh language started to be celebrated by organising special Language Days and language

olympiads. Smagulova (2008) conducted a countrywide survey on Kazakh and Russian use where she identified that proficiency in the Kazakh language had increased and that there was a slight decrease in the Russian language among the Kazakh population. After introducing changes in regard to Kazakh language acquisition to the older population, the focus was later targeted toward the younger population (Smagulova, 2005). The Kazakh medium schools started to become more popular and showed a drastic increase in schools with Kazakh medium of instruction from 30% in 1988 to 58% in 2004 (Fierman, 2006). School textbooks started to be published in Kazakh as well (Kulzhanova, 2012). The teaching hours of the Kazakh language and literature were also increased.

In 2007, the First President of the Republic of Kazakhstan Nursultan Nazarbayev presented a new project named the trilingual education policy or the "Trinity of Languages" policy that was launched to promote the Kazakh language (Nazarbayev, 2007). The President proclaimed that the new policy is needed for the country to become competitive and enter the list of highly developed countries of the world (Nazarbayev, 2007). He then announced that as part of the policy, the Kazakh language is to be known as a state language, Russian as a language of interethnic communication, and English as a language that can help to bring the country into the global arena (Nazarbayev, 2007).

As part of this new policy, subjects such as The History of Kazakhstan and Geography will need to be taught in the Kazakh language in Russian medium schools too. The President urged the nation that there was a need for innovations and new reforms to modernise the Kazakh language (Karabassova, 2020). However, this was not the only change the policy was about to bring. The introduction of the new policy shifted the focus from bilingual education (Kazakh, Russian) to trilingual (Kazakh, Russian, and English) instead. Interestingly, another language was added to the country's scope of languages and thus made many academics call this transition an "ambitious move" (Karabassova, 2020). As part of the "Trinity of Languages" policy the new language which was added as one of the mediums

of instruction became the English language. Thus, since then, the three languages which are Kazakh, Russian, and English constitute the "Trinity of Languages" policy.

After establishing the historical and contextual factors that brought about the adoption of this policy, the next section elaborates on the roles of the languages in society.

2.5 Language and Society

Having discussed the contextual backdrop of both independent Kazakhstan and Kazakhstan in the Soviet Union, it becomes equally important to delve into the relationship between language and societal implications in the context of Kazakhstan.

It became clear that during Soviet times Russian was viewed as the language of the so-called *intelligentsia* and offered many economic and educational returns. The Kazakh, on the other hand, was repressed and spoken mainly in rural areas due to its association with lower literacy. To reiterate, the following Table 2 illustrates the key important aspects in relation to education and society that took place in Soviet and post-Soviet times.

Table 2.

Aspect	Language	Soviet time	Post-Soviet Independent time
Education	Russian	Learning the Russian language became mandatory in all non-Russian medium schools. Highly dominated language of education	Entered the scope of the Trilingual Education Policy languages. Taught as a separate discipline and used as a medium of instruction
	Kazakh	Kazakh language was cancelled in all Russian medium schools. The number of Kazakh medium schools were dramatically dropped. Underprioritised and limited access to books in Kazakh	Entered the scope of the Trilingual Education Policy languages and is at the center of the policy. Taught as a separate discipline and used as a medium of instruction. The increase in Kazakh medium of instruction schools

Society	Russian	Highly valued by the society due to its connection with elitism, high literacy and better education and career. Using as a lingua franca across various sectors.	Used as a lingua franca. Language for interethnic communication. Mixed language use "Shala Kazakh" (Half Kazakh)
	Kazakh	Less favoured and stigmatised. Associated with coming from rural areas and lower literacy.	Derussification efforts. Promotion of national identity and reconnection with the Kazakh language.

Summary of language use

Now in independent Kazakhstan the two languages play an important role both in education and society as a whole. The status of the Kazakh language was elevated, and it became the official state language. Russian, on the other hand, was proclaimed as a language of interethnic communication in order to retain and not to alienate the Russian-speaking population (Jarlhøj & Valijärvi, 2024). Since gaining independence the Russian language remained to be dominant mainly in big cities and northern parts of the country. This is due to the large concentration of ethnic Russians and other ethnicities residing in northern regions (Jarlhøj & Valijärvi, 2024). Similarly, as many ethnic Kazakhs live in the southern and western regions, the Kazakh language became dominant in those areas. It is therefore customary to approach people who appear to come from big cities in the Russian language, while people who appear to come from western areas in the Kazakh language. It was therefore common for these interactions to use mixed languages, such as codeswitching. This practice caused the occurrence of the derogatory term "Shala Kazakh" which literally translates as "half Kazakh" or "a bit of Kazakh" (Bekzhanova & Makoelle, 2022). The term carries a negative connotation as it refers to ethnic Kazakhs with limited or no knowledge of the Kazakh language. Usually, people who are proficient in Kazakh or who are of an older generation use it for language shaming and to imply that a person is Russified. However, there seems to be a shift in people's opinions as now they are showing a more inclusive

attitude towards the two languages. Especially, this is observed amongst the younger generation as they seem to see the languages as resources, but at the same time prioritise the learning of the Kazakh language. As noted in Jarlhøj & Valijärvi's (2024) study:

> There is also a generational divide in terms of people's personal attitudes towards Kazakh, with the younger generation viewing Kazakh as "trendy and cool". (p. 30)

Therefore, as there is a growing interest in national identity and reconnecting with the Kazakh language it may be forecasted that it will become more dominant and have a steadier status in society. However, it is possible that this forecast may be shaken by the occurrence of a third language, English, which was adopted as part of the trilingual education policy. At the moment, the government is actively promoting the English language (Bokayev et al., 2020) through education. However, other forms of exposure, such as media, technology, news, and career opportunities abroad, are also contributing to society's interest in the language (Jarlhøj & Valijärvi, 2024). In order to understand how the three languages function under the policy, the next sections dive deeper into the implementation of the trilingual education policy and the challenges the in-service teachers are faced with.

2.6 The Trilingual Education Policy in Kazakhstan

It seems that scholars have not yet arrived at an agreement regarding the definition that can fully capture the essence of trilingual education. Some scholars refer to it as teaching in three languages (Ytsma, 2001) and the "use of three languages of instruction" (Cenoz et al., 2001, p. 3). Brohy (2005, p. 149) seems to believe that it is an umbrella term that can carry such characteristics as:

> Strong form – three languages as mediums of instruction; intermediate form – bilingual education with third language acquisition; weak form – L2 and L3 language classes.

However, it seems that in the context of this research, Beetsma's (2002), Ytsma's (2001), and Hoffman's (2001) definitions carry the closest meanings to the investigated trilingual education policy. According to Ytsma (2001), trilingual education is when the "three

languages are both taught as school subjects and used as mediums of instruction" (p. 12).

Similarly, Hoffman's (2001, p. 3) classification states the following:

> Third language learners, that is, bilinguals who acquire a third language in the school context; bilinguals who have become trilingual through immigration, and members of trilingual communities.

Thus, Hoffman's (2001) classification of "third language learners, that is, bilinguals who acquire a third language in the school context" (p. 3) is also close to the meaning behind the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan.

Beetsma (2002) defined trilingual education as a type of schooling that undertakes the use of three separate languages to teach subjects from the school curriculum. According to Beetsma (2002, p. 9), trilingual schooling carries the following characteristics:

> (a) located in a multilingual community where the three school languages are spoken by autochthonous citizens and/or (b) primary schools on which all three languages are being used as a medium of instruction for one or more subjects in the curriculum.

These characteristics correspond to the current policy being implemented in Kazakhstan which is called the trilingual education policy.

The trilingual education policy or the "Trinity of Languages" was introduced by the Former President Nursultan Nazarbayev in 2007 to transform and renovate the existing language ideology endorsed due to the historical events that were mentioned in the previous section. The new policy became a part of the "New Kazakhstan in the New World" strategic initiative (Tajik et al., 2022) and was aimed at reshaping the concepts of the presented languages while viewing the Kazakh language at the heart of this policy (Karabassova, 2020).

The policy is purposed to enhance the status of the Kazakh language and increase the number of Kazakh language speakers to 95% by 2025 (SPESD, 2016). The Russian language, which is the second language represented in the policy, is being maintained and used as the language of interethnic communication. The third language, which is English, is deemed to be necessary in order to meet the standards of globalisation, become competitive

in the global arena, and to enter the list of developed countries (Hajar & Manan, 2022). The Former President stated that there can hardly be any discussions of the nation's competitiveness without the knowledge of the English language (Nazarbayev, 2007). Thus, the three languages are used as tools for achieving the identified aims (Goodman & Abdimanapova, 2020; Karabassova, 2020).

In his annual address, the Former President referred to European and Asian countries where trilingual education was not an exception but rather a norm (Karabassova, 2020). Such countries as The Netherlands (French, German, English), Luxembourg (Luxembourgish, German, French), The Basque Country (Basque, Spanish, English), Switzerland (French, German, English), Finland (Finnish, Swedish, English) and Friesland (Frisian, Dutch, English) have long been promoting and practising trilingual education and schooling (Irsaliyev et al., 2017; Ytsma, 2001). To be precise, the beginning of the trilingual education policy in these countries was as follows: The Netherlands in 1997, Luxembourg in 1912, The Basque Country in 1982, Switzerland in 1996, Finland in 1987, and Friesland in 1997 (Irsaliyev et al., 2017, p. 147). In relation to these countries' extensive experience in trilingualism, Kazakhstan has just started its journey and seems to be still figuring out its optimal ways toward the delivery of the trilingual education.

Within the framework of the trilingual education policy, each language was appointed as the medium of instruction for specific subjects. These subjects are: The History of Kazakhstan needs to be in the medium of the Kazakh language; World History needs to be in the medium of the Russian language; science or STEM subjects, such as Computer Science, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics need to be in the medium of the English language (SPESD, 2016). Although the learning of these three languages is supposed to take place in grades starting from one to twelve, teaching through the medium of the three languages is taking a gradual progression. This means that the students start the 1st grade in either the Kazakh medium of instruction or the Russian medium of instruction. Starting from the 5th grade the

students learn The History of Kazakhstan in the Kazakh language and World History in the Russian language regardless of being in Kazakh or Russian medium school (Goodman & Abdimanapova, 2020). The students of 10th and 12th grades learn science or STEM subjects which are Computer Science, Chemistry, Biology and Physics in the English language. This way the students learn the three languages throughout their primary and middle school years and slowly add the English language as one of the mediums of instruction toward high school. However, it has to be mentioned that English prior to becoming one of the mediums of instruction was only taught as a foreign language from 1990 (Gerfanova, 2018). On top of the gradual language progression, the government introduced the updated curriculum which is designed to develop the trilingual education policy by transforming education and moving away from the Soviet educational system. In contrast to the Soviet educational system which was heavily teacher-centred with a lack of tasks on higher-order thinking (Fimyar, 2014), the updated curriculum looks at developing students' creativity, autonomous learning, and skills related to real life (Goodman & Abdimanapova, 2020). As part of the updated curriculum, the teacher adopts a guiding role toward knowledge (Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2018) while students become more autonomous and turn into independent learners. Moreover, the program undertakes a spiral development that focuses on making connections between the disciplines as the same and common content is encountered across Kazakh, Russian, and English medium subjects (Goodman & Abdimanapova, 2020). For example, the topic of specific plants may be encountered in Biology, English language, and Kazakh language disciplines. This way the students can make connections between the disciplines and across different languages by learning their names and terms in Kazakh, Russian, and English.

Apart from the curriculum, the government established special schools that were set to become the hub of trilingual education policy which will later transmit their case to other mainstream schools (Shamshidinova et al., 2014; Karabassova, 2020). The schools are called

Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools (hereinafter NIS) where this research took place and these schools are known to act as 'change agents' (Karabassova, 2020) and testing sites for all innovations in education. Overall, there are 22 NIS schools in Kazakhstan that are implementing the trilingual education policy. Before the establishment of NIS schools, there were 33 special schools that started the implementation of the policy. However, as Shamshidinova et al. (2014) stated such schools did not achieve a high level of proficiency in these three languages among their students (Karabassova, 2020). Thus, the government launched NIS schools that will act as testing sites for innovations and trilingual education in particular. These schools adopted the additive bilingualism model where the prevailing part of the content is given in the first language with an addition of the second language. For example, NIS students of 7-10 grades receive 90% of the content in L1 (Kazakh or Russian) and 10% in L2 (Kazakh or Russian or English) while 11-12 grades receive 40% of the content in L1 and L2 and the rest of 60% is given in L3 which is the English language (Karabassova, 2020). The aim of the program is to deliver the science subjects in 11-12 grades fully in the English language by 2023.

2.7 Challenges in the Implementation of the Trilingual Education Policy

In order to progress the implementation of the trilingual education policy the Ministry of Education and Science developed the documents that would be used to guide the policy. These documents were the Roadmap for Trilingual Education Development for 2015-2020 and Uniform Language Standards for Learning Three Languages (Goodman & Abdimanapova, 2020). The documents present the methodological approach for teaching and learning under the "Trinity of Languages" policy (Goodman & Abdimanapova, 2020). However, as Karabassova (2020) argued, the so-called Roadmap for Trilingual Education Development for 2015-2020 turned into another formal document to which everyone was referring and knew about its existence without necessarily resulting in concrete action.

Karabassova (2020) claimed that the Roadmap for Trilingual Education Development for 2015-2020 “did not communicate any expected outcomes, milestones or key indicators to the stakeholders” (p. 44). The same applies to the State Programme of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020 which declared that the overall number of trilingual schools would grow from 100 to 700 by 2020 (Karabassova, 2020). However, once again no risks associated with the increase of such schools in a relatively short span of time were not given (Karabassova, 2020) and to the best of my knowledge, none of the reports mentioned whether the indicated number was achieved.

Besides the lack of clarity in the documents, the policy has undergone multiple changes since its announcement in 2007. The policy which was intended for the integration of three languages as the mediums of instruction for non-language based subjects was shifted towards English which became the only medium of instruction for science subjects (Biology, Chemistry, Physics, and Computer Science) at high school level (Karabassova, 2022). Moreover, the policy that communicated its plans to move 40% of mainstream schools to English medium of instruction has failed to do so and decided to go with a more gradual transition (Mehisto et al., 2022). These frequent additions and changes to the policy attracted the public’s attention who seemed to have split into groups of those who were in favour and those who criticise and, in some cases, opposed the policy. While some argued about the teachers’ unpreparedness to implement the policy (Karabassova, 2018), shortage of teachers, materials, professional development, and teacher training (Mehisto et al., 2014; Mehisto et al., 2022) others believed in the importance of adopting English as one of the mediums of instruction (Nazarbayev, 2007).

However, undoubtedly among all of the mentioned challenges the adoption of the English language as one of the mediums of instruction poses serious challenges and difficulties in the implementation of the policy. Firstly, the English language proficiency in Kazakhstan seems to be low as it was placed as 93rd country among 100 countries according to the

Index for English Language Proficiency (2019). The policy's three languages come from different family groups (See Table 3), specifically Kazakh is the descendant of the Turkish group of the Altaic family while Russian is the Slavic group of the Indo-European family, and English is West Germanic (Mair, 1991).

Table 3. The three languages' family groups

Ural-Altaic	Indo-European	Indo-European
Altaic	Slavic	Germanic
Kazakh	Russian	English

Note: The Three Language Groups

As typologically languages from different families are considered distant (Cenoz & Gorter, 2010) this may create some challenges for the learners to acquire dissimilar languages. Needless to say, these languages do not share any common lexical and grammatical structures which makes it even more challenging for the students. As De Angelis (2007, p. 133) stated:

> When languages belong to the same language family, but not to the same subgroup within the family, two general tendencies have been identified. First, learners continue to be influenced by the languages that are more closely related to the target language, irrespective of whether this is the native or a non-native language. Second, learners may be influenced by more than one language at the same time (combined cross-linguistic influence.

This means that whenever the languages in the trilingual education policies arrive from at least one family group it allows either students to be influenced by them or as Flynn et al. (2019) stated build upon them. Most languages in the European trilingual education policy originate from the same group of languages which is mostly an Indo-European group (Irsaliyev et al., 2017). However, this does not necessarily resonate with the policy in Kazakhstan as it was illustrated in Table 3. Apart from the mentioned lexical and grammatical differences, the writing systems of these languages differ too. Although Kazakh and Russian languages share the same Cyrillic writing system, English on the other hand,

uses the Latin alphabet. To make things more complicated, the Kazakh language is expected to change its alphabet to Latin (Nazarbayev, 2017) as once it was before the Soviet Union's korenizatsiia (nativisation) policy (Smagulova, 2008; 2016).

Secondly, Mehisto et al. (2014) who have been looking at the implementation of the policy argued about the positioning of the three languages in the "Trinity of Languages". As Mehisto et al. (2014) posit, the three languages are not being utilised as resources in facilitating the teaching and learning processes, but they are rather being used in isolation without bringing the three languages together. Mehisto et al. (2014) claim that teachers rely on only one language and do not incorporate the others into the teaching practice. Karabassova (2020) too has made similar observations and stated that the policy is losing its initial concept of teaching through the medium of three languages and becoming synonymous with "teaching in English" (p. 38). In other words, the implementation of the policy is not approaching the languages holistically by viewing each of them as tools where one can help with the learning of the other and vice versa.

Lastly, the policy is putting a huge burden on in-service teachers' shoulders who despite varied levels of English language proficiency would have to teach through it as part of the policy requirements. The policy which has a top-down approach has the same prescriptive approach to teachers' training that was put in place to "*ease"* the teachers' burden. Besides, externally and internally organised English language courses, the teachers have also been exposed to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) training, especially in cases when the disciplines that they teach are science-based ones (Mehisto et al., 2022). Although the focus of this research study does not revolve around the CLIL methodology, I deemed it appropriate to include a section on it, especially after learning about the mandatory requirement for in-service teachers to undertake CLIL training as part of policy implementation. Thus, CLIL methodology is discussed below where I tried to unpack its

meaning, and its pedagogical implications, and understand its current situation within the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan.

2.8 The Role of CLIL in the Implementation of the Trilingual Education Policy

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) can be described as an educational approach that "is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 1) and delivered by the teachers who are "not native-speakers of the target language" (Nikula & Moore, 2019, p. 238). To be exact, CLIL is an approach in accordance with which "subjects are taught through a foreign language with dual-focussed aims, namely the learning of content, and the simultaneous learning of a foreign [sic] language" (Darn, 2006, p.4). The approach which originated in Europe in the 1990s (Nikula & Moore, 2019) gained its momentum in many countries especially where the students need to learn certain disciplines in the curriculum in a language other than their first language. In other words, a second or third language is utilised as a medium of instruction for teaching and learning of content and language (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2002). Although CLIL has many similarities with other educational programs as immersion or bilingual programs (Coyle, 2007), the main aspect that makes CLIL different from them is the fact that it has a "dual focus on both content and language in equal measure" (Karabassova, 2022, p. 787). And the obvious benefits of such an approach include learners' abilities to "develop fluency through use, through communicating for a variety of purposes" (San Isidro, 2018, p.186). Mehisto et al. (2022, p. 6) define other advantages of this approach which are:

- L1 competence in reading, writing, speaking and listening comprehension;
- Advanced functional proficiency in all school content subjects, such as mathematics and science taught primarily through the L2 and in those taught primarily through the L1;
- Understanding and appreciation of the culture(s) of the L1 group(s), and of the L2 group(s);
- Capacity for and interest in inter-cultural communication;
- The cognitive and social skills and habits required for success in an ever-changing world.

In this approach, the teachers separate the use of L1 and L2 which means that the subject is taught mostly in one of the two languages (Mehisto et al., 2022). This creates an interaction between L1 and L2 by developing the knowledge of the content and language. The 4Cs framework which was developed by Coyle (2007; 2010) consists of four essential CLIL components. According to Coyle et al. (2010, p. 41) these four components are:

> content (subject matter), communication (language learning and using), cognition (learning and thinking process) and culture (developing intercultural understanding and global citizenship).

According to Coyle et al. (2010, p. 42), the 4Cs framework can be achieved in the cases when teachers follow the illustrated seven principles which report that:

> 1. Content is not only about obtaining new knowledge and skills, but also about the learners generating their own knowledge, understanding, and developing their skills.
> 2. Content needs to be connected to cognition (learning and thinking). In order to enable the learners to build their own understanding, content must be analyzed for its linguistic demands.
> 3. Cognition should be analyzed in terms of its linguistic demands.
> 4. Language should be accessible and transparent and related to the learning context.
> 5. Interaction is crucial in the learning process, particularly in contexts where the medium of instruction is a foreign language.
> 6. In CLIL, language and culture are interrelated; therefore, intercultural awareness is essential.
> 7. Context variables should be taken into account to implement the CLIL approach effectively.

Similarly, Ball et al. (2015) too provided a set of aspects that teachers need to consider when implementing the 4Cs framework. According to Ball et al. (2015), teachers should put the content at the forefront by adapting and prioritising the content to a specific context. The teachers then need to create a language corpus (Coyle et al., 2010) by considering the students' varied needs in order to achieve the communication aspect. In relation to such aspects as cognition and culture Ball et al. (2015) recommend that the identified goals need to coincide with the content and that the teachers need to make sure that the cultural component is incorporated into these goals. Looking at these aspects one can tell that the implementation of this methodology can be quite challenging, and for this reason, Marsh et al. (2010) argued that the teachers' training and professional development should be

demanding too. According to Marsh et al. (2010), CLIL teachers' professional development should include the following eight competencies:

Table 4. CLIL teacher professional competencies

1. Personal reflection	5. Research and evaluation
2. CLIL fundamentals	6. Learning resources and environment
3. Content and language awareness	7. Classroom management
4. Methodology and assessment	8. CLIL management

(Marsh et al. 2010, pp. 17-27)

According to them, personal reflection includes in itself the ability to define and reflect on existing language based, pedagogical, and content related competences and needs (Marsh et al., 2010). CLIL fundamentals allow the teachers to learn about the core principles of this methodology and situate them by scaffolding "language learning during content learning" (Marsh et al., 2010, p. 19). Methodology and assessment competencies allow teachers to establish and build learner capacity through adopted strategies and assessment tools. Research and evaluation include such training as conducting action research, critical analyses as well as performance evaluation. The resources for learning and environment "imply specific resources for CLIL and enriched environments to help students to form a sense of security to explore content and manage their learning process" (Maximova, 2020, p. 12). Lastly, classroom management and CLIL management competencies allow teachers "to motivate and deal with the anxiety of students" (Maximova, 2020, p. 12) and "to manage the programme with different internal and external stakeholders and recognize each stakeholder's role in its success" (Maximova, 2020, p. 12).

It is understood that the main principle of the CLIL approach is to integrate language and content together, however as many have already claimed (Paran, 2013; Tedick & Cammarata, 2012) the balance between these two is hard to achieve as some disciplines are more content-driven while others are more language-driven. Content teachers become more

content-driven and seem to not pay much attention to language aspects when teaching (Villabona & Cenoz, 2022) and thus this approach may be challenging to some. As "CLIL encourages teachers to let go of traditional subject boundaries' and move towards integration of content and language" (Coyle et al., 2009, p. 17) the teachers who are going to teach using this approach require rigorous training to understand its principles.

Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools which are the first testers of the trilingual education policy, also became the first ones to start utilising the CLIL approach (Karabassova, 2022), and training their in-service teachers to start using it in their teaching practices. Since the start of the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan, the professional development of STEM subject teachers has become one of the main priorities of the policy and CLIL is one of the compulsory trainings for these teachers (Karabassova, 2022). Along with the English language proficiency level, the CLIL certificate became another requirement for STEM subject teachers to start teaching in English (Karabassova, 2022). Interestingly, 492 hours were allocated for teachers' professional development but only 70 hours were given for CLIL training (Karabassova, 2020). Although CLIL is referred to as the main pedagogical practice used to implement the trilingual education policy, the approach was not recorded in any of the official documents of the policy (MoES, 2015).

NIS schools which were specifically launched to "*test and translate"* the trilingual experience to other mainstream schools have been implementing Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as their primary methodology for trilingual schooling (Karabassova & San Isidro, 2020) which has also not gone without criticism. Studies conducted on STEM teachers' perceptions and understandings of CLIL methodology have resulted in rather conflicting results. While some teachers were purposefully teaching the content through the integration of language, others seemed to still lack an understanding of the peculiarities of such methodology (Karabassova, 2022; Karabassova & San Isidro, 2020;). Karabassova (2022) assumed that the reason behind such contradictory results may

be due to the fact that the teachers are undertaking different CLIL training with varied content, duration, and quality. In her study, she revealed that the teachers had varied knowledge of the CLIL methodology, and some still have not developed a clear understanding of how to use it in teaching practice. To illustrate, other studies conducted in the Kazakhstani context highlighted that some teachers associated CLIL methodology with a translation of terms (Kakenov, 2017; Mehisto et al., 2008) and understood it "merely as just teaching through another language" (Karabassova, 2022, p. 787). Other studies claimed that teachers did not think the language learning aspect should be part of CLIL classrooms (Maximova, 2020) and that the content should be the main priority (Maximova, 2020; Shabdenova, 2021; San Isidro, 2018). Similarly, Karabassova's (2019) study too highlighted the mentioned aspects and also claimed that in the cases when teachers utilised CLIL methodology "they did not always realize they were using them or did not attribute those techniques to CLIL" (p. 55). Although the mentioned studies drew different results and reported on teachers' misconceptions regarding the CLIL methodology, there was one aspect that was reported by all of them. The main point which was raised by all of these studies was the fact that teachers tend to associate CLIL methodology with teaching through an additional language (Karabassova, 2019; Maximova, 2020; Shabdenova, 2021). Liu's (2020, p. 150) study argued that:

> CLIL classes are sometimes found to be teacher-centred and non-interactive and focus on reproducing 'model' answers in English as knowledge items in assessed assignments rather than genuine dialogues and knowledge co-construction among students and teachers.

Similarly, Moore and Nikula (2016, p. 238) argued that:

> While knowing English presumably prepares learners for participation in the global community – and this is usually among the main motivations for introducing CLIL – the prevalence of English may be problematic if it diminishes the importance of other languages.

In her study, Liu (2020) proposed translanguaging as an effective pedagogical practice that can be used in CLIL classrooms. Moore and Nikula (2016) too urged for the need for CLIL

classrooms to be informed by and be more open toward multilingual practices. As research on CLIL had a predominantly monolingual orientation (Moore & Nikula, 2016), the current scholarship is looking at the role and application of translanguaging practices in CLIL settings (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022; Karabassova & San Isidro, 2020; Liu, 2019; Moore & Nikula, 2016; Rafi, 2020; Wang, 2020). This is partly because translanguaging practices "occur naturally despite the often strict restriction of CLIL instruction language in the target language only" (Rafi & Morgan, 2023, p. 24). Additionally, Karabassova and San Isidro (2020) who made similar remarks have also argued about the "*multilingual turn"* in the CLIL context and how it is important for CLIL classrooms to include "translingual practices and become language-rich" (p. 2). According to them, these translingual practices include the concept of translanguaging which is a usual phenomenon in CLIL classrooms (García & Flores, 2014; Karabassova & San Isidro, 2020; Lin & He, 2017; Pun & Tai, 2021) and is also claimed to be as far more efficient (Li, 2022; Lin & He, 2017). The rise of such interest in the concept of translanguaging in CLIL classrooms and challenging of traditional monolingual classroom spaces (Tai & Li Wei, 2021b), have encouraged scholars to explore the role of translanguaging in other settings too such as in the EMI context as well as in the context of trilingual schools (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Zhang & Chan, 2022). Kazakhstan's trilingual education policy, which is also implementing CLIL informed pedagogical practices, makes it an interesting case for exploring it from the translingual perspective specifically from the translanguaging point of view. Thus, the following section defines the concept of translanguaging and provides the reasons for adopting this approach to this research study.

2.9 The Origin of Translanguaging

The multilingual turn (Liu & Fang, 2022) gave rise to other concepts that moved beyond traditional monolingualism and bilingualism. These concepts were:

- Translingual practice (Canagarajah, 2013).
- Transglossia (García, 2013).
- Transidiomatic practice (Jacquemet, 2005).
- Translocal language practice (Pennycook, 2007).

and the most widespread among all and which this work is centered around is:

- *Translanguaging* (Williams, 1994; García 2009).

The concept of translanguaging finds its origin in Welsh bilingual education (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021; Klyshbekova, 2022). The term was coined by Williams (1994), who in fulfilment of his thesis work, visited and observed Welsh bilingual schools (Klyshbekova, 2022). During these visits, he noticed that teachers were using interesting teaching strategies where students needed to read the text in Welsh and English and then complete the tasks in these languages. As an example, Williams (1994, p. 262) illustrates the following observation from a History lesson:

> There are two images (Jacob's Island and Glasgow) and three short texts about life in industrial suburbs and cities in the nineteenth century: Jacob's Island in London, Liverpool and Merthyr Tudful in Wales. The first two texts are in English and the third is in Welsh. Students have to answer five short questions, three in English about the texts written in English and two in Welsh about the text in Welsh.

Williams (1994) claimed that the tasks did not only require the students to read and understand the texts in two languages, but they also triggered them to switch between the two languages. By doing so the students were able to develop the usage of the two languages and received "a deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter" (Baker, 2003, p. 82). Williams (1994) named this language alternation as "trawsieithu" and argued that the strategy requires certain cues from the teacher that would help to trigger and initiate the switch between the languages (Williams, 2000).Williams (2002) further explains that in the context of Wales, the main aim of this strategy is to "strengthen and to use both languages to a high level in order to develop balanced and confident bilingual pupils" (p. 42). Moreover, the constant switch between English and Welsh has been used in order to protect the

minoritised language which was Welsh (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). Williams (2000) noticed that teachers deliberately designed tasks and activities that demanded the switches between the languages and this, in turn, developed the usage of both languages and at the same time protected the minoritised language. On top of that, Cenoz and Gorter (2021) noted another unique aspect of the Welsh "trawsieithu" strategy and claimed that the teachers were actually using the stronger language which was English in order to develop the weaker language which was Welsh. As a result of this, the strategy was increasing a balanced development of both English and Welsh (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

The Welsh "trawsieithu" teaching strategy was then translated into translanguaging (Lewis et al., 2012) where the prefix "trans" means "across" and "going beyond" (García & Li, 2014). According to García and Wei (2014, p. 3) the prefix "trans" in translanguaging can refer to:

> (1) trans-system and trans-spaces, in which translanguaging is going between and beyond socially constructed languages, structures and practices; (2) transformative nature of translanguaging, as traditional understandings of language practices are generated, this leads to the emergence of different discourses and voices that have been disregarded. (3) trans-disciplinary consequences of language analysis, offering a tool for understanding not only the nature of the language practices but also other aspects of socialisations, human cognition, learning, social relations and structures.

Translanguaging drew different scholars' attention and interest due to its potentially transformative aspects. The initial Welsh "trawsieithu" which was first noticed as a unique teaching strategy was then explored, extended and developed as a theoretical concept. García (2009) was among those scholars who extended the initial concept of "trawsieithu" and "adapted it to the reality of bilingual education and bilingualism in the United States" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021, p. 8). According to García (2009), translanguaging means "multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds" (p. 45). García and Wei (2014, p. 3) argued that:

> Translanguaging in education can be defined as a process by which students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that include all the language practices of students in order to develop new language practices and sustain old ones,

> communicate and appropriate knowledge, and give voice to new socio-political realities by interrogating linguistic inequality.

Whilst sustaining the above showed statement, García and Kano (2014, p. 261) define the role of translanguaging naming it:

> A process by which students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that include ALL the language practices of ALL students in a class in order to develop new language practices and sustain old ones, communicate and appropriate knowledge, and give voice to new socio-political realities by interrogating linguistic inequality.

Comparably Otheguy et al. (2015, p. 218) depict the concept as:

> The deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages.

Similarly, Beres (2015, p. 107) claimed that:

> Through the systematic use of both languages in the same lesson, translanguaging enables students to internalise new knowledge, process it and then make sense of it in the other language. This process requires the use of a number of cognitive skills, both receptive and expressive, and results in a deeper understanding of the subject taught.

García et al. (2017) noted that there are four principal aims of translanguaging practice which are: to support the students when they engage with content and help them to "develop linguistic practices for academic contexts" as well as to encourage and celebrate their bilingualism (p. 7). However, some scholars such as Jaspers (2018), Conteh (2018), and Ticheloven et al. (2019) are challenging the idea of translanguaging and even stating that it is becoming "overly celebrated" (Sah & Kubota, 2022, p. 137). Jaspers (2018, p. 1) stated that:

> Translanguaging is likely to be less transformative and socially critical than is suggested because translanguaging research has more in common with the monolingual authorities it criticizes than it may seem. After all, it trades on causality effects that cannot be taken for granted, and because translanguaging, in some of its representations, is becoming a dominating rather than a liberating force.

Other criticisms of translanguaging include its "lack of empirical verification in terms of measurable effects on educational outcomes" (Duarte & Günther-van der Meij, 2020, p. 129). Moreover, Ticheloven et al., (2019) claimed that teachers seem to complain about the

concept being more philosophical rather than a discreet pedagogical tool. Similarly, Conteh (2018) too argued that so far, the research has concentrated on understanding the concept rather than elaborating on its pedagogical potential. However, nowadays there are a plethora of studies that contradict these criticisms as the current scholarship offers many ways and strategies for teachers to incorporate translanguaging practices into their teaching practices (García et al., 2016; Klyshbekova, 2023; Mertin, 2018; Zeaiter, 2022).

García and Wei (2014, p. 121) noted that translanguaging needs to be utilised by the teachers in order to:

- To differentiate among students' levels and adapt instruction to different types of students in multilingual classrooms.
- To build background knowledge so that students can make meaning of the content being taught and of the ways of languaging in the lesson.
- To deepen understandings and socio-political engagement, develop and extend new knowledge, and develop critical thinking and critical consciousness.
- For cross-linguistic metalinguistic awareness so as to strengthen the students' ability to meet the communicative exigencies of the socio-educational situation.
- For cross-linguistic flexibility so as to use language practices competently.
- For identity investment and positionality, that is, to engage learners.
- To interrogate linguistic inequality and disrupt linguistic hierarchies and social structures.

According to García and Wei (2015, p. 227), the adoption of a translanguaging lens refers to the fact that:

> there can be no way of educating children inclusively without recognising their diverse language and meaning-making practices as a resource to learn.

Similarly, Baker (2011, pp. 289-290) too identified such advantageous aspects of translanguaging as a better understanding of the subject matter; better oral and literacy skills; better home and school connection; and better mastery of L2 through the learning of content. On top of this, as Duarte (2019, p. 162) noted translanguaging practice tends to occur whenever teachers are engaged in:

- paraphrasing the task in the worksheet
- identifying and describing available knowledge to solve the task
- solving managerial aspects
- set forward a particular formulation in terms of content
- hypothesize

- recast and correct previous information
- negotiate meaning
- quote from sources and worksheets
- show disagreement/agreement and appraisal
- provide counter-arguments.discuss appropriate wording.

García's (2009) extension of translanguaging meant the acceptance of its capabilities to develop the use of school languages, but it also included the enhancement of opportunities for children with minority languages. In other words, García's (2009) extension of translanguaging had an aspect of inclusivity that was targeted at children from minoritised language backgrounds.

García's (2009) extension of the original Welsh "trawsieithu" added another aspect to it which is the inclusion of the students' broad range of linguistic repertoires given the multicultural context of the United States. Moreover, this extension of translanguaging was not restricted to only teachers' planned strategies but also included unplanned or spontaneous use of translanguaging which is a natural practice among emergent bilinguals. Cenoz and Gorter (2021, p. 9) provided an illustrative comparison between the two contexts' (Wales and the US) uses of translanguaging practice which is shown in the table below:

Table 5.

Translanguaging ("trawsieithu") in Wales	Translanguaging in the United States
1. Identify successful and planned bilingual pedagogical practices at school 2. Define the characteristics of these practices and label them as translanguaging 3. Propose the extension of these practices to other bilingual classes and schools	1. Observe natural unplanned bilingual communicative practices in different contexts 2. Define the characteristics of these practices and label them as translanguaging 3. Propose the legitimisation of these practices by accepting them at school

Note. Reprinted from "Pedagogical Translanguaging", by Cenoz and Gorter (2021, p. 9)

By comparing the two contexts' use of the translanguaging practice, Cenoz and Gorter (2021, p. 9) state that translanguaging is a "polysemic term" which use is varied in accordance with the context. Cenoz and Gorter (2021) argue that translanguaging has

progressed into an "umbrella term that embraces a wide variety of theoretical and practical proposals" (p. 12) one of which is presented in the following section.

2.10 Two types of translanguaging

With the recent multilingual turn (Liu & Fang, 2022) and increased interest in equitable education the notion of pedagogical translanguaging is now gaining momentum. The scholars who have been conducting research in this area used varied terms such as "the pedagogy of translanguaging" (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016), "translanguaging as pedagogy" (Paulsrud et al., 2017), "translanguaging pedagogy" (Tian et al., 2020), "translanguaging pedagogical strategies" (García & Kleyn, 2016), "translanguaging-oriented pedagogy" (Leung & Valdes, 2019) which illustrates the fact that it may be multifaceted. In this thesis work, I will be referring to the adopted notion as "pedagogical translanguaging" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; 2020) due to the fact that Cenoz and Gorter's provided definition has the closest meaning to the ideas discussed in this research study.

Before I dive into explaining the concept of pedagogical translanguaging it is also important to acknowledge other sociolinguistic theories that are linked to the concept of translanguaging. These sociolinguistic theories are "flexible bilingualism" (Creese & Blackledge, 2010), "codeswitching" (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021), "codemixing" (Kim, 2006), and "plurilingualism" (Galante, 2022; Piccardo, 2017). The common point these theories or terms share is that they focus on opening up a space for multilingual presence rather than sustaining the idea of monolingual only. Even though the commonalities between these terms are present, it does not necessarily mean that they convey the same meaning and practice. For instance, such terms as "codeswitching" and "codemixing" have been mostly associated with translanguaging and some even cannot tell the difference between them. Before proceeding with translanguaging it is important to establish the correct meaning for both these terms and I will start by elaborating on flexible bilingualism first (Creese &

Blackledge, 2010; 2011). Flexible bilingualism views languages as social resources that do not necessarily have clear boundaries between them (Creese & Blackledge, 2011). This notion puts the speakers at the heart of the interaction process (Creese & Blackledge, 2011) and can be characterised as a heteroglossic practice. Many scholars who refer to flexible bilingualism in fact imply the concept of translanguaging as it is an integral part of this pedagogy (Bailey 2007; Bakhtin 1994; Garcia, 2007). Codeswitching and codemixing are also other terms that are commonly associated with translanguaging practices (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021; Przymus, 2023) and thus need to be explained and clarified before proceeding to the discussion of the two types of translanguaging.

2.10.1 Codeswitching

Earlier I mentioned that the emergence of the concept of translanguaging was the outcome of the teaching practice that occurred within the classroom setting; however, the occurrence of codeswitching first took place in social settings and then moved to classroom settings too (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021). According to Grosjean (2010, p. 52), codeswitching can be defined by:

> The alternate use of two languages, that is, the speaker makes a complete shift to another language for a word, phrase or sentence and then reverts to the base language.

In early scholars' works (Funso, 1980; Sgall et al., 1992), codeswitching was equated to the framework of diglossia which is identified as "two varieties of a language exist side by side through the community, with each having a different role to play" (Ferguson, 1959, p. 325). Later studies conducted by Ritchie and Bhatia (1996) argued that codeswitching was a result of grammatical and language incompetence in two languages, and this must be one of the biggest misconceptions surrounding codeswitching practice until today. Some scholars still argue that the speakers of two or more languages resort to codeswitching due to a lack of proficiency in one of the languages and especially whenever they experience a tip-of-the-

tongue occasion (Kreiner & Degani, 2015). Some monolinguals seem to share this idea and believe that codeswitching is the result of a "communication deficit" (Baker, 2011, p. 106) and some bilinguals decide not to engage in codeswitching practices by keeping the languages separated. To this scholars who research codeswitching practices reported back by stating that: a) children who engaged in codeswitching practices in fact demonstrated high levels of proficiencies in both languages (Bentahila & Davies, 1995); b) codeswitching "involves skilled manipulation of overlapping sections of two (or more) grammars" (Wei, 2007, p. 15); c) it is also considered as "a quite normal and widespread form of bilingual interaction requiring a great deal of bilingual competence" (Muysken, 2007, p. 280); d) "those who are more fluent in a language that codeswitch" (Baker, 2011, p. 106). According to Baker (2011), there are thirteen reasons or "over-lapping purposes" (p. 108) as to why bilingual and multilingual speakers codeswitch. These purposes are presented in the following table:

Table 6.

1. Emphasising	When a speaker wants to stress and emphasise a particular word in a sentence
2. Substituting	When a speaker does not know a particular word or a phrase, he or she substitutes this word or a phrase with one from another language
3. Expressing a concept with no equivalent	When a speaker switches to another language when he or she cannot find an equivalent of the concept in a particular language
4. Reinforcing	When a speaker wants to accentuate or underline a certain point
5. Clarifying	Whenever a speaker needs to repeat a word or a phrase for clarification purposes
6. Expressing identity	Whenever a speaker wants to reduce the distance, establish friendship and connect with a peer group by using commonly known words or phrases
7. Relating a conversation	Reporting back to a previously held conversation
8. Interjecting	Can be used in an attempt to interrupt the conversation

9. Easing the tension and/or injecting the humour	To achieve a change in mood by switching the languages
10. Change of attitude	Can be used in an attempt to highlight the shared values among group members
11. Exclude people from a conversation	Whenever speaker(s) wish to exclude people who do not share the same linguistic repertoire from a conversation
12. Discuss certain topics	Can be used to discuss particular topics which involve special terminology
13. Children copying adults and peers	Whenever children imitate and emulate their adults and friends

Adapted from Baker (2011, p. 108) thirteen purposes for codeswitching

Besides the mentioned points above, another ambiguity surrounding codeswitching is that it has many overlapping points with the translanguaging practice (Lewis et al., 2012; Sayer, 2013; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021) and that sometimes it can be difficult to distinguish between the two (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021). This is mainly because both of these concepts relate to the alternation between two or more languages and can both be used spontaneously or for pedagogical purposes (García, 2009; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021; Otheguy et al., 2015). Goodman & Tastanbek (2021, p. 30) also note that:

> If translanguaging and its nuances are poorly understood, it may become a buzzword that is used in teaching and research in ways that limit translanguaging practices to mere codeswitching. The misuse of the term *translanguaging may* also erase the ways in which codeswitching research, like current translanguaging research, has at times been a means to document and disrupt monolingual ideologies.

Similarly, Camilleri Grima (2015, p. 220) pointed out that:

> While the term codeswitching is used in official documents and by non-linguists who perceive reality through a 'monolingual consciousness' (Camilleri Grima, 2003), as a result of language separation in writing, the term translanguaging has been adopted by experts in the field of bilingualism in education who have dissected bilingual classroom discourse and who have explained the pedagogical benefits of a spoken bilingual medium of instruction.

Thus, Goodman and Tastanbek (2021) argue that the primary distinction between the two concepts is that codeswitching has a diglossic view of languages meaning that it views languages separately while translanguaging views languages holistically as a whole which in

turn forms hybridisation of languages. García (2009, 2017) and Otheguy et al. (2015) state that codeswitching is simply an alternation or shift between two separate languages and translanguaging is a process that requires the utilisation of one's full linguistic repertoire. In other words, codeswitching may separate the languages into L1 and L2 whereas translanguaging is engaged with the whole linguistic repertoires the speakers possess. Most importantly, translanguaging practices involve the use of codeswitching, but at the same time, they go beyond it (García, 2009; 2017; Otheguy et al., 2015) as it targets the deeper meaning-making processes. The idea of codeswitching falls under the "two monolinguals in one" (García et al., 2017, p. 20) understanding as it views languages as separate codes. But what most scholars agree on is the fact that "research from the codeswitching past can still inform a translanguaging present and future" (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021, p.11).

2.10.2 Codemixing

Codemixing is another term that overlaps with codeswitching practice which in its turn makes it difficult to distinguish between the two (Grosjean, 1982). As Kim (2006, p. 45) highlighted:

> Code-mixing transfers elements of all linguistic levels and units ranging from a lexical item to a sentence, so that it is not always easy to distinguish code-switching from code-mixing.

While codeswitching's peculiarities and definitions have been identified above, codemixing may be defined as "the mixing of various linguistic units (morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, clauses, and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems within a sentence" (Kim, 2006, p. 45). In other words, codemixing involves the embedding of one languages' words, morphemes, clauses, or phrases into an utterance of another language. Similarly, to codeswitching, codemixing too has been associated with a lack of language proficiency (Weinreich, 1953). But many (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Kim, 2006;

Poplack, 1980) still argue that codemixing is a sign of fluency and that it shows the fact that the speaker is proficient bilingually.

According to Kim (2006), the use of codemixing can be motivated not only by grammatical principles but also by social and psychological factors. Bhatia and Ritchie (2004), Grosjean (1982), and Kim (2006) provide specific reasons and situations for the speakers' motivations to utilise codemixing. According to Grosjean (1982) one of the main reasons why speakers codemix is due to their inability to find an appropriate translation of the word or a phrase for the used language. Also, as Kim (2006) noted the speakers' "interlocutors, situations, messages, attitudes, and emotions generate code-mixing" (p. 47). Similarly, Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) too highlighted that speakers tend to codemix depending on who they talk to and the kinds of relationships they have with their interlocutors. To illustrate this, Grosjean (1982, p. 149) presented quotes from the interviews where one of the participants stated that they:

> I tend to use both English and French within the same conversation, within the same sentence, when I'm with Francos who are obviously bilingual, but also with Francos with whom I am at ease.

Other factors that motivate speakers to utilise codemixing are as follows: "quotations, reiteration, topic-comment/relative clauses, hedging, interjections and idioms and deep-rooted cultural wisdom" (Kim, 2006, p. 49). Muysken (2000) distinguishes between three types of codemixing which are insertions, alternation, and congruent lexicalisation. Insertion type of codemixing refers to the cases whenever the speakers insert or borrow words or phrases which are usually from a foreign language. Such practice is mostly used among immigrant speakers (Baker, 2011; Muysken, 2000). The second type which is alternation refers to the switch from one language to another which involves both the grammatical and lexical points (Muysken, 2000). In this type of codemixing the languages that switch between each other keep their grammatical structures independent meaning that they do not get exposed to any changes. Lastly, the third type of codemixing proposed by Muysken

(2000), is congruent lexicalisation. This type refers to the "tradition of mixing grammatically similar languages such as Dutch and Frisian with vocabulary being used from both languages" (Baker, 2001, p. 107). In other words, the two languages that share the same grammatical structures are likely to be codemixed by the speakers in cases when he or she needs to fill in grammatical or lexical elements from one language to another (Muysken, 2000).

2.10.3 Plurilingualism

Plurilingualism feeds upon other sociolinguistic theories discussed above such as codeswitching, codemixing, and translanguaging (García et al., 2007; Otheguy et al., 2018). It is used interchangeably with multilingualism (Galante, 2022) although the two theories have both similar and different features. While multilingualism sustains multiple languages that coexist together in a particular context, plurilingualism, on the other hand, as Galante (2022, p. 478) put it,

> captures individuals' dynamic, fluid and constantly evolving repertoire, accentuating day-to-day interactions and tasks that may require different languages and/or dialects.

Plurilinguals do not have to have equal proficiencies in every language but rather their proficiency tends to be varied (Galante, 2022). Another differentiating factor between the two is that plurilingualism was classified as a language policy theory in the documents of the Council of Europe (CoE, 2018; Galante, 2022). But most importantly plurilingualism builds on a wide range of dimensions which include culture, emotions, mediation, and semiotic repertoire (Galante et al., 2023). Antony-Newman (2022, p. 2) identified the key elements of plurilingualism consisting of five factors which are:

> (1) the dynamic view of language practices, (2) partial proficiency in languages and language varieties, (3) emphasis on the use of languages in multiple contexts rather than on the ideal proficiency of a 'native speaker', (4) the idea of linguistic repertoire of individuals, and (5) interconnectedness of language and culture in a fluid and complex system.

Ortega (2019, p. 157) provided a clear understanding of this phenomenon and sustained that:

> A good example of a plurilingual individual would be someone who was born in Brazil, then travelled to Ecuador, where he learned Spanish, and later visited the USA for educational purposes, and then subsequently married an Italian woman. In addition to having acquired at least four languages— to various degrees of fluency— this person also has some knowledge of the Indigenous languages that his grandparents used to speak.

Ortega (2019) concludes that indeed most people who are in possession of two or more languages can also be identified as plurilingual.

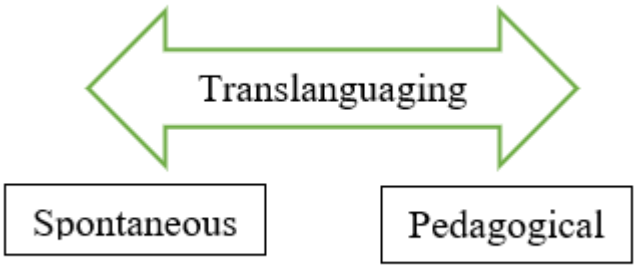
Before moving to the two types of the concept of translanguaging it was seen needed to introduce the above stated sociolinguistic theories such as codeswitching (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021), codemixing (Kim, 2006) and plurilingualism (Galante, 2022; Piccardo, 2017). The similarities and differences between these theories were fit to be introduced as they are interchangeably connected with the concept of translanguaging. Sah and Kubota (2022) noted that "many multilingual practices like code-switching, code-mixing, and translation are described as translanguaging" (p. 136). But it has to be noted that although translanguaging shares similarities with these theories and builds upon them; what differentiates the latter from the former ones is the fact that the concept of translanguaging began as a specifically pedagogical tool within a bilingual national context (Welsh schools) as discussed in the previous section. Translanguaging "does not intent to replace code-switching or any other terms but challenges the code view of language" (Wei, 2018, p. 27) by viewing the languages holistically, helping bilinguals and multilinguals make meaning of their bilinguals and multilingual worlds (García, 2009; Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

2.10.4 Translanguaging

When it comes to the types of translanguaging Cenoz and Gorter (2017), identify that it can be distinguished between pedagogical and spontaneous. Pedagogical translanguaging refers to the strategies that teachers undertake in the classroom which involve the usage of two or more languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). Spontaneous translanguaging, on the other hand, is

unplanned and occurs due to the "bilingual usage in naturally occurring contexts where boundaries between languages are fluid and constantly shifting" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021, p. 18). Pedagogical translanguaging tends to occur in classroom spaces whereas spontaneous translanguaging can be used both inside and outside the classroom. Pedagogical translanguaging is specifically planned by the teacher, but it does not mean that spontaneous translanguaging may not occur in the teaching and learning process. Even though spontaneous translanguaging may not be planned, the teacher can still use it in order to connect it with the learning process (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). Thus, Cenoz and Gorter (2017, 2021) view both pedagogical and spontaneous translanguaging as a continuum.

Figure 1. Two types of translanguaging



Note. Reprinted from "Pedagogical Translanguaging", by Cenoz and Gorter (2021, p. 18)

Besides being planned and designed by the teacher, pedagogical translanguaging is also "systematic, purposeful, creative, necessarily assisted by the language learning" (Chen et al, 2021, p. 2). Spontaneous translanguaging is not only unplanned but it is also "sporadic, non-purposeful, non-creative, not necessarily assisted by language learning, and used by teachers as well as students" (Chen et al, 2021, p. 2). Moreover, spontaneous translanguaging has a socio-linguistic feature to it which means it is intended to empower bilingual and multilingual students who may speak both the majority and minority languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021; García & Wei, 2014; García & Lin, 2017). Among newly arrived immigrant students there is a tendency to refer to the usage of some elements of both languages in their spoken communication. García (2009) argues that such sudden or *spontaneous* usage of the

students' named languages may empower them and thus these practices should be included and legitimised in classroom spaces. Zhang and Chan (2022) note that spontaneous translanguaging and pedagogical translanguaging may not be separate as there is "always some degree of spontaneity in classroom interaction" (p. 2806). These two types of translanguaging have a tendency to accompany each other and act as "a cross-linguistic resource that enables students to learn both content and languages" (p. 2806). As these are the main differences between these two types, I further concentrate on the specific features of the pedagogical type of translanguaging.

According to Cenoz (2017, p. 194), pedagogical translanguaging may be defined as:

> Planned by the teacher inside the classroom and can refer to the use of different languages for input and output or to other planned strategies based on the use of students' resources from the whole linguistic repertoire.

Even though pedagogical translanguaging may somewhat resemble the original Welsh "trawsieithu" due to the need to specifically design the tasks, it still goes beyond the original concept (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). If the former type of translanguaging was used to develop Welsh and English, then pedagogical translanguaging focuses on developing not only two but also three or more languages in both content and language-based classrooms (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). In other words, according to Wong and Tai (2023, p. 1) pedagogical translanguaging:

> Focuses on the process of meaning making, knowledge co-construction, empowering students' voices, and developing their identities as bilinguals through planned strategies and activities.

Most importantly the students exposed to pedagogical translanguaging practices tend to develop a "sense of pride" (Seltzer & Garcia, 2019) for their multilingualism and for being able to target their multilingualism for meaningful learning and meaning-making purposes. To illustrate the core characteristics of pedagogical translanguaging as explained by Cenoz and Gorter (2021), the table below was used to depict the following:

Table 7.

Type of programme	Multilingual education and second/additional language education
Type of student	Multilingual or emergent multilingual
Aims	Linguistic and academic development
Organisation	Planned, designed
Approach	Multilingual/heteroglossic

Note. Reprinted from "Pedagogical Translanguaging", by Cenoz and Gorter (2021, p. 23)

From the table it is evident that pedagogical translanguaging is aimed at multilingualism and this is its main difference from the original Welsh notion of translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021; Cenoz & Gorter, 2022) which focused on the development of two languages (Welsh and English). It does not only alternate between the two languages, but it can also include and develop other languages too. Pedagogical translanguaging is aimed at linguistic and academic development, which is achieved through planned and designed tasks and activities developed by the teacher (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). Besides this, pedagogical translanguaging can be implemented not only in immersion programs but also in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) classes as well (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022). To be exact, according to Cenoz and Gorter (2022, p. 343), the characteristics of pedagogical translanguaging can be summarised as follows:

> 1. It can be applied not only to two languages, as in Wales, but also to three or more languages and even to students' home languages, which are not in the school curriculum.
> 2. It proposes a wide range of practices and activities that use elements from the whole linguistic repertoire. These practices and activities can have different functions which include obtaining a deeper understanding of academic texts, access to more information, the development of metalinguistic awareness and the reinforcement of skills based on the coordination of activities in the language classes in different languages. The main activity in the case of translanguaging in Welsh schools was the alternation of languages in the input and the output.
> 3. It can be applied to more programmes and a wide range of students in all levels of education. In Welsh bilingual schools, translanguaging was particularly aimed at secondary school students.

As pedagogical translanguaging carries a multilingual and heteroglossic approach to it (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021), previous research (Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Leonet et al., 2020;

Zhang & Chan, 2022) has paid significant attention to the role and application of pedagogical translanguaging in the context of trilingual schools and this is presented and further discussed in the following section.

2.11 The Role of Pedagogical Translanguaging in Trilingual Schools

Pedagogical translanguaging has been associated with different educational settings such as primary and secondary schools, as well as the higher education institution level (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022). However recent research (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Zhang & Chan, 2022) has been looking at the role of pedagogical translanguaging at the secondary school level, especially in trilingual school settings.

Cenoz and Gorter (2022) argue that trilingual or multilingual students are different from monolingual students and thus teaching such students should be accordingly by considering their specific circumstances. Cummins (2017) recommends that "instruction of multilingual students should aim explicitly to promote crosslinguistic transfer" (p. 1) while Cenoz and Gorter (2022) note that "students can activate prior knowledge of other languages and maximise their own resources when they translanguage" (p. 345).

The studies that looked at pedagogical translanguaging in trilingual school settings have reported several important points. The first point discovered from one of the studies was that pedagogical translanguaging increases students' metalinguistic awareness. In the study conducted by Cenoz and Santos (2020), the use of pedagogical translanguaging was implemented in a trilingual school in the Basque Country with Basque, Spanish, and English languages. In one of the English language lessons, the students were asked to make an analysis of the same news in different languages which were Basque, Spanish, and English. The students used the three languages to read and then to summarise the news to other groups. The students were also asked to produce a news item in Basque. By doing these metalinguistic activities the students were able to compare the languages, develop their

awareness of the differences between the three languages and transfer the information from one language to another, and at the same time had access to a deeper understanding of the given information (Cenoz & Santos, 2020).The teacher also shared that the students were able to learn more with the usage of the three languages compared to the one language only use. As this was an English language lesson, one may question the effect of the usage of the three languages on limiting the exposure to the target language, which is English. To this Cenoz and Santos (2020) recommend that if pedagogical translanguaging will be used across different disciplines such as in Spanish and Basque lessons where the students will also engage with the usage of the three languages, then this will create a balance between the language use and exposure.

The second point raises the fact that the use of pedagogical translanguaging can not only maintain but also develop a minority language that may be presented in a classroom. Leonet et al. (2020) conducted a study in a trilingual school in the Basque Country. Their study looked at the pedagogical intervention which was based on the use of pedagogical translanguaging. During one of the activities in the study, the students compared pictures of different linguistic landscapes. The students analysed the pictures by finding the languages represented in these landscapes and discussed them using the three languages. This activity reinforced the use of the three languages at the same level and the teachers shared that such activities helped to treat the three languages equally (Leonet et al., 2020). As the Basque language does not possess the same status as other languages, the study discovered that pedagogical translanguaging has the potential to contribute to the revitalisation and also maintenance of the Basque language (Leonet et al., 2020).

The third point looks at the role of pedagogical translanguaging in promoting content understanding and decreasing language separation. Duarte's (2020) study looked at two trilingual contexts which were Luxembourg and Netherlands where the first speaks Luxembourgish (a Germanic language), French, and German and the latter speaks Dutch,

English, and Frisian. From the two contexts' observations, Duarte (2020) found that the teachers in those contexts were resorting to the use of translanguaging as a pedagogic practice. The observations revealed that in the first setting, the teachers used eliciting methods to ask the students for the names of ingredients displayed on plates, and for this, both the teachers and students utilised different languages. In the second setting, the teacher used the Frisian language as a primary language of instruction, however, they allowed the students to give answers in three languages. The teacher also allowed minority students whose languages were different from those three to give answers in their own languages. The teachers routinely included the students' home languages which were Polish and Arabic into the classroom spaces by engaging them with questions and activities. This way the teachers established a bridge between the home and school languages and did not separate those students with minority languages (Duarte, 2020). The teachers also shared that the technique helped to increase the students' understanding of the content too.

By looking into the three different trilingual contexts, it became clear that the implementation of pedagogical translanguaging can be linked to the aims of trilingual education. That is to view the students as multilingual speakers and utilise their knowledge of the three languages in teaching and make use of other languages in order to develop the students' knowledge of the content and language.

2.12 Canada model

After the collection of semi-structured interviews and lesson observation data I was able to travel to Canada as part of my research visiting scheme which was funded by the "Alan Turing Travel Award" grant. This grant enabled me to experience another nation's multilingual education policy first-hand. As part of my research placement at the University of Calgary, Canada I was able to not only connect with the faculty members but also my host organised elementary and secondary school tours for me so that I understand the

Canadian educational system better. During those tours, I was presented with an opportunity to talk to school teachers and principals who elaborated on their programs and the teaching approaches that were in place in their schools. I was surprised and at the same time amazed by the fact that the teachers were not only familiar with the translanguaging practices there, but they also used them on a regular basis. Their insights and the points that they shared shaped my views of pedagogical translanguaging and I believe that Canada's multilingual schooling as well as the other two nations' models that are discussed below could serve as a notable example for other multilingual countries including Kazakhstan.

As I was particularly interested in translanguaging practices, this presented an opportunity for me to ask the school teachers whether they were familiar with this concept and use it in practice. Through conversations with both language and STEM teachers, I was able to understand how the teachers had a progressive knowledge of translanguaging and were familiar with this concept. Besides this, the teachers mentioned that they are knowingly and purposely incorporate translanguaging practices (Cenoz & Santos, 2020) into their teaching practices and use them to support their students. Most of them expressed their willingness to open up a space for translanguaging practices regardless of not knowing and speaking the students' languages. The examples that they shared with me were similar and fitting to the criteria of the theoretical framework I had for this research study (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). These conversations and visits have confirmed the choice that I made in regard to the theoretical framework adopted for this thesis work. While the conversations and observations there were not held as part of this thesis work, they still inspired me to learn more about other nations' language policies and explore how their models are implemented. Learning about Canada's linguistic situation inspired me to look at other countries' models as I thought that learning about the approaches that work for one nation could be used as models that potentially would inform Kazakhstan's implementation of the "Trinity of Languages" policy. Thus, in this section, I will not only reflect on Canada's model but also

bring together other nations' models in order to form an understanding of how multilingual education is being implemented in those countries. Before I delve into the discussion of other nations' models, I shall hereby outline Canada's linguistic situation and schooling first. Canada's ever-changing demographic and linguistic landscape makes it an interesting case for research. Canada and Kazakhstan despite being distinctly different from each other, the two countries still share some similarities. Both of these countries are known for being the largest countries in the world whose population is multicultural and multilingual. Canada as in the case of Kazakhstan was affected by historical and political events and thus has two official languages which are English and French. The students in Canada need to learn French (in English Canada) and English (in Quebec) in schools (Cummins, 2014), just like Kazakhstani school students need to learn Russian and English. If to look at Canada's development of bilingualism, then according to Mukan et al. (2017, p. 37) it is necessary to list the main contributing factors which were:

- Political and historical preconditions. The fall of New France and the rise of British colony contributed to the formation of new French-speaking minority on the British continent;
- Economic preconditions. First European settlers had to master the language of the indigenous tribes of the continent to conduct trade and to ease their further voyages. Later, immigrants who were conducting business studied French and English to build up trade;
- Cultural preconditions. The official recognition of the culture of both founding nations lead to interest and attempts of Anglophones and Francophones to understand each other and resulted in rise and development of bilingualism;
- Religious preconditions. Catholic settlements near protestant cities, as well as shortage of catholic schools, forced Francophone children to study in English Protestant schools;
- Lingual preconditions. Official Language Act that came into force in 1969 ensures respect, equality of status and equal rights and privileges for all citizens, regardless of the official language they speak. This motived citizens of Canada to study language and culture of both founding nations;
- Social preconditions. The necessity to communicate between English and French-speaking communities, the possibility to move freely across the country without any discomfort or language barrier, as well as urbanisation, industrialisation and the possibility of better employment caused spreading of bilingualism in Canada.

Canada is also known for its immersion programs which are French immersion, heritage language programs, and indigenous language programs (Dicks & Genessee, 2017). All three

programs have their specific direction where French immersion was originally targeted toward English-speaking students; the Heritage language program was developed for students from minority language backgrounds; and indigenous language programs for students from aboriginal backgrounds (Dicks & Genessee, 2017). From my visit to Canadian schools in May 2022, I learned that some of the schools are in the process of adding Spanish immersion programs, but at this moment it is still in the process of planning.

What interested me the most was the fact that education in Canada is under each provincial jurisdiction (Cummins, 2014; 2017; Marceau, 2016) which means that they do not have a Ministry of Education. Each province decides for itself and "is free to implement its own policies and to collaborate with other provinces" (Marceau, 2016, p. 91). Although it may seem reasonable since each province needs to take into account its available resources, it still shows that the policies will likely vary from province to province. Cummins's (2014) words confirm this as he states that "different policies and provisions in relation to language teaching exist in different provinces" (p. 1). Therefore, when reviewing the educational system in Canada it is important to be wary of the fact that the policy taking place in one province may not be the same in another. For example, the policy which obliges teachers to teach English and French to newly arrived students is in place in almost all provinces. However, the ways in which this policy is implemented are different. Cummins (2017) argued that in some provinces "home languages other than English or French are still viewed by many educators as largely irrelevant to children's schooling" (p. 5), whereas in other provinces linguistic diversity is welcomed and put into practice when learning English and French (Naqvi et al., 2012). Moreover, studies conducted in Vancouver, Montreal, and Toronto revealed that newcomer students tend to succeed in Canadian schools (McAndrew et al., 2019) whereas studies from Alberta showed opposite results (Derwing et al., 1999). From these, it is clear that language policies tend to possess "an intrinsically complex nature" (Civico, 2021, p. 197) and they should be viewed more holistically, and the best

practices should always be explored and adopted. As I mentioned at the beginning of this section, learning about Canada's educational system prompted me to look at other countries' language policies in order to understand their implementation and to draw some insights and recommendations for Kazakhstan's trilingual education policy. Thus, below I elaborate on another nation's language policy and continue with Hong Kong's model.

2.13 Hong Kong Model

Hong Kong is another country that shares many contextual similarities with Kazakhstan. In fact, Hong Kong went through similar historical events which led to the adoption of the "Biliterate and Trilingual" policy. Before the adoption of this policy, Hong Kong was under British rule until the Handover to China in 1997 (Sanders-Smith & Dávila, 2021). As in Kazakhstan's case with the Soviet impact, Hong Kong too experienced shifts in language hierarchy and ideology. During British rule in Hong Kong, the English language became the sole official language (Lau, 2020) and it was promoted in all governmental sectors including the educational sector. The language was associated with elite society and became a medium of instruction in secondary schools (Lo & Macaro, 2012) as it was in the case of Kazakhstan with the Russian language. Adopting English language as a medium of instruction was not a top-down policy, but it was rather a bottom-up policy that happened due to the parents' demands (Kirkpatrick & Chau, 2008). The parents wanted their children to have a sufficient command of the English language as it was needed for them to enter the university level and to have good career prospects. Moreover, the language held a much higher status and was known as a language used for governmental, educational, and administrational purposes (Poon, 2010). Cantonese, on the other hand, possessed a much lower status and was associated with only social communication. This is in ways similar to Kazakhstan's case during its tenure in the Soviet Union, where the Russian language was highly valued and

was associated with belonging to an elite group whereas the Kazakh language possessed a lower status and was associated with rural areas (Smagulova, 2008).

But after Hong Kong was handed back to China in 1997 (Kirkpatrick & Chau, 2008), there was an addition of another language which was Putonghua. As the country needed to navigate through the existing languages, the government decided to undertake a "Biliterate and Trilingual" policy which was intended to develop a biliterate (written forms of Chinese and English), and trilingual (oral forms of Cantonese, Putonghua, and English) community (Kirkpatrick & Chau, 2008). As a result of this policy, Putonghua became a compulsory subject that needed to be taught both in Chinese and English medium schools whereas Cantonese was adopted as a medium of instruction (Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2015). As more schools started to adopt Cantonese as their main medium of instruction, parents became critical of the Chinese medium of instruction and kept demanding to bring back the English medium of instruction instead (Cheng, 2022). This was reasoned by the need to have a good command of English for further education as most Hong Kong universities follow the English medium of instruction (Cheng, 2022). After swaying between Cantonese and English mediums of instruction, the government decided to satisfy the parents' demands by introducing a "fine-tuning" policy (Lau, 2020) which gave autonomy to schools to make their own decisions regarding the specifics of the medium of instruction. This meant that secondary schools were free to decide and choose their own medium of instruction based on their existing resources and students' needs (Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2015). This initiative put an end to the strong segregation between English and Chinese medium schools and granted the schools the autonomy to undertake either full or partial English/Chinese mediums of instruction (Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2015). Following the "fine-tuning" of the medium of instruction, the government of Hong Kong decided to introduce other additional changes to improve the implementation of the "Biliterate and Trilingual" policy. These were: requiring English and Putonghua teachers to take a benchmark test, launching the native-speaking

English Teacher (NET) scheme (Cheng, 2022), and implementing the Content and Language Integrated Learning methodology (Cheng, 2022). In fact, CLIL methodology seems to have become an epicentre of the "Biliterate and Trilingual" policy, and most of the research is encouraging the use of CLIL along with bilingual pedagogies in order to "to abandon the 'maximum exposure, no mixing' dogma in secondary education" (Li, 2022, p. 1). The latest research on the "Biliterate and Trilingual" policy highlights the role of translanguaging in not only facilitating student engagement but also bringing their "funds of knowledge" to the forefront (Lin & He, 2017).

Hong Kong's case of the "Biliterate and Trilingual" policy clearly shows that everything, especially the policy is prone to many changes. It also became clear that policymakers are not the only drivers of the policy, but parents' voices can also contribute to policy change. This shows that the policies do not necessarily have to be of a top-down approach, but they can also take a bottom-up approach. Hong Kong's case provides thought-provoking insights for Kazakhstan's implementation of the trilingual education policy, especially as it takes a bottom-up approach in implementing the policy. Although Hong Kong is clearly still navigating its way in implementing the "Biliterate and Trilingual" policy, it yet demonstrates the fact that language fluidity with respect to the medium of instruction can be achievable along with the public's role in shaping the policy.

2.14 The Basque Country Model

The model in the Basque Country has an extensive amount of research that was conducted around multilingualism and translanguaging (Arocena Egaña et al., 2015; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Gorter & Arocena Egaña, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2023). As in Kazakhstan's case, the Basque Country too has three languages that are Basque (the minority language), Spanish (the majority language), and English (the third language) and which are presented in the educational policy (Arocena Egaña et al., 2015). Similarly, to the

Kazakh language, the Basque language is also linguistically distant from the other two languages in the policy (Leonet et al., 2017). It does not come from an Indo-European language group and went through difficult historical events where it was banned from use during Franco's dictatorship (Leonet et al., 2017). With the changes in the policy, the government has set itself a goal to start revitalising the Basque language and increase the percentage of people with a good command of the language (Gartziarena & Villabona, 2022; Leonet et al., 2017).

The Basque Country's language policy used to be bilingual, and it focused on revitalising Basque (Arocena Egaña et al., 2015) as it was with the Kazakhisation process in Kazakhstan. Both Basque and Spanish languages were considered as official and compulsory languages in the Basque Country and parents were free to decide which linguistic model, they wanted their children to enrol in (Gartziarena & Villabona, 2022). According to Gartziarena and Villabona (2022, p. 2), these linguistic models included the following:

> a) Spanish is the main language of instruction and Basque is taught as a subject;
> b) Both languages are equally balanced as languages of instruction;
> d) Basque is the main language of instruction and Spanish is taught as a subject;
> x) Spanish is the language of instruction and Basque is not part of the school Curriculum.

The VI Sociolinguistic Survey (2016) showed that the D model where Basque was the main language of instruction and Spanish taught as a discipline was the most popular one. The parents usually choose this model as they want their children to know the Basque language, especially as they associate speaking Basque with a part of their identity and belonginess to the country (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019). This had resulted in the development and in an increased usage of the Basque language. The increased knowledge of the Basque language was not only among the students, but also among the teachers. In 1979 almost five percent of the teachers were able to teach through the medium of the Basque language, and now more than 80 percent use it in practice (Gorter & Cenoz, 2011).

As European institutions started to encourage people to master an additional language on top of the existing two languages, there was a slow shift from bilingual education to multilingualism in the Basque Country (Gartziarena & Villabona, 2022). The Basque Country began the introduction of the English language from kindergarten in 1990 and this was reasoned by the "idea that more years of exposure to English would result in higher levels of proficiency" (Arocena Egaña et al., 2015, p. 176). It was decided that English would be taught alongside the Basque and Spanish languages in all of the presented models (Arocena Egaña et al., 2015). Thus, the English language was taught in primary and secondary school not only as a separate discipline, but it was also used as a language of instruction for one or two disciplines (Arocena Egaña et al., 2015).

With the shift to multilingual education and the adoption of English as a medium of instruction, scholars have been emphasising the importance of considering a potentially weak situation of the Basque language (Leonet et al., 2017). In the hopes of revitalising and protecting the Basque language, the schools seem to have put boundaries between the Basque and Spanish languages (Gorter & Cenoz, 2011; Leonet et al., 2017). Although the Basque language is an official language which is also a language of instruction it still seems to stay within the classroom whereas the use of Spanish is practised both within and outside of classroom settings. Leonet et al. (2017) suggest that this could be due to the fact that the teachers perceive these languages as "two solitudes" (Cummins, 2008) by keeping them separate from each other and not incorporating their uses together. Thus, scholars (Arocena Egaña et al., 2015; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Gorter & Arocena Egaña, 2020; Leonet et al., 2017; Muguruza et al., 2023) have been exploring the use of translanguaging pedagogies in the context of the Basque Country and challenging the idea of keeping the languages in isolation from each other. The conducted research on this has already drawn positive results when it comes to the use of translanguaging and reported the teachers becoming more aware of such practices (Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Gorter & Arocena

Egaña, 2020; Leonet et al., 2017). This is somewhat similar to the Kazakhstani context as with the integration of the English language into the policy it seemed as if the English had shadowed down and put the Kazakh language in the background (Karabassova, 2020; Karabassova, 2021). The Basque Country's model sets a good example for Kazakhstan's language policy and opens up a direction for translanguaging practices in the implementation of the "Trinity of Languages" policy.

2.15 Multilingualism and Multilingual Education

People migration, globalisation, and interracial marriages seem to have all contributed toward the strengthening of the development of multilingualism and multilingual education as a whole (Conteh & Meier, 2014; Duarte et al., 2023; May, 2014). Multilingualism is depicted as "the ability of societies, institutions, groups and individuals to engage, on a regular basis, with more than one language in their day-to-day lives" (European Commission, 2007, p. 6) while multilingual education is defined as "the use of two or more languages in education provided that schools aim at multilingualism and multiliteracy" (Cenoz, 2009, p. 4).

Historically, the idea of multilingualism was associated with "unattainable native speaker level in each of the languages the multilingual speaker knows" (Gartziarena & Villabona, 2022, p. 4). In other words, it was understood as something hardly achievable, and the languages that the multilingual speakers spoke were seen as separate and unrelated entities (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019; Conteh & Meier, 2014; García, 2009), which could potentially disrupt rather than help with the learning of the other language. This type of monolingual point of view had an impact on teaching practices as well where multilinguals' knowledge of other languages was ignored and the languages stayed in isolation from each other (Conteh & Meier, 2014; García, 2009, May, 2014). As Inbar-Lourie (2010, p. 357) noted,

> language teaching pedagogy has tended to ignore or even suppress bilingual or multilingual options endorsing a predominantly monolingual policy, one which equates 'good teaching' with exclusive or nearly exclusive target language use.

However, with the multilingual turn (May, 2014), the perception of multilingualism started to change where the scope of multilingualism began to favour the holistic view and usage of the speakers' whole linguistic repertoires (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019; Conteh & Meier, 2014; García, 2009; Gartziarena & Villabona, 2022) and question monolingual principles. According to Arocena Egaña et al. (2015, p. 173), multilingual speakers are no longer perceived as:

> perfect native speakers of several languages, but real people who navigate between languages according to the communicative situations. They are not deficient or weak communicators because they are not native speakers of their second, third, or fourth language. They are stronger communicators than monolingual native speakers because they can use their linguistic resources in more communicative situations with more monolingual and multilingual speakers.

With this multilingual turn (May, 2014), more countries are now being challenged to adopt multilingual reforms and policies in their educational sectors. Multilingual education which can be depicted as "the use of two or more languages in education, provided that schools aim at multilingualism and multiliteracy" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015, p. 5), is not only being promoted, but also bringing new educational trends. As Portolés and Martí (2020, pp. 249-250) noted it has resulted in the following aspects such as:

> (i) the introduction of English as an additional language (henceforth EAL) from a very early age, (ii) the teaching of English through content, a pedagogical approach known as Content and Language Integrated Learning or CLIL, and (iii) the learning of minority and migrant languages.

Besides these, the multilingual turn gave rise to such concepts as translanguaging including pedagogical translanguaging which is presented in detail in further sections (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; García & Wei, 2014; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012).

Current research on multilingualism and multilingual education (Haukås, 2016, p. 2) has been recognising it as:

> not as a unified methodology but as a set of principles that are used to varying degrees in different approaches depending on the teaching context, curriculum and learners.

Recent studies conducted on multilingualism and multilingual education (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Portolés & Martí, 2017; Safont & Portolés, 2016) regarded it as beneficial for multilingual students as they use their whole linguistic repertoire for meaning-making, better communication, and understanding. For this reason, most of the scholarship is adopting a holistic approach when it comes to teaching multilingual students (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011), and encouraging teachers to do the same. The teachers are now put into the spotlight and expected to help their students become aware of their existing linguistic repertoires and draw on their funds of knowledge. This approach clearly requires competent teachers who correspond to the listed criteria presented by Haukås (2016, p. 3) below:

- They should be multilingual themselves and serve as models for their learners.
- They should have a highly developed cross-linguistic and metalinguistic awareness.
- They should be familiar with research on multilingualism.
- They should know how to foster learners' multilingualism.
- They should be sensitive to learners' individual cognitive and affective differences.
- They should be willing to collaborate with other (language) teachers to enhance learners' multilingualism.

However, it should be noted that not all teachers should or would possess all of the mentioned skills in order to start acknowledging the presence of their learners' existing language repertoires in the classroom. The most important aspect that informs and influences the teachers' pedagogical practices is their beliefs toward multilingualism and whether they are keen to open those spaces for their learners' languages. This aspect of "belief" is further discussed in the section below.

2.16 Teachers' Beliefs on Multilingualism

The idea of teachers' beliefs may seem straightforward for some but as Gorter and Arocena (2020) stated "what it meant by beliefs may not always be clear" (p. 3). In reality, it is difficult to provide an exact definition of belief nor explain how they connect with people's

behaviour (Pajares, 1992). According to Pajares (1992, p. 343), there are numerous types of terms that relate to the idea of "belief" and here are some of them:

> *attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy*.

In other words, as Pajares stated (1992), a belief can be understood as "an individual's judgement of the truth or falsity of a proposition" (p. 316). In addition to this, Borg (2011, pp. 370–371) also provided his definition of beliefs and identified them as:

> propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistant to change.

When it comes to the teachers' beliefs, Mohamed's (2006, p. 21) definition seem to provide a more detailed explanation which identifies them as:

> a complex, inter-related system of often tacitly held theories, values and assumptions that the teacher deems to be true, and which serve as cognitive filters that interpret new experiences and guide the teacher's thoughts and behavior.

There are numerous types of studies that investigate the teachers' beliefs on languages and their stances on grammar or vocabulary (Borg, 2009), but there are not many that investigate the teachers' beliefs on multilingualism and multilingual pedagogy (Gorter & Arocena, 2020; Haukås, 2016). Both Gorter and Arocena's (2020) and Haukås's (2016) studies discussed the existing research around teachers' beliefs on multilingualism and these are discussed further below.

In De Angelis's (2011) study it was showed that the teachers generally had positive beliefs regarding multilingualism, but they did not use it in the teaching practice. De Angelis's (2011) study which adopted a questionnaire as the main data collection instrument, explored 176 secondary school teachers' beliefs on leveraging multilingual pedagogy in order to develop immigrant children's experience with language learning. Secondary school teachers who took part in the study were teaching in schools located in the United Kingdom, Austria, and Italy. The teachers from these countries had positive beliefs regarding the students' use

of their home languages, but this was not applied to classroom spaces. The teachers shared that the use of the students' home languages in classroom spaces can impact and delay the development of the majority of language learning. Besides this, some of them even noted that they never make references to the students' home languages or to their culture. Contrastingly, Heyder and Schädlich's (2014) study, which also adopted a questionnaire as a data collection instrument, showed that teachers in Germany who taught foreign languages were not only positive about multilingual pedagogy, but also made frequent links between German and other languages. The links that these teachers made were mostly spontaneous and were not supported by any materials or resources for teaching. In fact, most of the teachers also mentioned that regardless of making frequent links between the languages, they still were hesitant to incorporate the languages that they were not familiar with and bring them into the classroom spaces (Heyder & Schädlich, 2014). Otwinowska's (2014) study explored Polish two levels of English language teachers' (pre-service and in-service) familiarity with multilingual practice and pedagogy. The results of this study showed that experienced in-service teachers possessed higher levels of multilingual awareness compared to pre-service teachers' levels. Otwinowska (2014) also noted that teachers who were multilingual themselves seemed to be aware and willing to integrate such practices into teaching. Haukås' (2016) study investigated language teachers' views and beliefs about multilingualism and multilingual teaching in Norway. The study demonstrated L3 teachers' rather contradictory beliefs about teaching practices. Haukås (2016) reported that generally teachers tend to possess positive beliefs regarding multilingualism as the knowledge of one language helped them to build up the learning of another one. However, they did not think in the same manner when it came to their students. As Haukås (2016, p. 12) noted the teachers:

> were aware of how to use their previous knowledge in further language learning, whereas their learners may not be equally aware.

Thus, these teachers' multilingual-related practices included only making connections between Norwegian and English languages, and other languages were not included nor leveraged. Haukås (2016) concluded that teachers usually have positive beliefs and attitudes towards multilingualism, but in most cases, these beliefs and attitudes contradict their practices where they do not incorporate any languages into their teaching. Similar findings have also been reported in Griva and Chostelidou (2012) and Mitits (2018) studies. As Portolés and Martí (2020, p. 251) noted:

> in-service secondary school teachers coincide in stating that knowing languages is positive and also acknowledge the benefits of being multilingual … when educators face the reality of the classroom, their practices are still based on widespread monolingual beliefs (e.g. the belief that target languages must be taught in isolation, the belief that language teachers should behave like a monolingual native speaker and/or the belief that the earlier English is introduced, the better).

Interestingly, Gorter and Arocena's (2020) study provided results that were different from the discussed studies above. Their study investigated teachers' beliefs about multilingualism along with their use of translanguaging practices. Their study looked at in-service teachers who received professional training on multilingualism. Gorter and Arocena (2020) collected their data before, during, and after the teachers' professional training. As a result, their study revealed that the teachers' beliefs were changed over the course of attending the professional training and the teachers became more inclined toward multilingualism and language incorporation. Gorter and Arocena (2020, p. 7) noted that the teachers started to develop:

> beliefs about comparing languages, knowing one language can be helpful in learning another language, and the transfer of knowledge of one language to a second or a third language.

Their study concluded that professional development courses can change teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and help them become more inclined toward adopting translanguaging practices into their teaching (Gorter & Arocena, 2020).

The studies discussed in this section were conducted in countries with different languages, settings, and reforms. But regardless of these differences, there was one aspect that was

shared among all of them. In these studies, all of the teachers were generally positive about multilingualism, but this belief does not necessarily mean that they were acting in accordance with such beliefs. Some even thought that language incorporation may disrupt the learning of the majority language, while others were reluctant to bring the languages they were not familiar with into the classroom spaces. But most importantly, it became known that teachers' beliefs can be changed upon the provision of needed support and relevant professional development courses.

2.17 Teachers' Practices of Pedagogical Translanguaging

After defining and bringing together the key scholars' works on pedagogical translanguaging, this section explores studies that were conducted to understand the teachers' use of pedagogical translanguaging whether they use the concept in teaching and what were the outcomes of such practices.

A range of studies conducted in different contexts has reported about the educational advantages of pedagogical translanguaging (Back, 2020; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Fang & Liu, 2020; Galante, 2020; Liu et al., 2020). The study conducted by Back (2020) in a rural U.S. school, talked about the three school teachers' views on pedagogical translanguaging before and after attending the professional development course in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). Back (2020) reported that the teachers before attending the course had English only views or as one of the participants mentioned "with total 100% English" (p. 919). However, their views were changed after a few sessions of professional development (Back, 2020), where they learned about multilingual strategies and how to bring them into the classroom spaces. In other words, the professional development acted as an enactment of utilising translanguaging as a pedagogical practice (Back, 2020). Back's (2020) study concludes that continued examination of such training's effect is needed, especially after seeing how the teachers were keen to utilise multilingual teaching

practices. In another study conducted by Schoeman et al. (2023), the teachers were also exposed to the learning of the concept of translanguaging in order for the researchers to understand the types of pedagogical translanguaging practise the teachers would employ. The results of their study showed that teachers aimed to use pedagogical translanguaging "to help their L2 learners understand the academic work better and to perform to their ability" (Schoeman et al., 2023, p. 14). The most common point where the teachers decided to bring pedagogical translanguaging into the teaching practice was for scaffolding purposes. Schoeman et al. (2023, p. 15) noted that:

> the participants realized that they had made themselves guilty of benign neglect of learners' L1, because, although they did not actively suppress the use of the L1, they previously had not actively incorporated the L1 into the classroom either.

The teachers' realisation resulted not only in a shift of teaching practice, but also made them more aware of the positive effect the languages bring to student engagement (Schoeman et al., 2023). Similarly, Zhang and Chan's (2022) study too explored the ways in which Uyghur English as a Foreign Language teachers resorted to pedagogical translanguaging practices in Xinjiang. In their study, Zhang and Chan (2022) describe an English language class, where a teacher asks the students to describe an English word (magazine) and invites the students to provide a similar sounding word in Uyghur (magizin). Then the teacher makes cross-linguistic connections and comparisons by asking the students to compare the two words in English and in their mother tongue. The teacher continues using this strategy with other words too such as *radio* in English and *radiyul* in Uyghur (Zhang & Chan, 2022). Even though the teacher did not ask the students to provide these comparisons in other languages, the students willingly participated in this discussion and provided Chinese equivalents such as *zazhi* (magazine) and *shangdian* (shop) (Zhang & Chan, 2022). Clearly, the teacher's tasks activated the students' willingness to participate in making cross-linguistic connections (Zhang & Chan, 2022). Other teachers' practices too included the adoption of translanguaging practices by encouraging the students to provide antonyms in

different languages (Zhang & Chan, 2022). Zhang and Chan (2022) note that the teachers switched "back and forth in all three languages for the purpose of teaching vocabulary" (p. 2811), and interacted with students who spoke Uyghur, Chinese, and English. Besides teaching the vocabulary, Zhang and Chan (2022) also noted that the teachers used translanguaging for grammatical points too. One of the teachers presents the topic of imperatives and compares the use of imperatives in English and Uyghur. Such kind of practice was present in most of the teachers' practices and Zhang and Chan (2022, p. 2814) sustained that:

> by invoking Uyghur as an important means of learning English, labeling it as 'our mother tongue' and inviting the students to respond in Uyghur, the teachers appeal to the shared identity with the students and encourage participation, accomplishing the goal of 'identity investment and positionality.

Zhang and Chan (2022) concluded that such activities enabled the teachers to develop cross-linguistic flexibility (García & Wei, 2014), and also expose the students to Uyghur through the practices of pedagogical translanguaging. In a more recent study conducted by Wong and Tai (2023), the teacher candidates were exposed to translanguaging courses where they learned about the ways and reasons for utilising such practice in teaching. As part of the course, the teacher candidates were also expected to deliver a lesson that reflected their learnings from the course, specifically focusing on pedagogical translanguaging. Wong and Tai's (2023) study found that the participating teacher's view of translanguaging grew as they became involved in the course. As stated by Wong and Tai's (2023, p. 5) observation:

> Her journey in the course evolved from having limited knowledge of translanguaging to having a strong stance to empower students' bilingual practices through pedagogical translanguaging.

According to Wong and Tai (2023), the teacher's perception of pedagogical translanguaging went from simply allowing the students' languages to be present in the classroom to utilising "multilingual, multimodal, and semiotic resources" (p. 5). At the beginning of the course, the teacher's view of translanguaging practice was quite limited and her idea of translanguaging was associated with only including the students' language repertoires.

According to Wong and Tai (2023, p. 6), throughout the middle of the course, the teacher became more aware of the translanguaging practice and reflected on it by stating that:

> it's important for educators to believe that translanguaging is a powerful tool … something that goes beyond scaffolding, something that views bilingualism not as a deficit, but as an advantage to help students achieve content and language skills simultaneously.

At the end of the course, the participating teacher's video lesson illustrated the strategies she obtained and learned throughout the course. The teacher's video lesson included such strategic designs as creating student groupings based on their L1s and using multilingual resources as well as multimodalities to make the content easy to understand for the students (Wong & Tai, 2023). Using local resources and multimodal texts became the teacher's preferred strategy that she could apply to any topic. According to Wong and Tai (2023, p. 7) the teacher reported herself:

> For example, when learning about trading, I can ask my students to read, gather, and analyze information about the goods that they can find in their local stores imported from other countries. I will also select multimodal texts in both languages and with different levels of complexity, along with the required English texts, so my students can gather and process all the information they need.

From this it is evident that the teacher is keen to make links to the students' prior knowledge by connecting the content to the aspects that are similar to the points that can be found in their home countries. Wong and Tai (2023) noted that equipping teachers with such courses allowed not only to change their views regarding translanguaging practice, but also encouraged them to start incorporating such strategies into their teaching practice meaningfully and pedagogically. When it comes to the studies where the teachers did not have any prior training or exposure to translanguaging practices, then Duarte's (2020) study provides interesting results regarding the use of pedagogical translanguaging. In Duarte's study (2020), the two teachers are conducting team teaching where one is Portuguese speaking and the second one speaks Luxembourgish. The Luxembourgish speaking teacher asks the students to identify which of the displayed plates has flour on it and then asks the students to say flour in Portuguese. The students provide the answer and name flour in

Portuguese and the Luxembourgish speaking teacher repeats the question again and asks which plate has flour on top of it. The Portuguese speaking teacher reiterated the same question and asked if the students understood the first teacher's question. The students provided the answers in Portuguese and one of the students switched to Luxembourgish and told the first teacher that they already provided the answers in Portuguese. Duarte (2020) calls this class interaction as "the alternation of languages by two distinct native speakers" (p. 240) and states that the Luxembourgish teacher who asked the students to say flour in Portuguese was in fact "valorising pupils' knowledge of their first language" (p. 240). Duarte (2020) then noted that this type of episode where a teacher asks the students to translate a certain term, or a word fulfils a s*ymbolic function of pedagogical translanguaging*. According to Duarte (2020, p. 240) the Luxembourgish teacher's main intent was:

> not aimed at increasing language or content learning but rather at acknowledging pupils' proficiency in the home languages as a valuable resource.

Another case that Duarte (2020) discusses took place in a primary school in Friesland. The first thing that Duarte (2020) noted is the fact that the greeting is done in three official languages as well as in two other languages that are present in the classroom which were Arabic and Polish. After the greetings are made in different languages, the teacher asks the students about the day of the week and the students start reciting the weekdays in three languages. When students say that it is the 14th of December, the teacher asks them to count to fourteen in three languages (Duarte, 2020). The teacher then turns to Arabic and Polish speaking students and asks them to count to fourteen in their languages too. After the two students finish counting in Arabic and Polish, the teacher compliments their knowledge of their first language, although the teacher does not speak either of these languages. In this class, the teacher preferred to mostly stick to Frisian when giving instructions, but at the same time used it "to elicit the other languages" (Duarte, 2020, p. 243). This type of

teacher's practice fulfilled a *scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging*, where the teacher who did not speak Arabic and Polish, was still able to establish connection between languages used at home and school settings (Duarte, 2020). Moreover, the teacher's compliments regarding the students' use of home languages illustrated that the languages are seen as resources or as Duarte (2020, p. 244) noted:

> These scaffolding moments acknowledge all different languages by giving them the same role and relevance in daily classroom routines. In addition, and from the perspective the Polish- and Arabic-speaking pupils, translanguaging as a scaffold renders their family languages as an exceptional resource, as seen in the collective thumbs up given to the pupils for counting in their home languages.

Duarte (2020) concludes that such practices illustrated in the cases of Luxembourgish and Frisian teachers allowed them to: a) acknowledge the languages that are present in the classroom; b) encourage students to actively utilise their languages; c) seeing the students' language as resources. The discussed Duarte's (2020) study revealed such notions as the s*ymbolic function of pedagogical translanguaging* and the *scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging* which are part of the theoretical framework adopted for this thesis work. These notions which were introduced by Duarte (2019; 2020) are further discussed below.

2.18 Theoretical framework

As translanguaging has shifted from being seen as a descriptive concept to a more prescriptive one meaning that researchers and classroom practitioners should be using it "as a theoretical lens proposing an alternative view of bi- and multilingualism" (Duarte & Günther-van der Meij, 2020, p. 127). Thus, this research adopted Duarte's (2019; 2020) functions of pedagogical translanguaging as a main theoretical framework. The functions of translanguaging are comprised of three functions which are symbolic, scaffolding, and epistemological (Duarte, 2020). This specific framework was chosen and used due to its

applicability to this research study's established aims and objectives discussed in Chapter 1: Introduction.

Symbolic function. Symbolic function as its name suggests is restricted with only acknowledgment. In other words, this function may be displayed by teachers when only acknowledging the use of students' linguistic repertoires without aiming at content and language development (Duarte, 2020). As the teacher is merely acknowledging the students' use of their linguistic repertoires it is not required for the teacher to have proficiency or knowledge in those languages (Duarte, 2020). An example of such a function would be the case whenever "a direct translation of a word or concept was asked for" (Duarte, 2020, p. 240). For example, during the lesson, the teacher may ask the student how a particular word would be translated into his or her language. To illustrate, if the lesson is on children's stories the teacher may ask the students how Cinderella is translated into their languages. After the translation of the word is given by the student, the teacher does not engage in further inclusion and discussion of the students' languages. By asking to provide a translation, the teacher is merely acknowledging the existence of his or her students' linguistic repertoires and does not intend to use those languages to increase content and language learning (Duarte, 2020). This type of function normally achieves the acknowledgment effect, where the students' languages are not ignored, but rather regarded as being present.

Scaffolding function. The second function, which is scaffolding, goes beyond the symbolic function of translanguaging. This function does not only acknowledge the students' language repertoires but also establishes "temporary but systematic bridges towards other languages" (Duarte, 2020, p. 244). By incorporating other languages into the teaching process, the teacher will attribute the meaning that all languages are equal (Duarte, 2020). As in symbolic function, it is not required for the teacher to be proficient in the languages in order to display the scaffolding function. In other words, the teacher may resort to this

function whenever there is a need to check the student's understanding and comprehension by putting into use their language repertoires. For instance, the teacher may give the students an activity to read the story about Cinderella in their preferred languages and then retell it in the language that the teacher uses for instruction. In this way, the teacher acknowledges the students' languages and puts them to use by perceiving them as experts in their own linguistic repertoires (Duarte, 2020).

Epistemological function. The last function, which is epistemological, includes all three functions in one. The epistemological function acknowledges the languages and establishes systematic bridges towards them, but besides these, it is also aimed at increasing the student's knowledge of content and language. Unlike the symbolic and scaffolding functions, the epistemological function requires the teacher to have proficiency in the languages as the teacher is expected to engage in further discussions and interact with the students. This function creates the needed balance between content and language in order to enhance meaning-making. An example of this function would be when the teacher gives the students a task to engage in discussion in their preferred languages. For instance, the teacher may ask the students to talk about the Cinderella story in their preferred languages. By allowing the students to use their languages the teacher will develop not only their knowledge and comprehension of the language, but also the content.

These three functions display (See Table 8) three steps that teachers need to follow in order to engage in translanguaging as a pedagogical practice. Duarte (2020, p. 244) also suggested to teachers to:

(a) create safe spaces in which to experiment with multiple languages in classroom
(b) and (b) operationalise the concept of translanguaging for their own context and
(c) particular aims.

Table 8.

Functions of translanguaging	Objectives	Level of language proficiency
1. Symbolic function	Acknowledging the students' languages	Not required
2. Scaffolding function	Acknowledging the students' languages and making temporary and systematic uses of the students' languages	Not required
3. Epistemological function	Acknowledging the students' languages and systematically putting them into use in order to develop content and language learning	The proficiency in languages is needed

Note. Theoretical Framework

While the three functions present weaker and stronger forms of pedagogical translanguaging, it is the teachers' beliefs and attitudes that will impact them in giving value to the three functions and in their choices of incorporating weaker or stronger forms of translanguaging practice. In terms of this research study, I found this theoretical framework relevant and applicable as it provides an in-depth analysis of the specific translanguaging practice that may be used in classroom spaces. By adopting Duarte's (2020) three functions of translanguaging, I identify the specific forms of translanguaging that in-service teachers use in teaching practice as part of trilingual education policy. The framework also allows me to understand their aims and objectives when resorting to one of the mentioned functions and it works well with the two data sets that I have, which are semi-structured interviews and observations. Especially, as this framework allows me to understand and identify whether the in-service teachers merely *acknowledge* that other languages are too present in the classroom; use these present languages for *scaffolding* purposes; or whether their teaching intention goes beyond these two and rather is targeted toward the development of both *content and language learning*. For these reasons, I believe that the chosen theoretical

framework helps me to answer the identified main and subsidiary questions and fits the aims and features of the research study.

2.19 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented a review of the key literature as well as theoretical foundations that were used to guide this research study. The chapter started by explaining the historical background and linguistic situation of Kazakhstan along with the factors that brought about the adoption of the investigated language policy. The chapter drew the readers' attention to the unique features of the policy as well as the need to investigate it from the proposed lens which was the concept of pedagogical translanguaging. Thus, further explanation of the origin of translanguaging, its extensions by different scholars, its types, how pedagogical translanguaging differs from spontaneous, and the role of pedagogical translanguaging in trilingual schools were presented in the chapter. The chapter has also presented and discussed the reasons for the adoption of the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan and how pedagogical translanguaging fits with trilingual teaching. Next, the chapter presented the theoretical framework that was adopted to guide the work as well as the justifications for choosing this specific framework. Linking trilingualism to multilingualism, the chapter defined the idea of multilingualism and brought together the studies that explored school teachers' beliefs about multilingual education. Moreover, different countries' language policies and education systems have also been presented and discussed in this chapter.
The next chapter which is Chapter 3: Methodology provides methodological considerations that were followed in regard to this research study which is then followed by Chapter 4: Results and Discussion.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter elaborates on the research methods that were undertaken in order to conduct the current research study. The main aim of this chapter is to provide a justification of the chosen methodological foundation by explaining how it fits within this particular research. It also discusses the chosen research design, research instruments, piloting process, in what ways data was collected, analysed, and the steps taken for ethical considerations. All of these were considered and used to answer the main and subsidiary research questions:

Main questions:

1. What are in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging in implementing the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan?
2. How do Kazakhstani in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging influence their teaching practices?

Subsidiary questions:

3. What strategies do teachers employ to incorporate pedagogical translanguaging into their teaching practice?
4. How do school documents and lesson plans reflect the usage of pedagogical translanguaging?

Considering the above stated main and subsidiary questions, the chapter provides the methodological foundations of the research and thus starts by explaining the type of research design chosen for this particular study.

3.2 Philosophical Assumptions

According to Wellington et al. (2005) it is necessary for the researchers to ensure that their adopted methodology, chosen design, and instruments are in line with their positioning.

Wellington et al. (2005) further posit that the researchers need to be able to demonstrate that the chosen methods used for data collection validly answer the questions they pose. Importantly, the researchers should not be forgetting about their own philosophical assumptions when selecting the right methods for their research. Crotty (1998) thus suggests that the research process needs to consist of the following elements such as ontology, epistemology, methods, and methodology. In this section, I concentrate on the first two elements and expand more on my ontological and epistemological assumptions. Berryman (2019) provides an interesting explanation of ontology as he states that:

> Ontology, strictly speaking, is the philosophical study of being… In the cooking scenario, there are two possible ontologies: vegetarian or omnivore. A vegetarian believes that animals are not meant to be consumed by humans as food. An omnivore holds an opposing philosophical position. These basic differences lead the vegetarian cook to create recipes that will be very different from those of the omnivore. (p. 272)

In other words, as Berryman (2019) explains ontology relates to "what we believe can exist, what we consider to be fundamental or basic" (p. 272). This means that ontology refers to "'what is", with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality as such" (Crotty, 1998, p. 10). Consequently, ontological assumptions are those that relate to the nature or essence of social reality. Epistemology as Berryman (2019) states is used "to describe *ways* of knowing, how we know what we know, and who can be knower" (p. 272). Crotty (1998) defines it as "the theory of knowledge embedded in the theoretical perspective and thereby the methodology" (p. 3). Thus, epistemological assumptions are assumptions about how we acquire knowledge and its nature. Both ontology and epistemology give insight into how the researcher perceives truth, the world and ways of being in it and "together they describe the world view or the researcher" (Berryman, 2019, p. 272). As Grix (2004) put it:

> Setting out clearly the relationship between what a researcher thinks can be researched (her ontological position) linking it to what we can know about it (her epistemological position) and how to go about acquiring it (her methodological approach), you can begin to comprehend the impact your ontological position can have on what and how you decide to study. (p. 68)

Thus, it can be said that ontology and epistemology work together to inform the researcher of his or her own choice of a research paradigm.

There are numerous types of research paradigms including positivism, interpretivism, constructivism, pragmatism, and others. I believe interpretivism most closely reflects my philosophical and paradigmatic position on this study out of all the mentioned paradigms and there are certain reasons for that. Firstly, as I previously mentioned my interest in the topic as well as my beliefs were mostly formed through my lived experiences i.e., my personal, educational, and professional experiences. In the same way, my participants construct their beliefs and identities through their own lived experiences. Secondly, I am particularly interested in the context of my study and an interpretivist paradigm allows the researchers to "begin with individuals and set out to understand their interpretations of the world around them" (Cohen et al., 2013, p. 18). Thus, in my research, I was able to learn about both the uniqueness of the context, the policy, the school, and also to explore and understand my participants and their interpretations of the setting that surrounds them. Thirdly, this paradigm allows the researcher to come up with research questions that "seek to understand the how and the why - the qualitative questions" (Berryman, 2019, p. 273). In this sense, I was able to design two "*how"* research questions to better illuminate my participants' attitudes towards the investigated phenomenon. Lastly, as I was interested in an in-depth exploration of my participants' experiences and views the adoption of interpretivism allowed me to undertake a qualitative method i.e., interviews, observations and document analysis which are further discussed in the following sections.

3.3 Research Design

After careful consideration of various research designs that may be suitable for this study, I believed that qualitative research is best suited in comparison to the quantitative research design. As illustrated in Table 9 below, this was due to the fact that I mostly concentrated on

my participants' views and lived experiences (Creswell, 2014) rather than exploring the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2009). The research study did not include elements of numerical measurements and analysis and for this reason, a mixed methods design was not selected as well.

Table 9.

Research Design	Characteristics
Qualitative	● Studying participants in their natural settings ● Collaborating with the participants ● Looking at one phenomenon or concept ● E.g., case study, ethnography, narrative, phenomenology, and grounded theory
Quantitative	● Employing statistical procedure ● Testing theories ● Using reliability and validity standards ● E.g., surveys, experiments
Mixed methods	● Combining both qualitative and quantitative research methods ● Collecting both qualitative and quantitative data ● E.g., action research, mixed methods, concurrent

Table 9: Types of Research Design (adapted from Creswell, 2009)

Initially, I thought about employing a quantitative design for this research, as it provides the opportunity to conduct surveys by targeting a substantial number of participants. But I had to ask myself how in-depth that was going to be. As I read more literature on this research topic, I became interested in teachers' opinions, views, experiences, thoughts, and attitudes towards the policy and language use. For me, they were the *change agents* and I wanted to learn more about their understandings and perspectives in relation to the implementation of the policy. At this point, I was convinced that the qualitative research design would allow me to explore the mentioned points and thus I shifted from quantitative inquiry to qualitative research design.

Indeed, a qualitative research design that was employed for this study allowed me to gain insights into my participants' views on language use and to learn about their language

incorporation techniques. Qualitative research puts the researcher into the participants' world (Denscombe, 2017), and allows the researcher to understand the attitudes, behaviours, and meanings (Cohen et al., 2011) in the investigated context. I was able to immerse myself in the participants' settings by observing their lessons and understanding their attitudes by conducting semi-structured interviews with them.

Creswell (2009) identifies five strategies of qualitative inquiry which are case study, ethnography, grounded theory, narrative, and phenomenology (See Table 9). Out of these five qualitative inquiry strategies, the case study was used for this research study. Since the views and experiences of teachers from one school were explored, this research study fits in with the selected case study approach. The following section provides a more detailed rationale for choosing a case study approach as a reporting mode for this research.

3.4 Case Study Approach

My interpretivist assumption led me to adopt a case study approach to this research. As this study is aimed at exploring in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging in the context of trilingual education policy, the methods and procedures were based on this approach. According to Yin (2009, p. 18):

> a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

The case study approach allows the researcher to retain the meaning of real-life events and "explain how or why some social phenomenon works" (Yin, 2004, p. 4). On top of that, case studies have the potential to "penetrate situations and offer insight not easily gained by other approaches" (Burgess et al., 2006, p. 59).

Yin (2012, p.10) indicates that the following methods may help the researcher to look into a phenomenon within a case study approach: interviews, documents, participants and direct observations, physical artefacts, and archival records. Yin (2012) believes that triangulation

of data through the usage of three types of data collection methods increases the validity of the research and allows the researcher to explore the phenomenon in-depth. However, Denzin and Lincoln (1994) argue that triangulation is not about validation but is more about gaining a deeper understanding of the investigated phenomenon by obtaining additional knowledge. Triangulation is often used in qualitative research studies and consists of four types which include: method triangulation, data source triangulation, theory triangulation, and investigator triangulation (Patton, 1999). This research employs method triangulation as it involves the usage of multiple types of data collection methods in the form of semi-structured interviews, participant observation (lesson observations), and document analysis. While there are various advantageous parts of the case study approach, it is important to mention its limitations as well. Yin (2014) reminds the researchers that case study "remains one of the most challenging of all social sciences endevors" (p. 3). Yin (2014) believes that it is essential to be straightforward and rigorous when outlining the research objectives and methods. Apart from this, there is another challenge that is related to the limited research setting or context. This study employs a single case study approach as the context of research is one secondary school in Kazakhstan where the views and attitudes of in-service teachers from this particular school are being explored. It is perfectly known that each school is considered a unique place and what works for one school may not work for the other. Keeping this in mind, I had to be selective with the research context and thus chose a school that is not only implementing the trilingual education policy, but which will be transferring their experience to other mainstream schools. Thus, the following section describes the chosen research context in a detailed manner.

3.5 Research Context

The study took place at one of the secondary schools from Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools (NIS) chains in Kazakhstan. Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools are known as a network of 22

schools located in different major cities of Kazakhstan. The schools were first introduced and established in 2008. They became a central hub for testing and implementing educational transformations and innovations (AEO NIS, 2016). Determined by these schools' implementation of innovations, including trilingual education, and transference of their skills and policy understanding to other mainstream schools (Shamshidinova et al., 2014), one of the secondary schools from Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools was selected as the main research site for this study.

Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools are state-funded schools with competitive entrance examinations for students and selective recruitment standards for teachers. The schools position themselves as schools for gifted and talented students as only one in 6.7 prospective students get admitted to the schools (Karabassova, 2021). The graduates of these schools have a tendency to get accepted to prestigious universities and Top-100 universities according to QS ranking (AEO NIS, 2020). The schools are full-day schools with grades starting from the 7th (middle school) to the 12th (high school) grades. There are also NIS primary schools where the grades start from 1st to 7th. However, this specific study explores the views of in-service teachers from one NIS secondary school.

The main peculiarity of these schools is that they have their own curriculum and school leaving examinations (Fimyar et al., 2014). The schools are guided by criterion-based assessment and the students are taught to think critically, solve problems, and acquire knowledge of ICT and trilingual education. These features make NIS schools stand out among other schools and most importantly NIS is expected to translate its trilingual experience and model to other mainstream schools (Fimyar et al., 2014).

Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools are implementing a trilingual education model where Kazakh and Russian languages are being used as the mediums of instruction for content-based subjects in 7 to 10 grades (Karabassova, 2018). The English language, on the other hand, is the medium of instruction for content-based subjects in 11 to 12 grades. In order to

prepare the students for an exclusive English medium of instruction in high school, the teachers begin incorporating the English language into their teaching starting from middle school. However, the teachers need to show and prove their English language abilities to proceed to teaching exclusively in English. To do so, the teachers attend professional development workshops, training and English language courses and pass the International English Language Testing System tests.

These schools possess a comprehensive understanding of the policy, experienced teachers, and facilities as well as a longer experience in implementing the trilingual education policy (Shamshidinova et al., 2014). Besides the mentioned, the schools are not only implementing the trilingual education policy on their sites but are also assigned to translate their experiences to other mainstream schools (Shamshidinova et al., 2014).

While Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools are becoming increasingly used as a research context for a number of empirical studies (Bakytzhanova, 2018; Karabassova, 2021; Nurmagambetov, 2021; Pak, 2020), there is still little research on how these schools' unique curriculum and model of trilingual education open up a space for pedagogical translanguaging practices. Thus, for the reasons stated above, this specific type of school was chosen as a research site for this thesis work.

3.6 Participants

Data for this research study was collected from eleven participants who were teaching under the framework of the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan. The non-probability sampling strategy that was employed for this research allowed me to specifically target a certain group of people (Creswell, 2012; Wellington, 2015) whose expertise and competence were central to the research study. At the time of data collection, all eleven participants were teaching at the chosen research site which was one of the secondary schools from NIS network schools. Four of the participants were Language subject teachers while seven of

them were Science subject teachers. The participants were selected according to the subjects they teach in order to achieve as much of a discipline balance between the participants as possible. The teachers of other disciplines were not chosen for the study as their teaching practices stayed the same and they were not affected by the policy under discussion. In the literature review chapter, it became known that only science and certain Humanities and Language based subjects were being taught as part of the framework of the trilingual education policy.

Apart from the discipline category, the participants were purposely selected according to their teaching experiences. The experiences of both senior and junior teachers were relevant to this research study. To be exact, the participants with teaching experience of three years or more were selected for the research. I deliberately opted for participants with somewhat longer teaching experiences as I believed that novice teachers may not have formed their views on the phenomenon that was being explored. I felt that teachers with substantial experience could shed more light on the investigated phenomenon.

Since this research study explores pedagogical translanguaging and how languages are being used in teaching, it was important for me to recruit participants with varied language expertise. From Table 10 below it is evident that the common languages that all participants share are Kazakh, Russian, and English. Some of the participants mentioned learning a fourth language, which was Turkish and German, respectively. Interestingly, in most cases, the participants named the Kazakh language first and then only mentioned their knowledge of the Russian and English languages. Only one participant named the Russian language first and shared that she is more fluent in the Russian language than Kazakh. But, at the same time, the participant highlighted the fact that she still views the Kazakh language as her mother tongue even though she is not so fluent in it.

Aside from non-probability purposive sampling, I also employed convenience and snowball sampling strategies. Both of these sampling strategies were utilised to gain easier and faster

access to the potential participants. Since my data collection consisted of three steps, I needed to make sure to recruit the participants at the earliest stage of my fieldwork in order to follow the set-out timeframe. A convenience sampling allowed me to conduct my fieldwork at the school located in a city convenient for me, which allowed me to gain easier access to it. It also helped me to find a place to stay for the duration of my fieldwork and to reduce costs related to the research study. A snowball sampling strategy as its literal meaning suggests allowed me to grow the number of participants by rolling the snowball (Kirchherr & Charles, 2018). This means that the participants, if interested, may share the research opportunity with other potential participants and the next potential participants with others and so on (Kirchherr & Charles, 2018). As Patton (1990) suggested at the end of the interview, I prioritised asking the participants if they could direct me to some potential participants who would be interested in taking part in this research study. Some of the participants shared with their colleagues about this study and thus allowing me to grow the number of participants. Although, I need to admit that I did not intend to employ a snowball sampling strategy but due to time constraints I decided to opt for this strategy, and it proved to be efficient for me.

Table 10 below demonstrates an overview of the eleven participants' characteristics. The participants' real names were replaced with pseudonyms as one of the ways of protecting their anonymity. The table also shows the subjects they teach, their teaching experience, their educational background along with the languages they know and speak.

Table 10

Participant's pseudonym	Subject	Teaching experience	Education	Language Background
Balnur	English Language	5 years	Reading for a Master's Degree	Russian (L1), Kazakh (L2), English (L3), Turkish (L4)
Chingiz	Chemistry	9 years	Bachelor's degree; CLIL training	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3)

Dinara	English language	7 years	Reading for Master's Degree	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3), German (L4)
Fariza	Chemistry	15 years	Bachelor's degree; CLIL training	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3)
Esengul	English language	15 years	Bachelor's degree	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3); German (L4)
Aigerim	English language	26 years	Master's degree	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3)
Jomart	Computer Science	9 years	Bachelor's degree; CLIL training	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3)
Gulmira	Physics	6,5 years	Bachelor's degree; CLIL training	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3)
Han	Physics	8 years	Bachelor's degree; CLIL training	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3)
Inkar	Chemistry	4 years	Bachelor's degree; CLIL training	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3)
Karagoz	Biology	8 years	Bachelor's degree; CLIL training	Kazakh (L1), Russian (L2), English (L3)

Note: Participant Characteristics

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

There were three primary data collection instruments that I used for this research study. They were: semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, and document analysis. In this section, I explain the reasons for employing these three methods of data collection and first I start by elaborating on semi-structured interviews.

3.7.1 Semi-structured Interviews

The three types of interviews include such types as structured, semi-structured, and unstructured. While structured and unstructured interviews have huge differences from each other, semi-structured interviews may be described as sitting between those two types of interviews. Structured types of interviews follow the interview protocol and help to collect a specific range of data for prearranged categories. Unstructured interviews, on the other hand, do not have a fixed structure or categorisation to start with and usually begin with an initial inquiry question and "then progress based, primarily, upon the initial response" (Gill et al., 2008, p. 291). Although all three interview types have their own advantages and disadvantages, "each may be more or less suitable for particular types and areas of research" (Hannabuss, 1996, p. 22).

For this study, I opted for the semi-structured type of interview as I believed that this type is the most suitable after considering all three types of interviews. A semi-structured interview as its name suggests is a type of interviewing method where the interviewer only partially follows the structured interview protocol. In other words, this method gives the researcher an opportunity to probe and ask additional questions that may help to understand the investigated phenomenon (Patton, 2001) in a more detailed way. As Brown and Danaher (2019, p. 77) put it,

> semi-structured interviews are positioned between on the one hand wholly structured interviews, where the interviewer does not deviate from the prepared interview schedule, and where the questions are usually more closed in character, and on the other hand unstructured interviews that are more freely flowing and emergent conversations that respond to general topics rather than to specific questions.

Apart from asking additional questions, this method allows the researcher to reword and rephrase questions in cases of misunderstandings and whenever participants require clarifications. Moreover, open-ended questions in semi-structured interviews help elicit in-depth answers and avoid yes or no responses. This type of interview gives "access to the context of people's behaviour and thereby provides a way for researchers to understand the meaning of that behaviour" (Seidman, 1998, p. 4), which corresponds to this study's aim to

explore the in-service teachers' views and attitudes toward the implementation of the trilingual education policy.

It is also worth mentioning that semi-structured interviews require careful consideration of question construction and facilitation of interviews. Grix (2010) argues that open-ended questions usually bring out a range of responses from different participants which means that the data may not be collected in an anticipated way. But, in the case of this study, the range of responses is being sought and the participants' varied experiences and views on the investigated phenomenon are needed to answer the stated research questions. For the reasons mentioned, this study employed semi-structured, open-ended and in-depth interviews with eleven participants in order to investigate the stated phenomenon.

3.7.2 Lesson Observation

The second research instrument that was selected for this study is lesson observation. Considering my identified research questions, I opted for this type of research instrument for its nature to illuminate the "what" and "how" questions (O'Sullivan, 2006). The lesson observation helps the researcher to discover new data that was not mentioned or covered during the interview. In some cases, this type of research instrument may be used as a reality check or as validation of things that were said and mentioned during the interviews. Similar to the conduction of interviews, lesson observations too require certain skills that the researchers need to possess and train before undertaking this approach (Merriam et al., 2016). In order to prepare myself for observations I followed Merriam et al. (2016) suggestion for researchers who chose to conduct observations. Merriam et al. (2016, p. 139) suggestions and advice included considering the following:

> learning to pay attention, learning how to write descriptively, practicing the disciplined recording of field notes, knowing how to separate detail from trivia … and using systematic methods to validate and triangulate observations.

There are two forms of participant observation which are participatory and non-participatory observation (Brodowicz, 2013). For this study, I employed a fly-on-the-wall observation also known as the non-participatory type of lesson observation as this type of observation is known to be less "obtrusive" (Creswell, 2014). In this type of observation, the researcher does not take part in any of the teaching and learning processes and only observes and takes notes of the activities that are taking place in the observed setting. Check and Schuh (2012) also refer to this type of observation as *overt observation*. According to Check and Schuh (2012), the researcher's presence in the classroom may potentially impact the dynamics of the lesson. The teacher may not act naturally and feel uncomfortable being *watched*. In a recent doctoral thesis of AlSabbagh (2019), the student made an observation on how it was not possible to get the teachers' consent and agreement for lesson observations as they did not want to be judged. The teachers perceive their classrooms as their own territories and when someone tries to enter their classrooms, they may see it as an intrusion. Thus, in order to make the observations less obtrusive, I decided to use a non-participatory form of observation where I sit quietly in the back of the classroom without attracting too much attention to my presence.

For lesson observations, I decided to opt for a semi-structured type of lesson observation instead of structured and unstructured observation. I did not want to go into the classrooms without a predetermined observational protocol (See Table 14 in the following sections) which is the main feature of unstructured observations. I also felt that structured observation narrows down and limits the researcher's focus during the observation and this in turn leads to any unexpected data being missed from the researcher's eyesight. Thus, the semi-structured type of lesson observation was chosen for its ability to provide both the structure of the observational protocol and flexibility in noting down any additional or unexpected points raised during the observations.

3.7.3 Document Analysis

The third research instrument that I chose for this study was document analysis. Morgan (2022, p. 66) argued that:

> interviews, observations cannot provide a complete understanding of the phenomenon being investigated. Researchers normally do not see everything in a setting, understand what they observe, and determine what is crucial to observe.

According to her document analysis "can reduce" (Morgan, 2022, p. 66) the above-stated concerns and help the researcher to better understand the phenomenon under investigation. Similarly, Merriam et al. (2016) noted the document analysis' role in helping the researchers to capture a deeper sense of the phenomenon. They quote Glaser and Strauss's (1967, p. 163) argument which states that:

> When someone stands in the library stacks, he is, metaphorically, surrounded by voices begging to be heard. Every book, every magazine article, represents at least one person who is equivalent to the anthropologist's informant or the sociologist's interviewee. In those publications, people converse, announce positions, argue with a range of eloquence, and describe events or scenes in ways entirely comparable to what is seen and heard during fieldwork.

Document analysis is mostly used in combination with different methods to triangulate multiple data sources. Through triangulation, the researchers try to achieve "a confluence of evidence that breeds credibility" (Eisner, 1991, p. 110). This method provides "valuable information in helping researchers to understand a central phenomenon in qualitative studies" (Creswell, 2012, p. 210). For case study research, Yin (2003) recommends the researchers employ document analysis for case study research.

Document analysis is a procedure that allows the researcher to systematically evaluate or review the documents (Bowen, 2009). Documents can be in printed or electronic forms and usually include books, newspapers, journals, diaries, papers, brochures, letters, maps, charts, reports, manuals, and other types of relevant documents. By looking at various types of documents the researcher will be able to compare and identify any changes or developments made in the investigated site (Bowen, 2009).

Bowen (2009) recommends that researchers analyse the documents with a critical eye and be selective when choosing the needed documents. He believes that the documents need to be selected in accordance with their relevance to the investigated problem and phenomena. Similarly, Flick (2018) too noted that only relevant documents need to be collected, but besides this, he also mentioned the four factors that researchers need to consider when choosing the potential documents. These four factors are as follows: a) authenticity, meaning, representability, and credibility (Flick, 2018). Authenticity relates to the ways in which the potentially selected documents are considered to be genuine (Morgan, 2022). To this Morgan (2022) argues that document selection should be similar to how the participants are selected for the study or how a certain activity is chosen to be observed. In other words, as Morgan (2022, p. 71) noted:

> An interviewer must select the appropriate people to interview. And participant observers need to make sure that what they observe is not staged but natural activity. In a similar manner, researchers need to be sure that the documents they select are not forged.

Thus, when it comes to authenticity, it becomes essential for the researcher to make sure that the chosen documents are appropriate, authentic, and come from a direct source (Morgan, 2022).

Meaning is another factor that needs to be considered when choosing the documents for analysis. According to Morgan (2022) “meaning involves the significance of a document’s content and pertains to whether the evidence is clear and understandable” (p. 72). Therefore, the researcher needs to make sure that the meaning of the chosen document is not only significant to the argument that he or she is trying to make, but also it needs to be clear and understandable. When it comes to representability the researchers need to make sure that the chosen documents are not similar documents with the same content (Dunne et al., 2015; Morgan, 2022). According to Dunne et al. (2015), a variety of different types of documents need to be consulted and they need to come from different kinds of sources.

The credibility factor urges the researchers to select documents that are "free from error and distortion" (Morgan, 2022, p. 71). In other words, credibility is concerned with the reliability of the chosen document and whether the meaning was rendered in the right way (Flick, 2018; Morgan, 2022).

As this research study looks at the language policy that is being implemented at the secondary school level, I chose to explore the teachers' lesson plans, empirical studies, media sources, and other policy-related documents. I found it to be important to specifically concentrate on policy documents and thus I selected both normative and legislative documents on trilingual education policy. Besides this, I also decided to incorporate crucial empirical studies and media sources that discussed and investigated the trilingual education policy in an in-depth manner. A review of these documents was needed to understand whether the practice of pedagogical translanguaging is reflected in the teachers' lesson plans, empirical studies, media sources, and other policy-related documents. Thus, this last research instrument was employed to build a better picture of the types of teaching strategies that are used by in-service teachers as part of the implementation of the trilingual education policy.

3.8 Piloting

Before the start of any data collection process, I felt that it was important to conduct a pilot study first. I believe this needs to be done to test the constructed questions and to explore any possible flaws that might come up during the interviewing process. Cohen et al. (2001) suggest that piloting the interviews helps the researcher to ensure the questions are formulated correctly and sound clear to the participants. They further add that at this step it is possible to detect any uncertainties and change them before undertaking an actual data collection process.

For the piloting process, I conducted pilot semi-structured interviews with two of my former co-workers who were at the moment teaching in a different school. As these colleagues were still working in the secondary school system, I thought that they could understand and relate to the questions I prepared for the interview. I assured both of my former co-workers that their answers would not be used for data analysis and that I was interviewing them only as part of the piloting process. I also encouraged them to share their thoughts and give me feedback on the interviewing process and the prepared questions as well.

The first pilot interview lasted for 60 minutes. I was not able to cover all of the prompt questions as I anticipated the interview to last for 40 minutes. This pilot interview revealed the fact that the prepared questions were too comprehensive. Moreover, some of the questions sounded repetitive while others were too academic containing special terms. One of my former colleagues shared that one of the questions needs clarification or explanation in a more simplified language. This first pilot interview proved to be very useful and gave me insight into changes that I needed to make before undertaking the second pilot interview. Therefore, I had to cut and remove some of the questions that sounded repetitive. Also, I rephrased the questions that sounded complex and hard to comprehend into more simplified language as was suggested by my former colleague. I checked again whether the questions addressed the research questions and at the same time made sure not to exceed the expected interviewing time. After making these changes, I conducted the next pilot interview with my second former co-worker.

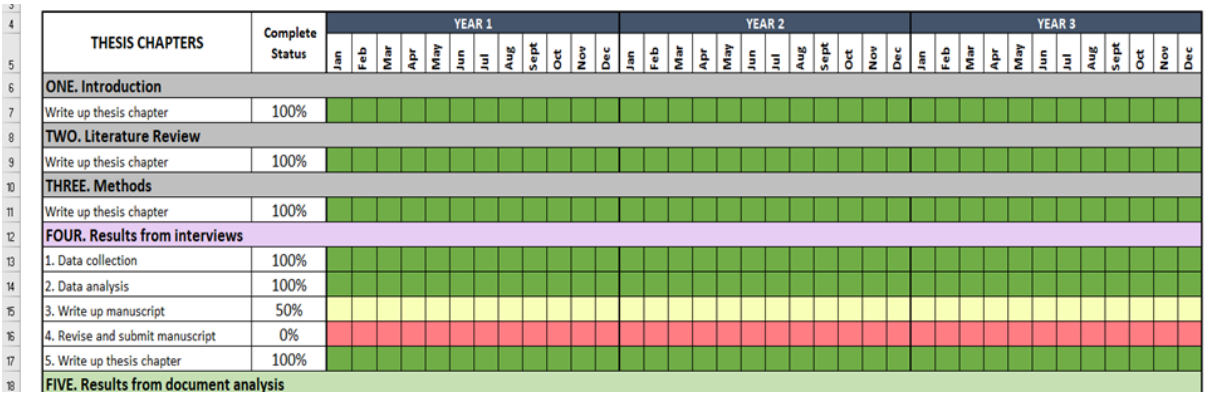
The second pilot interview was as helpful as the first one. This time the interview lasted for 50 minutes, and I was able to cover all of the prepared questions. My former co-worker's responses were not repetitive and with each question, I was able to receive a new insight. My former co-worker did not ask for any clarifications and at the end of the interview shared that the questions were very understandable and participant friendly. After I reviewed the suggestions received from pilot interviews, I was able to identify that my former colleagues'

responses were very informative. Following this, I was able to make the necessary changes to the protocol of prepared questions. The changes that were made to the original questions and the responses I received from the second pilot interview proved to be very useful as well. From the reviewed responses, I was able to identify that the elaborated questions will help me to yield and produce the relevant data for the research study.

3.9 Data Collection Process

The data collection for this research project lasted around eight months and this included the following data collection sets: semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, and document analysis. To be exact the data collection process started in February 2022 and continued until October 2022. As I had to gather a substantial amount of data, I needed to plan out each step accordingly. For this, I indicated the timelines as well as every required step in the form of a Gantt Chart (See Figure 2) in my digital diary. This was needed to be in place for this research project for two main reasons. Firstly, I needed to create a timeline using a Gantt Chart in order to be able to see and outline the major milestones for this project. This step was useful as I was able to keep track of the process and ensure that I finished the data collection process within the set timeline. Secondly, the Gantt Chart allowed me to identify the tasks as well as the months for fulfilling them. I also appreciated the fact that I was able to colour code the tasks in the chart, where the red coloured tasks meant not completed tasks, yellow meant in progress, whilst green stood for completed tasks. This step allowed me not only to keep track of my progress, but also to set realistic goals that were accomplishable within the identified 3-year timescale.

Figure 2. Gantt Chart



THESIS CHAPTERS	Complete Status	YEAR 1												YEAR 2												YEAR 3											
		Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec
ONE. Introduction																																					
Write up thesis chapter	100%																																				
TWO. Literature Review																																					
Write up thesis chapter	100%																																				
THREE. Methods																																					
Write up thesis chapter	100%																																				
FOUR. Results from interviews																																					
1. Data collection	100%																																				
2. Data analysis	100%																																				
3. Write up manuscript	50%																																				
4. Revise and submit manuscript	0%																																				
5. Write up thesis chapter	100%																																				
FIVE. Results from document analysis																																					

Note. Example of Gantt Chart

Throughout the data collection process, I tried to adjust to the participants' schedules and suggested requests. Most participants followed the agreed interview schedule, while some participants had to reschedule the interviews several times, due to their busy schedules and heavy teaching workloads. On top of that, the school's third term ending had a significant impact on the participants' availability as they were conducting final exams and finalising the students' grades. Regardless of unexpected interview cancellations, I made sure to be flexible and adjust to the participants' requested dates and times.

Another aspect that I closely paid attention to was building trust with the participants. Building trust with your participants is crucial for successful research (Jonbekova, 2018) as the researcher learns about the participants' views and opinions on certain things. In order to establish a trusting relationship with my participants, I thoroughly explained the purpose of the research, the participants' roles in this research, and how their identities will be protected. Building mutual trust was essential, especially for lesson observation purposes, and partially for this reason the data collection consisted of three steps which were pre-lesson observation interviews in the form of semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, and post-lesson observation short clarifying questions. Since the data collection consisted of these mentioned steps, the participants seemed to feel at ease in my presence and seemed to act naturally during the interviews and lesson observations.

As mentioned in the data collection instruments section, the data collection process was comprised of three steps which were semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, and document analysis.

The first data collection instrument adopted for this study was pre-lesson observation semi-structured interviews. As mentioned previously, for these interviews, I adopted a semi-structured interview as it gives the researcher a focus on the research questions and at the same time the opportunity and flexibility to ask additional questions (Richards, 2003). With a subject as a trilingual education policy and attitudes towards this policy, I needed to make sure that the participants had the chance to express themselves openly and expand on their responses. Moreover, the semi-structured interviews allowed me to set a direction toward the needed aspects of discussion without limiting the conversation flow. Thus, semi-structured interviews allowed me to explore the participants' views in depth (Saldana, 2011) by asking follow-up questions to clarify some moments. I was also able to reformulate my questions whenever my participants seemed to struggle with understanding which I must note would not have been possible if I opted for a structured type of interviewing. Kostovicova and Knott (2022, p. 63) argued that:

> Scholars have written about an interview being a 'stressful' experience, not only because a researcher is under pressure to gather primary data… because an interview itself is a performance of sorts. From the perspective of knowledge creation, a research participant's stress has to be recognised too and is part of these unpredictable dynamics.

Keeping in mind the above statement, I tried to stick to my interview schedule and at the same time allowed myself some flexibility when asking additional questions or adding some comments. After conducting each of the interviews, I tried to reflect on them and noted down my thoughts on my performance as well as which further questions and comments I needed to ask and address during the next interviews. As I wanted to perform well during each of my eleven interviews, I therefore strictly adhered to the following semi-structured interview structure:

Table 11. SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW STRUCTURE

Section	Aspects
Introduction	Structured part of the interview that included: - thanking the participants for agreeing to take part in the research - introducing the participants to the research objectives and aims - information on the research - information on the interview - informed consent form explanation and discussion with the participants - explanation on their rights to withdraw from the research at any point - explanation on their rights to opt out of providing answers to questions that they do not find comfortable to answer
Questions from the schedule	Structured part of the interview that included: - questions from the schedule asked by the interviewer and replied by the participants
Spontaneous and additional type of questions	Unstructured part of the interview that included: - asking additional questions - asking to provide examples - asking to comment on certain aspects - asking to provide clarifications - asking for explanations - asking to paraphrase
Conclusion and the end of the interview	Structured part of the interview that included: - conclusive points from the interviewer - revisiting of the informed consent form with the participants - reiterating that the participants can withdraw from the study at any point - asking if the participants have any additional questions or comments to make - thanking the participants for their time and contributions - asking the participant to provide schedule for a lesson observation

Table 11: Semi-Structured Interview Structure.

The interview protocol was formed by considering the points raised in the literature review and consisted of 25 open-ended questions (See Appendix B) that were constructed to explore and reveal three specific aspects. These aspects were: a) background information about the participants; b) attitudes towards pedagogical translanguaging; c) the use of pedagogical translanguaging in teaching practice. The following Table 12 shows the list of these specific sections along with the aspects that correspond to each particular section.

Table 12. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Section	Aspects
Background information	The participants' background information such as *disciplines they teach, their teaching experiences, educational background, any completed trainings and knowledge of different languages*
Attitudes towards the pedagogical translanguaging	The participants' attitudes towards the pedagogical translanguaging such as their *knowledge about this concept, how they view this concept i.e., positively/negatively, exploring why they view the concept in such ways*
The use of pedagogical translanguaging in teaching practice	The participants' use of pedagogical translanguaging such as the *strategies they use, specific types of techniques, and reasonings for undertaking the claimed pedagogical translanguaging practices*

Table 12: Interview Questions.

Apart from the mentioned sections, I also tried to situate the questions to trilingual education policy and asked the in-service teachers regarding their views on the policy, the impact of the policy and what changes the policy brought onto their teaching practices, about their knowledge of the policy documents and whether these documents prescribed teaching by incorporating the three languages.

All of the 25 interview questions were translated from English into Kazakh and Russian languages for the sake of participants' convenience. But interestingly all eleven participants preferred to conduct the interviews in the English language. The participants explained this by stating that English is now one of the languages that they use for teaching and for this reason they wanted to use the English language for interviews. Some participants mentioned that they wanted to practise giving interviews in the English language and thus preferred English to Kazakh and Russian languages. Some others noted that they may need to use certain terms and thus they would prefer to conduct the interviews in the English language. The face-to-face interviews were mostly held in each of the participants' personal classrooms in order to avoid any loud noises and distractions. This was also helpful as nobody could see and disturb the interviewing process. Besides this, I also agreed with the participants' choice of venue as the participants seemed to be more comfortable in their own familiar spaces. All of the interviews were audio recorded upon receiving the participants' consent and then transferred to the University of Sheffield-approved Google Drive for transcription purposes. Pseudonyms were used at all times and at all stages of the data collection process.

Six out of eleven semi-structured interviews were conducted through the Zoom platform while the rest were in a face-to-face format. This happened due to the fact that there were still Coronavirus infection-related restrictions in place at the research site and thus half of the interviews had to be conducted online. Once the restrictions were lifted, I was able to travel to Kazakhstan and conduct the remaining semi-structured interviews and lesson observations face-to-face. The following Table 13 illustrates the data collection process schedule that was used for this study:

Table 13. DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

Participant	Date	Location

Balnur	Semi-structured interview Duration: 40:29 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00 Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 5:00	Zoom platform Face to face Face to face
Chingiz	Semi-structured interview Duration: 40:33 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00 Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 5:00	Zoom platform Face to face Face to face
Dinara	Semi-structured interview Duration: 30:30 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00 Follow up interview Duration: 10:00	Zoom platform Face to face Face to face
Fariza	Semi-structured interview Duration: 50:00 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00 Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 5:00	Zoom platform Face to face Face to face
Esengul	Semi-structured interview Duration: 50:00 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00 Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 10:00	Face to face Face to face Face to face

Aigerim	Semi-structured interview Duration: 51:00 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00 Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 5:00	Zoom platform Face to face Face to face
Jomart	Semi-structured interview Duration: 40:00 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00 Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 5:00	Face to face Face to face Face to face
Gulmira	Semi-structured interview Duration: 50:00 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00 Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 5:00	Face to face Face to face Face to face
Han	Semi-structured interview Duration: 40:00 Lesson observation: Duration: 40:00 Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 4:00	Face to face Face to face Face to face
Inkar	Semi-structured interview Duration: 50:00 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00 Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 5:00	Zoom platform Face to face Face to face
Karagoz	Semi-structured interview Duration: 40:00 Lesson observation Duration: 40:00	Face to face Face to face

	Follow up semi-structured interview Duration: 10:00	Face to face

Table 13: Data Collection Process.

Interestingly, I noticed that the participants whom I interviewed face-to-face elaborated more and provided in-depth answers compared to the interviews held online. Although all of the participants provided answers to the stated questions, I still would have preferred to conduct my all eleven interviews face-to-face. In particular, it was difficult to agree on the interview date and time due to the time differences. Teachers mostly agreed to conduct online interviews after their work, which may have contributed to their tiredness and lack of enthusiasm. Thus, once I was able to travel back to Kazakhstan, I prioritised conducting the remaining interviews in a face-to-face format.

The second data collection instrument was lesson observation and here I discuss the data collection procedures that were in place for it. As it was mentioned previously, I decided to include lesson observations for different kinds of reasons and one of them was due to the fact that they allow the researcher to discover unexpected data that was not mentioned in the interviews. Observations provide the researcher with first-hand experience where he or she immerses themselves into the particular context in order to observe, analyse and interpret (Merriam et al., 2016) the activities they observe. According to Merriam et al. (2016, p. 139):

> observation is the best technique to use when an activity, event, or situation can be observed firsthand, when a fresh perspective is desired, or when participants are not able or willing to discuss the topic under study.

To reiterate, they can also be used as validation and reality checks and help to understand the ways in which the participants behave (Merriam et al., 2016).

As for the procedures, for all lesson observations, I adopted non-participatory observation as it is the least obtrusive type of observation (Creswell, 2014), which allowed me to sit inside the classroom like a fly on the wall and observe the lesson. This means that I did not

participate in the teaching and learning process and only observed the lesson. Non-participatory lesson observation turned out to be the right type of observation for this research as my presence had a minimum impact on the lesson, on teachers (Check & Schuh 2012), and on students as well. Before the start of each lesson, the teachers prepared a seat for me at the back of the room and provided printed versions of the lesson plans. The teachers did not seem to pay any attention to my presence and proceeded with their lessons. Throughout the lessons the teachers were comfortable, and my presence did not seem to create any effect on their teaching practice. During the lessons, I used an observational protocol (See Table 14), which helped me to organise the notes into chronological order (Creswell, 2014) portraying a detailed description of the observed lesson.

Table 14. OBSERVATIONAL PROTOCOL

Aims	Teacher	Description of the teacher's actions	Description of the materials that the teacher uses	Any additional comments
Teacher's language/s use (the language of output and input)				
The language/s the teacher uses for students' queries				
The language/s used for teacher-student interaction				
The language/s used for tasks				
The language/s used for assessment				
The language/s used for assistance/help				

Table 14: Observational protocol.

The observational protocol was semi-structured, as this gave me an opportunity to note down any unexpected actions or activities and other relevant parts of the lesson (Lambert, 2012).

After the lesson observation, I conducted short post-lesson observation interviews also known as follow-up interviews with each teacher. For these interviews, I employed an unstructured type of interview due to the nature of follow-up interviews. An unstructured interview does not follow a predetermined order but rather starts with the formulation of the opening questions and the following questions will be based on the participants' responses (Gill et al., 2008). Since these second interviews were conducted after the lesson observations in the form of follow-ups, the questions for the participants could not be generalised. The observed lessons were conducted by different teachers from different disciplines, grades, and topics. Therefore, the questions that I asked had to be tailored for each participant in order to reflect on and discuss the observed lesson. The duration of follow-up interviews varied from minimum five to maximum ten minutes as some of the participants were eager to discuss the lessons and hear my feedback on the observed lesson, while some provided only short answers without giving any detailed responses. These follow-up interviews were not recorded, but I rather noted down the answers to the clarifications on *any additional comments* section of my observational protocol.

Lastly, I conducted a document analysis which was the third and last data collection instrument. For this step, I reviewed both printed and online documents and materials related to the investigated phenomenon (Bowen, 2009). Firstly, I was able to gather the lesson plans before the start of each lesson observation. These were the plans that teachers used for the lesson that I observed. Some teachers provided extra materials such as assessment forms and leaflets for exercises. Secondly, I was able to obtain the information and materials related to the school's vision and annual reports from the school's official website available and open to the public. Lastly, the documents on trilingual education policy were collected which

included the policy outline, roadmap for the development and delivery of trilingual education, state programs of education development, and other related materials which were also available online and open to the public. As “every book, every magazine article, represents at least one person” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 163), I also decided to include empirical studies that explore Kazakhstani trilingual education policy along with media sources. This document analysis step allowed me to supplement the data that I obtained from interviews and lesson observations (Bell, 1987). When it comes to the framework for document analysis, I was able to identify two, but opted for the one that was crucial for this particular study. Ozturk-Calikoglu and Cekic (2021) recommend two types of frameworks for document analysis which are known as traditional and interpretive-critical. The traditional framework typically views “policy factors as independent variables that explore policy outcomes post-implementation, as opposed to the interaction between factors” (Ozturk-Calikoglu & Cekic, 2021, p. 45). It usually takes the form of policy advocacy or to provide a general overview or information on the policy. Interpretive-critical framework, on the other hand, focuses more on exposing debatable features of the policy, defines the problems of the policy, and offers solutions to these problems. In other words, it looks more at “policies’ beneficiaries vis-à-vis policy effects, the meaning of policy content, and what actually happens in the policy implementation process” (Ozturk-Calikoglu & Cekic, 2021, p. 45). As the interpretive-critical framework focuses more on “raising questions about policy issues seeking to empower oppressed stakeholders in pursuing emancipation” (Ozturk-Calikoglu & Cekic, 2021, p. 60), I found it fitting for the purposes of this study. Therefore, in the document analysis stage, I was not engaged in providing an overview of the policy as it has already been given in the literature review chapter; I was more interested and concentrated on bringing the issues associated with the implementation of the policy on the surface as well as to understand where does the pedagogical translanguaging practice stand within it.

3.10 Translation and Transcription of the Data

Translation and transcription are other important steps of the data collection process. As mentioned in the previous sections most of the interviews were conducted in the English language due to the participants' preferences. Even though occasional codeswitching from English to Kazakh and Russian were present during the interviews, nevertheless, the conduction of the interviews in English tremendously helped with the transcription process. As most of the replies were given in the English language this allowed me to minimise the time spent on translation. As I am fluent both in Kazakh and Russian languages, I translated the words and phrases myself and concentrated on conveying the correct meaning. I also was not fond of using translation services due to them potentially being *outsiders* and not being able to understand the specifics of the investigated context. Especially, since the topic of investigation included such important aspects as language policy, teaching, language, and in some cases culture too. Thus, both as an insider to this research context and as someone who speaks the languages and knows the culture, I decided to proceed with the translations myself. Although I have to admit that given the small amount of Kazakh and Russian languages used during the interviews, the whole translation process did not take a lot of time.

The transcription process is considered crucial as without transcribing the researcher may face "massive data loss, distortion and the reduction of complexity" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 365). Denscombe (2017) too argued about the importance of transcription and stated that it helps the researcher to become "closer to the data" (307). Before beginning with the transcription, I listened back to all of the recordings and this step gave me an idea of how to approach the transcription process.

There are different types of transcription methods that may differ according to the researcher's needs. This may range from producing a full transcription that includes any pauses and filler sounds such as *um, uh*, and *mmm* to a transcription of only the main points

(Curtis & Curtis, 2011). Since this study explores the in-service teachers' views and attitudes, I was not interested in producing a full transcription including all of the pauses and filler sounds. In the previous sections, I touched upon the fact that the teachers preferred to conduct the interviews in English which was not their first language, and most of them were still in the process of learning and acquiring the language. Therefore, in all of the interviews, the teachers made pauses or used filler sounds as they were trying to find a correct translation or equivalent word in the English language. Since the interviews were conducted in English due to the participants' choices, it is unclear whether filler words were used due to hesitation and resistance linked to the subject matter, or due to language barriers. For this reason, they were disregarded for the purposes of this study. As a result, I decided to transcribe only the main and key points as the meaning and the words were more important than pauses or sounds. I was not able to use any transcription software and had to transcribe manually myself as the teachers tended to codeswitch and resort to the usage of the Kazakh and Russian languages. Once I finished with the transcription process, I allowed some time to pass before I got back with a fresh outlook on the transcribed material. Nisbet (2006) stated that reflexivity is important in the process of transcribing and for this reason, I reread the transcripts several times and tried to understand if I was able to render the participants' words and meanings. After rereading the transcripts, I then uploaded them to NVivo in order to continue with the next step which was data analysis.

3.11 NVivo

There are different kinds of software to conduct a qualitative type of analysis specifically that allow coding and organising these codes into themes. The most popular software in the market today is NVivo, MAXQDA, ATLAS.ti, Qualtrics, The Coding Analysis Toolkit (CAT), Dedoose, and others. I decided to opt for NVivo software due to my familiarity with the tool as I already used it during my Master's degree. I also favored the idea of not having

to spend time learning how to use an alternative type of software. NVivo is a safe and university-approved software that allows qualitative researchers to thematically analyse their data. Apart from uploading the interview transcripts, I was also able to upload the lesson observation notes and document analysis materials to NVivo software. NVivo is a software that researchers use for qualitative analysis and qualitative data management. From the beginning I knew I was not going to go for the manual analysis as firstly it was very demanding, secondly, it was very time-consuming and thirdly it was not compatible with the amount of data that I needed to analyse. Moreover, it is known that NVivo adds to the idea of research reproducibility and transparent data analysis process (Zamawe, 2015), and the same cannot be said about the manual type of analysis.

As I was already familiar with the software, I decided to use it to help me code and manage a huge amount of data. Novice researchers opt for this software as they mistakenly think that NVivo will automatically run the data analysis for them. However, this is not the case with NVivo software. As Gibbs (2013) stated, "the software does not do the analysis" (p. 278), and even on computer-assisted qualitative analysis software (CAQDAS) such as NVivo the researcher needs to do the analysis manually. Keeping this in mind, I assembled all of my data into one NVivo project file, or as Zamawe (2015, p. 14) stated "all the sources are kept together under one roof" and began the coding process. Even though working on NVivo did not necessarily reduce the time spent on data analysis, it still provided some clarity and structure during this process (Dalkin et al., 2021). Moreover, I appreciated the search feature in the software as it allowed me to locate the needed fragments amongst the large amount of data that was collected. Apart from the search feature, I also took advantage of the memos where I documented my ideas and thoughts on the emerging codes and themes. I found NVivo software extremely useful for thematic analysis as it provided me a broader feel for what kinds of themes were in the data but at the same time allowed me to run queries for deeper analysis. The software worked well and proved to fit my research design perfectly

and made the analysis less complicated and more efficient. However, this was mostly due to the fact that I was already familiar with the software and knew my way around it. For someone without any prior experience using the software, it will be as time-consuming as the manual type of analysis as one needs to first learn how to use the software before the analysis even takes place. Having reflected on my experience with the use of NVivo software I now move on to the discussion of how the collected data was analysed.

3.12 Data Analysis

In this section, I provide a detailed explanation of the processes I used to analyse the three sets of collected data. According to Josselson (2011, p. 227), data analysis can be described as an analysis process that engages with:

> Piecing together data, making the invisible apparent, deciding what is significant and insignificant, and linking seemingly unrelated facets of experience together.

For this step, I adopted Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase framework for thematic analysis as it provides the most structured and clear guidelines for researchers when doing a thematic analysis. Thematic analysis may be identified as “a method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79). This method does not merely summarise the data, but it seeks to understand, interpret and analyse it. This approach is known to be flexible and can be tailored to the specifics of the research study. However, it should be noted that due to the amount of available literature on thematic analysis, novice researchers may find themselves uncertain about how to proceed with the adoption of this approach (Nowell et al., 2017). Therefore, it is important to look into similar-scope studies and how they approached the implementation of such a rigorous type of data analysis.

According to Clarke and Braun (2013), one of the biggest misconceptions of analysis is presenting your research or interview questions as themes. When themes are presented in this manner, it can be said that they were simply summarised but not interpreted and

analysed. Therefore, in order to avoid such pitfalls, I used the following steps in analysing my data:

Table 15

Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase framework for thematic analysis
1. Becoming familiar with the data
2. Generating initial codes
3. Searching for themes
4. Reviewing the themes
5. Defining or naming the themes
6. Final writing up

Table 15: Braun and Clarke's (2006, p. 87) framework

Becoming familiar with the data. As its name suggests in this step the researcher familiarises himself or herself with the data by looking and reading through it. In my case, I have started to become familiar with the data during the transcription and translation processes. I continuously reread the collected data and started to organise them according to the type of research instrument I used to collect the data which were semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, and document analysis. Then I carefully read through each set of data to get a general idea and to understand them better but later when I reread them again, I started to look into the specific aspects. At this point, I also started noticing similar and contrasting points that were mentioned by the participants. I made notes of my initial impression of the data and then proceeded with the next step.

Generating initial codes. According to Saldaña (2015, pp. 3-4) a code may be identified as:

> A word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data.

This step is important as after making sense of the collected data, the researcher begins to illuminate the relation of the data to the research questions. For all of the collected data from

interviews, lesson observation, and documents I adopted the same coding strategy. According to Douglas (2003, p. 48), coding process is:

> Oriented around the central concept of [seeking] to represent the interplay of subjects' and researcher's perceptions of the nature and dimensions of phenomena under study.

In other words, codes are known as a word or a phrase that are assigned to the extracts. Initially, I thought to use a hybrid approach to coding (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006) by combining both inductive and deductive coding strategies, but after looking at the data set, I decided to opt for inductive coding instead. I utilised inductive or open coding strategy as I did not have any predefined codes to start with. Also, I believed that for this study the themes needed to be derived from the raw data without the influence of the researcher's pre-defined prejudices and beliefs. By opting for a bottom-up coding approach I wanted to be mindful regarding the coding process and did not want to forcefully fit the data into a certain coding frame. I deliberately avoided line-by-line coding and concentrated on aspects that were relevant to my research questions instead. I also tried to code repeated, interesting, and unexpected aspects. All of the coding processes were implemented through the usage of NVivo qualitative data analysis software which was also mentioned in the previous section. Coding on NVivo software was quite useful, especially given the large amount of data I had to work with. Some examples of the coding process that were in place are presented in Appendix D as well as in the following Table 16:

Table 16
Thesis Codebook example

Themes with codes	Description	Files	References
Trilingual Policy			
Training	Teachers' attitudes towards and views of the policy	10	13
Policy		11	11
Attitude towards the		7	8

policy			
Language incorporation in teaching			
Content over language	Teachers' views on language incorporation practices in teaching	6	9
Language incorporation		8	14
Language incorporation not encouraged		2	5
Spontaneous switching		2	2

Note: Example of thesis codebook

Searching for themes. As Braun and Clarke (2006) argued, themes do not come or *emerge* from data, but they are in fact conceptualised based on the data and the research questions. A theme is something that is "important about the data in relation to the research question and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). They mention that the researchers are the ones to decide what is a theme for them and how these identified themes can relate to the research questions and the topic. After examination of the generated codes, I was able to identify the codes that were suitable to be under the same theme. For instance, the codes that were on the teachers' perceptions of the policy, their knowledge of the policy as well as their comments on whether the policy brought any changes to their teaching practices were gathered into a broad theme called Trilingual Policy (See Table 16 above). By following the same manner, other codes were collated into different themes. When naming the themes, I followed Boyatzis' (1998) suggestion to label the themes with a word or sentence that would represent the thread of codes.

Reviewing the themes. At this step, the researcher needs to review the themes and check them for appropriateness (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In other words, I reviewed each identified

theme and checked whether the theme was supported by the data. I also examined the themes for overlapping and whether there were other themes in the data that I may have overlooked. It was also necessary for me to check whether the identified themes truly captured the important points raised in the data.

Defining or naming the themes. For this step, the researcher identifies "the 'essence' of what each theme is about" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 92). Each theme was organised according to the relevance to the research questions. As advised by Braun and Clarke (2006), at this stage I selected the extracts that needed to be included in the final write-up and which illustrated the key meaning of each theme. The memo-writing feature on NVivo software allowed me to briefly describe each theme so that I would easily recognise what the theme was about and what type of findings have been collated under each theme.

Final writing up. Finally, the last step in the thematic analysis is the writing up stage. In order to produce the final write up along with the identified findings, the themes needed to be repeatedly reviewed, defined, compared, and then finalised. Participants' quotes and extracts needed to be integrated into the writing as they form an integral part of the final writing up stage (King, 2004). By bringing together the themes and data extracts, the researcher produces a narrative that describes the analysis and explains how the identified key findings answer the set research questions. The result of the writing up step is provided in the next Chapter 4: Results and Discussion.

3.13 Trustworthiness

Ensuring the trustworthiness of the conducted research has become highly important to every researcher. Being attentive to subjectivity and keeping in mind potential risks is yet another step in increasing the research's reliability and trustworthiness. As this research study involves the participants' views and beliefs and does not look into providing statistical and numerical data (Cypress, 2017), it makes it even more important to establish

trustworthiness. In order to demonstrate the trustworthiness of the research, I decided to apply Lincoln and Guba's (1985) criteria of evaluation which includes: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility. For Lincoln and Guba (1985) credibility is synonymous with accuracy and validity. In other words, it can be understood as the extent to which the results of the study are credible. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest several ways to establish credibility, one of them being triangulation. This research study used triangulation by collecting the data through three different sources (Bryman, 2012) which were semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, and document analysis. The application of triangulation allowed me to cross-check the data and examine them for any inconsistencies. Additionally, member checking was conducted through follow-up interviews, which enabled me to ask additional questions and clarify some moments.

Transferability. Transferability was achieved by providing a "thick description" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) of the investigated context. I described the specifics and uniqueness of the context in a detailed manner. The participants of the study were selected in accordance with the predefined criteria also known as purposive sampling. Even though the system of education at the research site is different from the usual mainstream system, the similarities and differences found in this study can help to inform and bring new perspectives to the "Trinity of Languages" policy which is set to be adopted by all schools in Kazakhstan.

Dependability. Lincoln and Guba's (1985) third criterion is called dependability which means being consistent throughout the research process and being able to reproduce the findings of the research. I believe this research study is reproducible as I have provided a detailed description of each adopted research process at the beginning of this chapter. The analysis along with the coding sample are provided in the Appendix section of this thesis work. Moreover, throughout the research, I tried to illuminate and ask the participants to expand more on certain points to make sure I was understanding them correctly.

Confirmability. The last criterion is confirmability, and it can be achieved when the other three criteria are present in the study (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Confirmability is the neutrality or the extent to which the findings were shaped by the researcher's positionality. At the beginning of this thesis work, I discussed my positionality where I established my own beliefs and views in regard to the investigated phenomenon. I am fully aware of the fact that I may bring my own views into this study. However, in order to achieve confirmability, I always tried to reflect at every stage of this research process and made sure that the participants' voices were present throughout. Moreover, the regular meetings with my supervisor allowed me to reflect on my journey and my supervisor's feedback on my drafts and interpretations of the data were helpful as well.

Finally, these four evaluation criteria served as helping tools throughout my research process and also allowed me to establish the trustworthiness of this research study.

3.14 Ethical Considerations

Ethical consideration is yet another important aspect of every research project and this section provides an elaboration on it. According to Sieber (1993), ethics is "the application of moral principles to prevent harming or wronging others, to promote the good, to be respectful, and to be fair" (p. 14 cited in Sikes, 2004). The researchers are the guests at the research site, and they need to adhere to certain ethical rules and considerations throughout the conduction of their research. In order to conduct this research ethically, I adopted Wellington's (2000) eight ethical guidelines and followed them throughout this journey. According to Wellington and Davies (2015, p. 115), these guidelines state that:

1. No parties should be involved without their prior knowledge or permission and informed consent, i.e., they know what they are letting themselves in for and where your 'findings' might be publicized
2. No attempt should be made to force people to do anything unsafe, or do something unwillingly e.g., have their voice recorded
3. Relevant information about the nature and purpose of the research should always be given
4. No attempt should be made to deceive the participants

5. Avoid invading participants' privacy or taking too much of their time
6. Benefits should not be withheld from some participants (e.g., in a control group) or disadvantages imposed upon others (e.g., in a control or experimental group)
7. All participants should be treated fairly, with consideration, with respect, and with honesty
8. Confidentiality and anonymity should be maintained at every stage, especially in publication.

On top of this, I also found Patton's (2002) checklist on ethical issues to be specific in identifying certain key aspects of ethics and made sure to follow them as well. This checklist (Patton, 2002) includes the following ten aspects which are:

> explaining purpose; promises and reciprocity; risk assessment; confidentiality; informed consent; data access and ownership; interviewer mental health; advice; and data collection boundaries (p. 408-409).

Explaining purpose. For this category, Patton (2002, p. 409) suggests keeping in mind the following question and providing an answer to it: How will the purpose of the research and methods be explained to the participants so that it is both accurate and understandable? In order to answer this question, I paid great attention to the ways in which I developed the information sheets. I made sure that the information sheets used clear and easily understandable language for my participants where I explicitly described the purpose of the research. I tried to avoid using technical and theoretical words in order not to put my participants in a vulnerable position where they may not be familiar with certain concepts or theories. This practice has also been recommended by Coleman et al. (2021) who stated that "the use of understandable and accessible written information is an important element of communication with laypersons" (p. 2). Moreover, I developed the information sheets in three languages which were Kazakh, Russian, and English so that each participant could choose the preferred language and understand the purpose of the research better.

Promises and reciprocity. Why do the participants need to participate in the study? In order to answer this question, I first needed to define to myself why the participants would be interested in taking part in the research and allocate their time for it. This research explores the most discussed topic which is not only known to everyone, but also the reason for many

debates or as Karabassova (2022) stated “a hot potato issue” in Kazakhstan. As I already discussed in my positionality, I used to be a school teacher myself and I know how challenging and demanding the teacher’s role can get. By conducting this research, I wanted the teachers’ voices to be heard, especially those who might be struggling under the newly imposed rules and requirements. Thus, in the information sheet, I made sure that teachers understood that this research was not assessing them, but it was rather exploring the system and the policy they were trying to implement. The research presented them an opportunity to share their thoughts on the policy, their struggles, and any recommendations that they might have to improve their own position and the policy requirements too. The participants were made aware that by contributing to this research they will not only help to add knowledge to the field, but also help to focus on the areas in which changes were needed when it comes to the delivery of the trilingual education policy. Moreover, the information sheet also indicated the time commitment needed for this research as I was asking the teachers to devote their time not only to an interview, but also to allow me to observe one of their lessons and conduct a follow-up interview after the observation takes place. The teachers who took part in this research were mostly open in their statements and in some cases, they did not refrain from expressing critical views about their workload, school administration, and the policy overall. This shows that some of the teachers took advantage of this opportunity to express their challenges and openly discuss the difficulties they have encountered due to the implementation of the policy that was imposed on them.

Risk assessment. Will the participants be exposed to any risks and how will this be addressed? Risk assessment includes in itself the consideration of such aspects as the participant’s physical and psychological risks as well as the protection of privacy (Bloor et al., 2007; Wiles, 2013). Throughout the course of conducting this research, it was necessary to make sure that none of the participants were exposed to any of the potential risks. When it comes to psychological and emotional risk considerations, the participants were constantly

reminded that the research was not evaluating them; and that taking part in the research was voluntary, meaning that they could withdraw from the research at any point without providing any justifying reason (none of the participants decided to withdraw from the study). The interviews were held in the participants' chosen places as I wanted them to feel comfortable in their familiar surroundings and spaces. The participants were also informed, as part of the consent form and information sheet, who they should contact in cases when they felt distressed or unsatisfied with their involvement in the research (Wiles et al., 2005). Moreover, I tried to avoid using any special terms or the names of theoretical concepts as I did not want the participants to feel uncomfortable and embarrassed for potentially not knowing what these terms and concepts mean (Wiles, 2013). I prepared the interview questions in three languages (Kazakh, Russian, and English), so that the participants had an opportunity to choose the language they were most comfortable with. Moreover, I asked the participants if they were comfortable with audio recording the interviews for transcription purposes and proceeded with recording only after getting their consent (See Appendix C) to do so. As for the physical risks, I developed the interview questions in such way that will only require the participants to commit to 40–50-minute interviews. This was needed due to the participants' busy schedules and to avoid them feeling fatigued after the interviews. I also kept a distance between myself and the participants and wore a mask at all times during the interviews. This was needed to keep the participants safe as at the moment of data collection Kazakhstan was still reporting the number of people getting infected with coronavirus infection. Lastly, the protection of privacy was also meticulously considered throughout the conduction of the research. In order to do this, I followed the three crucial steps to ensure the protection of privacy. These steps were to encrypt (Irvin, 2021), anonymise (Saunders et al., 2015), and delete (Kaiser, 2009). Any information that would identify the participants such as their names, contact details, school's address, and location is not stored nor mentioned anywhere including in this thesis work. The audio recordings of

the semi-structured interviews were immediately transcribed and deleted after the transcriptions were finished and finalised. This was done to ensure that the data that was no longer needed was deleted (Kaiser, 2009). Similarly, consent forms were signed on a paper form and have been scanned and the paper versions have been shredded. Other relevant data that reaches the end of its retention period will also be immediately deleted. Moreover, no duplication of data was made, and only anonymised data was stored on my personal encrypted laptop protected by a strong password.

Confidentiality. What steps will be taken to ensure confidentiality? Ensuring confidentiality was another important step to consider when conducting this research (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012). Kaiser (2009, p. 1634) stated that:

> The convention of confidentiality is upheld as a means to protect the privacy of all persons, to build trust and rapport with study participants, and to maintain ethical standards and the integrity of the research process.

One of the first steps that I took in ensuring confidentiality was to assign pseudonyms to my participants. In the process of pseudonimising the participants' names, I needed to consider various aspects in order to make sure that their names were not identifiable. According to Heaton (2022, p. 124), a pseudonym may be explained as:

> A false name that differs from the real name of a person (orthonym) or place (toponym). In qualitative research, individual participants tend to be assigned pseudonyms by researchers, although sometimes they may be asked to choose their own.

Heaton (2022) conducted a study exploring the ways in which pseudonyms were assigned in published scholarly works. Heaton (2022) was able to identify that the studies tend to assign pseudonyms randomly, alphabetically, or by asking the participants to choose their preferred pseudonyms. Heaton (2022) also reported that some of the other studies pseudonymised their participants' real names by opting for culturally relevant forms of names, animal and plant names, a fictional character name, a car brand name, and even a pet name. Other studies also resorted to the use of epithets which are known as descriptive words that describe the person's character, appearance, mood, and others (Heaton, 2022). Some of the

examples of such descriptive words can be seen in Rodham et al. (2012) study where they used “cloggy, happy and snoopy”, Salmon’s (2007) study “Super Woman, Tricksey” and Brear’s (2018) study “Pretty”. In all of these studies, these epithets were either assigned by the researchers themselves or invited their participants to choose their own preferred epithets based on their likings. Some of other studies preferred to use codenames instead, where each participant was assigned such code names as R1, F2, C1, D2, E3 and others (Allen & Wiles, 2016; Heaton et al., 2016; Moyle et al., 2014). For this study, all of the participants’ pseudonyms were assigned by me, the researcher, due to several reasons. First of all, some of the participants wanted the pseudonyms to be chosen and assigned by the researcher and thus I felt that the process of pseudonimising should be the same and equal for all participants. Second of all, I feared that the participants may assign themselves pseudonyms that could be meaningful to them or tell something about them. This could potentially describe or identify them especially when someone who may know them such as their colleagues read their quotes with the chosen pseudonyms. Therefore, in order to avoid that, the process of choosing the pseudonyms for the participants was done entirely by me, the researcher. Upon reviewing the relevant literature, I was able to identify the ways in which I needed to approach the process of pseudonymisation. Apart from deciding to assign the pseudonyms myself, I also opted for an alphabetical order of names (note: this does not mean that the participants’ real names start with the same assigned alphabetical letter; See Table 17). Although Saunders et al. (2015) noted that “revealing too much about the ethnic/cultural backgrounds of participants” (p. 621) I believe it was still important that the selected pseudonyms “resonated with them” (Saunders et al., 2015, p. 621) in some ways. Therefore, I specifically opted for Kazakh names as pseudonyms given the fact that the study took place in Kazakhstan with Kazakh participants. I felt like choosing Western names or code names such as P1 or P2 would have been quite impersonal making it harder for the reader to follow the narration (Saunders et al., 2015). Moreover, I believe it was also

important to use Kazakh names rather than codenames as pseudonyms due to the amount of data I was able to collect for this research study. I knew I would be referring back to a particular in-service teacher's quote or observed lesson and for these reasons, the usage of the name as a pseudonym was more fitting. Apart from this, I decided to choose very generic names that were present in Kazakhstan in order to minimise any possibility of identifying the participants. Also, the chosen pseudonyms illustrated in the table below do not give away the participants' age or the part of Kazakhstan they may be from. This is because these names are quite generic and present amongst both older and younger generations and can be encountered in almost every part of Kazakhstan.

Table 17

A	Aigerim (an English language teacher)	**G**	Gulmira (a Physics teacher)
B	Balnur (an English language teacher)	**H**	Han (a Physics teacher)
C	Chingiz (a Chemistry teacher)	**I**	Inkar (a Chemistry teacher)
D	Dinara (an English teacher)	**J**	Jomart (a Computer Science teacher)
E	Esengul (an English language teacher)	**K**	Karagoz (a Biology teacher)
F	Fariza (a Chemistry teacher)		

Table 17: Participants' assigned pseudonyms

I also made sure that my participants understand that their names will not be used nor appear in any of the written materials including this thesis work and any of the following publications. The same principle applied to the city of the research site meaning that the city

name was never written down or mentioned anywhere. The audio recordings from the interviews were deleted right after the transcription process had finished.

Informed consent. The informed consent form is the most important aspect of every research ethics (Tai, 2012). The informed consent form was utilised throughout the course of this research study. It clearly stated the aims and objectives of this research and what the participants' involvement would entail. The participants were asked to provide their consent to take part in this study, and for this they needed to sign the informed consent form. The informed consent form required the participants to fully familiarise themselves with the content of the form and acknowledge that they fully comprehend the information provided in the form. Before the participants signed the consent forms, I asked whether they had any questions regarding the form and made sure that they understood the provided information. The participants were informed of the fact that the research was voluntary and that they could choose to withdraw from the study at any point. Moreover, the participants were also informed of the fact that they could decline to respond in the cases when they feel uncomfortable or sensitive to provide answers (Bryman, 2012; Cohen et al., 2018). None of the participants chose to withdraw from this research.

Data access and ownership. Who will have access to the collected data? No individual has gained access to the collected data except for me and my primary supervisor. All hard copies of the collected data including the fieldnotes were scanned and the hard copies were shredded. The scanned data were securely stored in my encrypted laptop protected by a strong password. I also activated a password protected screensaver which was used to automatically lock the screen. When the laptop was not in use, it was stored away and kept locked at all times. The electronic data such as transcriptions were stored securely on the University of Sheffield's approved Google Drive which was protected by a multi-factor authentication (MFA) protection password. A multi-factor authentication (MFA) provides an additional layer of protection by requiring two pieces of evidence: a password and a physical

device. Pseudonymised and analysed data will be published in the University of Sheffield's repository and stored there for 10 years. During this time, the University of Sheffield will be responsible for its security.

Interviewer mental health and wellbeing. Will the researcher be negatively impacted and how will he or she take care of themselves? As research-related harm seems to remain "comparatively rare, the evidence … suggests that it is a more common phenomenon than the absence of formal complaints would suggest" (Bloor et al., 2007, p. 5). For this reason, throughout the data collection process, I tried to minimise as well as foresee any potential harm that could impact me as a researcher. Wiles (2013) indicated two types of risks to researchers which are emotional risks and physical risks and according to him, emotional risks are more common than physical ones. One of the first things that I did in order to minimise any emotional risks was to prepare for the data collection in advance (Williamson & Burns, 2014). I made sure that my recording device was charged and in working condition prior to conducting any of the interviews in order to avoid any stress associated with equipment malfunction. On top of that, the conduction of pilot interviews assisted me with becoming more familiar with the interviewing process and as a result, I was less anxious about the actual interviews. I also tried to take breaks between the interviews and lesson observations in order to avoid becoming fatigued (Cannell et al., 1977; Fowler, 2004). Most importantly, I recognised the need for reflexivity (Allan, 2006; Dickson-Swift et al., 2006) and kept a journal where I wrote down my emotions and thoughts on my role as a researcher. When it comes to physical risks, I conducted my data collection only during the daytime and returned to the place I was staying straight after I finished the data collection process. I always used public transport for commuting from the place I was staying to the research site. Although I tried to conduct interviews and lesson observations during the first half of the day it was still mostly dependent on the participants' schedule and their proposed time. At the time of my data collection, some of the coronavirus infection related

requirements were still in place in most countries, including Kazakhstan. Therefore, when conducting interviews and observations, I always wore a mask and tried to keep a distance between myself and the participants.

Advice. Who will be the researchers' main point for seeking advice? From the initial stages of this research, my supervisor has been my main and primary point for seeking advice, support, and help and asking questions when in need. Reflexive supervisory meetings that we held on a regular basis assured me of the fact that I could voice any hurdles that I was experiencing along the way. During my fieldwork in Kazakhstan, I still stayed in touch with my supervisor, and we conducted online meetings where I elaborated on my data collection process. Once I was back, we conducted face-to-face meetings where I reported the results of the collected data. Thus, I can say that I consulted my supervisor whenever I needed to clarify some points and, in some cases when I needed her to review and comment on certain aspects of this research. My supervisor's ongoing suggestions and provided feedback allowed me to shape and conduct the research more meaningfully. Apart from my supervisor I also consulted the resources available for postgraduate research students as well as attended the necessary training and workshops.

Data collection boundaries. To what extent will you push for data? During the course of conducting this research, I did not push for data, but rather tried to be understanding and patient and work with the participants in an understanding and compassionate way. At each point of data collection, I reminded my participants that they may refuse to provide answer to the questions that they find uncomfortable to provide replies to. The participants were informed that they may withdraw from the research at any point without necessarily having to provide any specific reasons to do so. I was mindful when it comes to departing from the traditional idea of seeing the researcher having a higher position as he or she drives the research process. Instead, I viewed my participants as equals (Karnieli-Miller et al., 2009), showed my respectful attitude towards them at all times, and valued both their time and

commitment to the research as well as being appreciative of the fact that I was able to collect data due to their interests in the research. Moreover, I reminded my participants that I was once "in similar situations and positions" (Rojas-Lizana, 2017, p. 169) as they are, and for this reason, I tried to be as understanding as possible if they did not want to touch upon and elaborate on such matters as school administration, requirements and other aspects that may be sensitive to them. But at the same, I was also mindful of not causing myself emotional distress by "oversharing" and taking up a position of a "counselor" or an "advisor" to the participants (Bloor et al., 2007) as some of the participants asked my feedback on either the conducted interview or the observation. By being mindful of the mentioned aspects and at the same time mindful of the participants, I did not insist on or push for data as for me my participants' well-being was far more important.

The ethics regarding being an insider researcher. As I have mentioned in the Introduction Chapter: 1 before embarking on my academic journey I used to work as an English language teacher at one secondary school in Kazakhstan. I have substantial experience working as a teacher and thus I am very familiar with the school system, power relations, and hierarchy that are in place in most schools in Kazakhstan. When I began my research journey, I was cautious and mindful about me being over-familiar with the study context. Therefore, before beginning the data collection process, I needed to make sure that I did not bring my own biases and views to the interpretation of my participants' words. To ensure that I do not inflict my personal views on the process, it needs to be highlighted that I identified myself as both an insider and outsider researcher in this study. According to Hellawel (2006) "ideally the researcher should be both inside and outside the perceptions of the researched" (p. 487), and I found this statement fitful to this particular research study.

According to Bonner and Tolhurst (2022) "in qualitative studies it is becoming increasingly common for researchers to be part of the social group they wish to study" (p. 8). Bonner and

Tolhurst (2002, pp. 8-9) highlighted that there are a number of different advantageous parts to being "an insider" and some of them include such aspects as:

- having a greater understanding of the culture being studied;
- not altering the flow of social interaction unnaturally;
- and having an established intimacy between the researcher and participants which promotes both the telling and the judging of truth.

As an insider researcher, I became inspired by the topic under investigation and wanted to find answers to the research questions that I already had in mind. Also, later on, I started to realise that the fact of me being overly aware and familiar with the context was, in fact, becoming my strength rather than a disadvantage in exploring the subject under investigation. During the interviews, the participants did not see me as someone who came to evaluate them or intrude on them, but they rather viewed me as someone who is also concerned with the implementation of the policy. Thus, the participants felt comfortable during the interviews and showed openness in providing their responses and in some cases were willing to voice their critiques regarding the policy. Besides being an insider of my study context, I was also an insider of my chosen theoretical framework. As someone who speaks four languages and is learning the fifth, I was not only familiar with the concept of translanguaging but resorted to this practice on a daily basis and both inside and outside of the classroom. I was both passionate about and genuinely believed in the transformational effects of translanguaging practices. Had I been an outsider in this field, I would have spent a huge amount of time trying to understand the concept, its advantageous parts, and its role in bilingual and multilingual settings. As Dwyer and Buckle put it (2009, p. 59):

> Disciplined bracketing and detailed reflection on the subjective research process, with a close awareness of one's own personal biases and perspectives, might well reduce the potential concerns associated with insider membership.

In short, being an insider helped me not only to spark my interest in the investigated topic but also to correctly formulate the research questions, the methods to be used and also know exactly "when and where to gather data" (Bonner & Tolhurst, 2002, p. 10).

At the same time keeping in mind the possible "dangers of over-rapport with research participants" (Bonner & Tolhurst, 2002, p. 11), I also considered myself as an outsider researcher in this study. Firstly, I was no longer working in school settings and have been in academia for over five years; first doing my Master's degree and then now my PhD and thus I no longer felt like I was part of the school system. Moreover, both the ethical and methodological responsibilities I had to carry throughout the data collection process kept reminding me of my role as a researcher and principal investigator of this research study. Secondly, as Chhabra (2020, p. 313) put it:

> Outsiders might be able to explore the experiences of marginal groups more objectively, as they are not enmeshed within the group's activities and the group participants might feel the need to explain more thoroughly their standpoint.

As I was an outsider or someone who came from outside, I felt like my participants were more open with me in their expressions and communications. This could be due to the fact that the participants thought that I did not have any relations with the administration and therefore they felt safe in my company and did not mind sharing their thoughts and opinions on the investigated questions. Thus, reflecting back on my both insider and outsider researcher roles I can say that there are both advantages and disadvantages and it is essential for each researcher to consider both sides of these roles.

Table 18

Insider	Outsider
Advantages ● Researcher is not considered as a stranger but rather as a member ● It can be rather economical as the researcher is already familiar with localities such as spoken language, culture, conditions and others ● Researcher is less prone to stereotypical thinking ● Researcher does not spend lengthy period in attempts to understand the	Advantages ● Researcher is not committed to the group ● Researcher may be considered as an objective observer ● Researcher may make a discovery of something valuable to the research which would have been overlooked by an insider due to things coming across as familiar

group ● Researcher does not spend lengthy period for preparation for the research	
Disadvantages ● Researchers may be biassed when it comes interpretation and analysis of findings ● Sometimes a researcher may be seen as an advocate rather than the researcher ● Researcher may rely on participants with whom he or she feels comfortable	Disadvantages ● Researcher may experience a cultural shock which may potentially interfere with the set research timeframe ● Researcher may spend lengthy period in establishing trust and in some cases his or her efforts may not lead to the establishment of trust ● Researcher may get desensitised by the local group's linguistic and cultural peculiarities ● Researcher may end up receiving the expected answers from the investigated group rather than their true views and opinions ● Researcher may need to spend lengthy period trying to understand the group's cultural and linguistic peculiarities ● It may not be economical as in some cases trained experts from the investigated field may be needed

Note: Adapted from Bonner and Tolhurst (2002, p. 18)

Thus, when entering the participants' field, I considered the above stated advantages and disadvantages of both insider and outsider researcher roles. They provided ideas and directives for me during the conducted interviews and observations. After all Bonner and Tolhurst's (2002, p. 18) words kept echoing back to me which were:

> It is important to know what it is that you are looking for from the start of the study and to be flexible in your views and be prepared for change.

Thus, following these and considering the advantages and disadvantages of the two researcher roles, I made sure to turn both of my insider and outsider sides into strengths. At times, being an insider researcher during data collection had its advantages, but I did not think in the same way when it came to analysis. As Maykut & Morehouse (1994) noted:

> The qualitative researcher's perspective is perhaps a paradoxical one: it is to be acutely tuned-in to the experiences and meaning systems of others—to indwell—and

> at the same time to be aware of how one's own biases and preconceptions may be influencing what one is trying to understand. (p. 123)

During the analysis, I had to keep an open mind and be in an outsider's role when identifying the possible codes and themes. I found this process to be quite challenging as I needed to separate my prior experiences and views from the collected data. Thus, as part of the analysis, I tried to write notes and comments as a way of reflecting on the data. I made sure to double-check my initial interpretations of the data and question whether I was looking at the data from the "inside" as a former school teacher who has an in-depth understanding of the content or from the "outside" as a researcher who is trying to address the posed research questions. I kept refining my selected themes and tried to be reflexive at each stage of the analysis. Most importantly, I made sure to admit to myself that as an insider I have a subjective bias and accept it in order to work with it and possibly use it as a strength. For this, I exercised rereading and returning to the data with "new" eyes in order to "notice things that insiders take for granted or do not notice" (Rabe, 2003, p. 157). Thus, throughout the data analysis process I was engaged in an active reflection process on "what has been produced ("what do I know") and on how this has been generated ("how do I know what I know")" (Cui, 2010, p. 95).

3.15 Chapter Summary

If to say with the words of Snyder (2009, p. 333):

> Building your research on and relating it to existing knowledge is the building block of all academic research activities, regardless of discipline. Therefore, to do so accurately should be a priority for all academics.

Therefore, the main aim of this chapter was to present the methodological underpinnings that were in place for this particular study. The chapter provided a thorough explanation of the chosen research design and research instruments that were used to obtain and analyse the data. It has also described the research participants and their characteristics, the research site as well as the ethical considerations that were in place for this study. An important aspect of

pseudonymisation and the steps taken to make sure the participants are not identifiable is provided as well. Besides these, the researcher's insider and outsider roles are discussed along with each of the two roles' advantages and disadvantages. The chapter also included the piloting stage which was used in order to prepare and test the adopted methods before beginning the actual data collection process. Next, the chapter explained the process of interview questions development and their relation to the research questions, the adopted theoretical framework, and to the policy itself. Lesson observation methods were also explained along with how the observation protocols were developed and used in practice. The methods used for document analysis were presented and discussed as well. This included an explanation of how the documents were obtained and why this specific data collection method was needed for this type of research. Lastly, the chapter provided an in-depth explanation of translation and transcription processes as well as how the collected data was analysed using the NVivo qualitative data analysis software and which steps were followed in this process. The chapter provided an explanation of the steps taken for thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and elaborated on how codes and themes were identified. The product end result of the data analysis is reporting back with the results, and this is discussed in the following Chapter 4: Results and Discussion.

Chapter 4: Findings, Analysis and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented methodological considerations, which were applied to this research study. In this chapter, I present the results that were obtained from three different data collection sources, which were semi-structured interviews, lesson observation, and document analysis. As the study was driven by my research positionality and research paradigm (presented in Chapter 1: Introduction and Chapter 3: Methodology) the results and discussion in this chapter will be presented in accordance with the research questions and themes. Then the presented results will be discussed in accordance with the adopted theoretical framework and along with the key literature that was presented in detail in Chapter 2: Literature Review of this research study.

According to Cohen et al. (2011), results can be presented in a variety of different ways, and these include methods of structuring according to the research questions, cases, themes, research instruments, individuals, and others. In my case, I believe presenting the results through research questions and themes is more fitting as it not only provides clarity to the reader but also highlights the main themes that were identified in this study. To ensure the trustworthiness of the qualitative research study, the themes are presented together with relevant quotes from the participants (Corden & Sainsbury, 2006) and with the relevant key literature. I also decided to present the results delivered from the three instruments separately in order to have a clear and concise narration of the results. This made the process of reporting the main findings more structured and visible. Moreover, it also would have been difficult to present the three data methods together due to the depth of findings collected from these three research instruments. Therefore, I now start by presenting the results from the first research instrument, which was semi-structured interviews.

4.2 The results from semi-structured interviews

Main questions:

1. What are in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging in implementing the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan?
2. How do Kazakhstani in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging influence their teaching practices?

The figure below illustrates the three main themes and their sub themes that derived from the interview analyses:

Figure 3. Theme Map

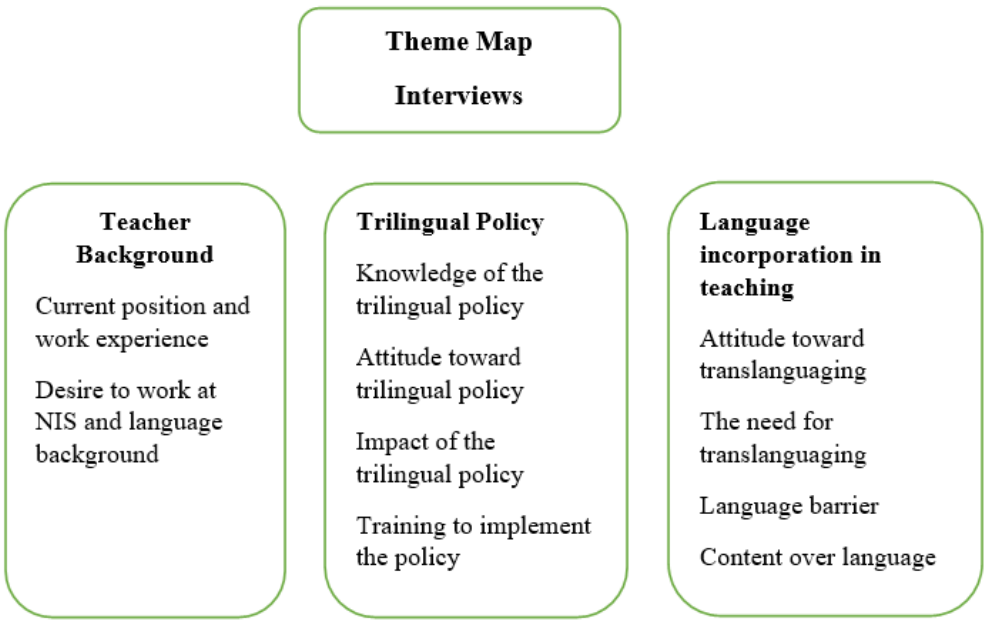


Figure 3. Interviews Theme Map

4.2.1 Theme 1: Teacher Background

This theme encompasses each of the eleven participants' backgrounds which include their education, teaching position, the reason behind their choice to teach at this particular school, as well as the languages that they know and speak. The theme provides an important insight into the participants' characteristics and allows the reader to understand their views and further responses that they provide better.

Also, an important remark to make is that the following quotes of the participants have been edited only minimally by adding punctuation marks. I intentionally did not edit their grammatical mistakes and kept the original quotes not only to keep the intended messages but also due to the main interest of this research topic, the implementation of the policy and English being a major part of it. In the cases when the participants provided answers in Kazakh or Russian then those quotes are given in the translated forms.

4.2.2 Subtheme: Current position and Work experience.

It became clear that all eleven participants had different teaching experiences at the time of data collection. Their experiences ranged from the shortest being four years and the most extensive being twenty-six years. Four of the participants' experiences were eight and nine years and another two participants' experiences consisted of fifteen years. The rest of the participants' experiences were comprised of five, six and a half, and seven years. As for their positions, they mainly taught either STEM or Language based subjects. To be exact, there were three Chemistry teachers, two Physics teachers, one Computer Science teacher, and one Biology teacher. The remaining four of the teachers were English language teachers. Justifications for choosing these specific subject teachers were given in Chapter 3: Methodology. Among the participants, one English language teacher held the Head of the Department position whilst others held only a teacher position. None of the participating teachers were part of the school administration and their main work duty was classified as a teacher. In the research site, the school administration's main workload consists of paper-based work as well as administrative duties. As a result, their teaching hours are much less than that of the teachers. Considering this, there were no members of the school administration in this research. Out of eleven participants, eight had a previous teaching experience in mainstream type of secondary schools. The rest of the three teachers did not have an experience of teaching in a school other than NIS school.

4.2.3 Subtheme: Desire to work at NIS and language background

When it comes to the desire to work at NIS school, all of the participants expressed positive views and opinions regarding this. Some of the participants associated their desire to work at this specific school with gifted students and that the school provides them with the opportunity to teach such bright and talented students. Other participants shared that they preferred this specific school because of its status and the opportunities that it offers to the teachers. For instance, one of the teachers mentioned that:

> *I think that it is an honour to teach such students who are intellectual and have critical thinking skills and who can adapt to live in different societies. I also learn from my students. Therefore, this school is improving and developing my teaching skills. This school offers a lot of opportunities and that is why I chose this school* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

> *So actually, this school is considered to be one of the best schools in our city and in my opinion, I want to get more experience in the teaching sphere, to know more strategies for teaching and I thought that by teaching at this school I can improve my teaching experience.* (Esengul, English language teacher)

From these two excerpts, it becomes clear that the teachers chose to work at this school as it is considered as "one of the best schools" in their city. The teachers mentioned their willingness to teach intellectual students and also to improve their teaching practices by working at this specific school.

The next excerpt provided by Gulmira (Physics teacher) touches upon her experience in teaching in a mainstream school and how she needed to adjust to teaching at NIS school.

> *This is my first year working here, so before this, I have 6 years of experience, I worked at a state school. So, I chose this school because it's a very highly equipped for the physics laboratory. For me as a teacher of Physics, it was really interesting to learn about how I can work with this equipment. Next, it was that high school students here learn by the Cambridge AS & A level of Physics. It was a challenge for me at first, I wanted to increase my English-speaking practice because here in 12th grade we have to teach all the materials at least 50% in English. And now throughout 6 months, I improved my English and I know the curriculum of 12th grade.* (Gulmira, Physics teacher)

Gulmira's desire to work at this school was related to the school being equipped with high quality laboratories for the Physics discipline. As she was not exposed to such facilities and equipment in her previous school, she was interested in learning about how to work with them. Another reason that she provided was the rigorous learning program and also the ability to improve her English language skills by practicing and teaching through this medium of instruction. Other teachers provided similar responses as Karagoz and Esengul as the teachers also mentioned their desires to work at one of the best schools and to teach intellectual and gifted students.

As for the teachers' language background, it was evident that all of the participants spoke Kazakh, Russian and English languages. Apart from these languages, two of the teachers shared that they spoke German language and one teacher mentioned the Turkish language. This shows that all of the teachers are multilingual speakers who consider themselves fluent in two or more languages. Interestingly, from the teachers' responses it became clear that even though they spoke the three languages presented in the trilingual policy, they still put these languages into a particular order. For instance, the following four teachers mentioned that:

> *I know three languages, I speak Kazakh, the second language is Russian and English. My native language is Kazakh. So, I speak in three languages.* (Fariza, Chemistry teacher)
>
> *My native language is Kazakh and Russian. I usually use it for communication, and language of instruction at school is English.* (Aigerim, English language teacher)
>
> *Firstly, native language Kazakh. I speak at home with my family in Kazakh only. I also know the Russian language. I read books and watch movies in Russian mainly. In my career, I use English for teaching my subject* (Jomart, Computer Science teacher)
>
> *My mother tongue is Kazakh of course. I also know Russian and English languages* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

In these excerpts, the teachers put Kazakh first and highlight that Kazakh is their "native language" or "mother tongue" and that Russian is their "second language". One of the

teachers Jomart even elaborated on a separate setting where he uses these languages and also highlighted that Kazakh is his mother tongue. Interestingly, in the next excerpt a Chemistry teacher Inkar puts Russian first and only then mentions Kazakh and English.

> *Currently, I speak Russian and Kazakh language and I know English in Upper-intermediate level, I think.* (Inkar, Chemistry teacher)

Chemistry teacher Inkar was the only teacher who mentioned Russian first whilst others put Kazakh first and stressed that it is their mother tongue. Learning about the teachers' language position was needed in order to understand their language choices in teaching. From the teachers' responses, it was evident that teachers consider themselves to be multilingual as they speak and know the three languages presented in the policy. Some of them even consider themselves as quadrilingual as they shared that they also speak German and Turkish. From these responses, it can be said that teachers are quite positive when it comes to languages, and they were eager to share about the languages that they know and speak.

From the literature review in Chapter 2, it is known that Kazakhstan's case is interesting, especially in terms of languages (Karabassova & San Isidro, 2020). As an independent country after derussification or rather desovietisation (Smagulova, 2008), it was interesting to note that almost all of the participants of the study not only spoke but named Kazakh as their mother tongue.

4.3.1 Theme 2: Trilingual Policy

This theme captures each of the participant's opinions on the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan. Specifically, the theme encapsulates their knowledge of the policy, their attitudes towards the trilingual education policy, how they view the policy as well as their comments on whether the policy brought any changes to their teaching practices.

4.3.2 Subtheme: Knowledge of the trilingual policy

All eleven participants expressed similar answers on their knowledge of the trilingual education policy. In some cases, the participants even shared interesting facts which have not been mentioned by others. Mainly, the participants shared what they know about the policy and the steps that are being taken in implementing this policy. While most of the participants presented a detailed explanation of what they knew about the policy, there were some participants who provided only short answers about their knowledge of the policy without providing any more details. For instance, one of the teachers shared that:

> *I know it comes from the Ministry of Education and this policy is present in our school.* (Han, Physics teacher)

Physics teacher Han provided only brief responses when it came to the questions on trilingual education policy. The teacher retained from providing more details and kept the answers quite short. Although the provided answers were correct, they were still provided in a rather short and generic form. The teacher did not elaborate much on how and in what form the policy is present in the school and did not provide any additional information on the policy knowledge.

The following excerpt by a Biology teacher Karagoz seems to provide a more detailed answer compared to the information stated by the Physics teacher. In this quote, Karagoz stated that:

> *I know that all mainstream and Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools are implementing this policy. I know that Russian medium groups take certain subjects in the Kazakh language. STEM subjects are being delivered in the English language. This policy gives our students an opportunity to freely speak in three languages.* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

In this excerpt, Karagoz talked about the changes that were brought about by the policy. In her statement, she touched upon the role of the languages in the policy and that she believes the policy is beneficial for the students.

Another teacher offered a similar explanation but at the same time explained the roles of the three languages in the policy. The teacher shared that:

> *I learned about this policy when I was teaching at the mainstream school in 2007. Our First President began this trilingual policy which meant that all citizens of the country need to know at least three languages. Because Kazakh is our state language and Russian is an official language and English is a global language. So, I know even in my previous school, I taught my subject in English.* (Jomart, Computer Science teacher)

In this excerpt, Jomart (Computer Science teacher) provided a thorough explanation of the roles behind the three languages in the policy. The teacher noted about how he learned about the policy and that he had an experience of teaching his discipline in English at the previous school.

Interestingly, the following excerpt provided by the English language teacher Dinara, highlights the fact that NIS schools are seen as role models for other mainstream schools, and this was the first time when the participant mentioned this. The excerpt states the following:

> *So trilingual educational policy has a great role in our education nowadays because most of schools are trying to implement this program. Our school Nazarbayev Intellectual School is a role model for other schools. Trilingual schools of course give more opportunities to students to get knowledge and to be able to work when they become adults.* (Dinara, English language teacher)

Although the teacher states that NIS is "*a role model*" for other schools, which was also reported by Karabassova (2020) and Shamshidinova et al. (2014), the teacher still did not talk about the schools' one of the main missions which mandates all NIS schools to translate their experiences to other mainstream schools (AEO NIS, 2019). Interestingly, this point was not mentioned by other teachers as well.

Out of all eleven teachers, one of the English language teachers Balnur provided an interesting response on her knowledge of the policy. The teacher did not only explain the policy, but also mentioned the progress of this policy. The teacher states the following:

> *Oh we had a course about trilingual education, it was implemented many years, it is one of the main goals of our country to enable people, to enable students, school students I guess yeah to start learning three languages speaking in three languages*

> *and not only speak but understand write and read in three languages; but unfortunately I think even there are some attempts, especially in our school there are nowadays many subjects are taught in English and there are specific subjects taught in Kazakh; but still its I think on the process, it is not bad, it is somewhere in the middle, not completed, I guess.* (Balnur, English language teacher)

In this excerpt, it is apparent that the English language teacher Balnur along with the provision of the information that she knows on the policy, also shared her opinion on the progression of the policy. The teacher states that the policy is "*somewhere in the middle not completed I guess*" which made her the only participant who touched upon the current state of the policy's progression. Interestingly, none of the teachers referred to any of the documents or decrees when talking about the policy. All of the teachers provided only general publicly known information on the policy and only one teacher brought up the current state of the policy.

4.3.3 Subtheme: Attitude towards trilingual policy

When it comes to the participant's attitudes towards the policy, it was evident that all eleven participants were positive in regard to the policy. The participants shared that the policy is needed and is a timely policy. Besides this, the participants mentioned that they support the policy and see many advantageous parts of it. None of the participants showed a negative attitude toward the policy and they confirmed this by stating that the policy is important and needs to be implemented. Among many reasons given in support of this policy, there were the following:

> *I agree with this program because when our students finish school they want to study in foreign countries. So, they need to know English. Who knows English or Russian as a second language it is very important for us and for our students, so I approve of this policy.* (Fariza, Chemistry teacher)

> *Yes, of course, I support this policy. Because as we all know the English language is a global language and our future generation will be able to learn this language at school. This will be helpful when they go to study at the university and when they start working.* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

> *I support this trilingual education policy because it helps our students* (Han, Physics teacher)

> *Because I think that knowing English will give our young generations so many opportunities in careers in their life* (Jomart, Computer Science teacher)

Evidently, this data builds on existing body of research that brings out the advantages sides of being trilingual at an academic (Duff, 2005; Wei, 2007), career (Kambatyrova, 2022) and personal (García & Wei, 2014) levels. From these excerpts, it is seen that the teachers are generally supportive of this policy and this finding resonates with the study conducted by Khaldarova and Abdisadyk (2021). It is seen that one of the reasons to support the policy is in future prospects and opportunities that become available for the graduates of trilingual schools, and this corresponds with the National Plan 100 Concrete Steps (2015). It can also be seen that Step 79 (National Plan 100 Concrete Steps 2015), makes it essential to learn the English language as it increases the student's competitiveness when they finish school. The knowledge of the three languages and especially the English language opens such possibilities as being able to undertake an undergraduate degree abroad. Teachers who mentioned the educational possibilities have also highlighted that the fluency in these languages will support the students in their careers. Similar attitudes toward the trilingual education policy can be seen in Kambatyrova's (2022) study which explored Kazakhstani parents' attitudes toward trilingual education policy. Kambatyrova (2022) reported that parents were supportive of the policy mainly due to the economic wellbeing associated with the knowledge of the three languages, particularly the knowledge of the English language. The parents believed that trilingual education would help and offer their children better job opportunities (Kambatyrova, 2022), and this point has also been mentioned by the in-service teachers of this study.

Apart from career related opportunities, Chemistry, Biology, and Physics teachers provided another reason in support of this policy by mentioning that:

> *My opinion as a Chemistry teacher, I think that learning in the English language has several advantages. First of all, more textbooks, materials, and worksheets we can find in this language. Second of all, our students want to enter high-rank universities in the world, and it will be good and help them and give them more opportunities.* (Inkar, Chemistry teacher)

> *I support this program. At the beginning of the program when they said that we will teach in English, I was really happy, because we know that all the materials, all the good materials, and new research all of them are in English. I really like the programs in English-speaking countries, so that is why I supported this policy from the beginning.* (Gulmira, Physics teacher)

In these excerpts, the teachers provide another reason in support of this policy which is in the English language itself. The teachers highlight the fact that the English language is seen as the language of knowledge and science as the latest research and discoveries are made and discussed using this language. In fact, the teachers share their positive attitudes toward the prospects of teaching their subjects in the English language due to the variety of resources and materials available in this language. Interestingly, the Physics teacher Gulmira highlights that "*all the good materials… are in English"* and then adds "*I really like the programs in English-speaking countries".* The Chemistry teacher Inkar too mentions university related opportunities and that the knowledge of the English language can help with this. These findings are similar to the discussed Hong Kong's model of "Biliterate and Trilingual" education policy. Parents welcomed the English language in the "Biliterate and Trilingual" policy as it allowed their children to get into the English medium of instruction universities in Hong Kong (Cheng, 2022). When Hong Kong's government wanted to focus and increase the use of the Chinese medium of instruction, the parents demanded to bring back the English medium of instruction instead (Cheng, 2022; Lau, 2020). The students need to have a sufficient level of the English language for further education as most Hong Kong universities follow the English medium of instruction (Cheng, 2022). The same reasons such as better job opportunities and attending English medium universities have also been mentioned by the participants of this study.

However, the next excerpt provides a different attitude toward the policy and its overall implementation:

> *The trilingual policy is a good policy, I guess I am not against it, but I think there should be certain fixed like teaching stuff in the courses, the teachers themselves should properly speak those three languages. I am not saying in a perfect way, but above then intermediate I guess, the Kazakh is fine, Russian sometimes there are*

> *also I think the problem is not only because of English language and there also those who speak Russian language. Kazakh speaking people they have problems with Russian too. So, I think there should be Russian and English on the same level and then Kazakh as the most important one. I guess the trilingual education policy's main goal should be Kazakh at the top and Russian and English as supplementing languages, then it is correct* (Balnur, English language teacher)

Although the excerpt does not carry a negative attitude towards the policy as the teacher states "*The trilingual policy is a good policy, I guess I am not against it",* the English language teacher Balnur still mentions the parts of the policy that require some improvement. Balnur believes that the teachers should have a good command of the three languages and the Kazakh language needs to be at the centre of the policy giving it an important role. This is a rather interesting finding, as none of the other participants mentioned the positioning of the three languages in the policy, and how the Kazakh language should be higher and Russian and English to be seen as supplementary. Balnur seems to have a thorough knowledge of the policy, as the main intention behind the introduction of the policy was to promote the use and uplift the status of the Kazakh language (Smagulova, 2008; Karabassova, 2018; 2020; 2021), and ultimately increase the number of Kazakh language speakers (SPESD, 2016). However, as the English language became the medium of instruction for science-based subjects the focus seemed to have shifted from Kazakh to English instead (Karabassova, 2020). This echoes Sarmurzin et al. (2023) who stated, "Is Kazakhstan's TEP indeed trilingual education?" (p. 2), and Karabassova (2020) who argued that "trilingualism has merely become a synonym of 'teaching in English', and the idea of teaching subjects using Kazakh L2 and Russian L2 was soon forgotten" (p. 1532). Indeed, from the rest of the teachers' responses, it can be seen that the trilingual education policy is diverting from its initial plans and turning into English as a medium of instruction (EMI) policy. Only one teacher out of eleven elaborated on the other two languages, which are Kazakh and Russian, whilst the rest of the teachers talked only about the role of the English medium of instruction in the policy. Almost all

teachers talked about the opportunities and benefits of the English language, but no mention of the Kazakh or Russian languages and their roles in the policy.

4.3.4 Subtheme: Impact of the trilingual policy

As for the impact of the trilingual education policy it was clear that in-service teachers have a divided opinion on this. It became clear that in-service teachers' opinion on the policy was split according to the discipline they teach. For instance, science subject teachers, who had to change their language of instruction to English in accordance with the requirements of the policy, felt that the policy had a substantial impact on them. English language teachers, on the other hand, were already teaching in English, and therefore reported little or no impact at all. If to start with the group of teachers who talked about the impacts of the policy, then they stated the following:

> *Yeah, because before I teach only in Kazakh, and at the beginning it was difficult to teach in English. But nowadays I am trying, and every time practice and it was very useful. And now I didn't feel difficult if you know the language very well, then there is no problem.* (Fariza, Chemistry teacher)

> *Yes, I had to improve my English level.* (Han, Physics teacher)

> *Of course, since I started to teach in the English language, I was able to improve the knowledge of this language. Before the policy, we used to translate many things, but now we can just use the original sources.* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

> *First of all, I changed my teaching language, of course. Without this policy, I never could get a 6.0 score in IELTS because there will not be any challenge for me to do this. I would just have a school level of English which is very low of course. I think since I came to this school my English really grew and became very high. This policy gave me chance to have this English level that I have now.* (Jomart, Computer Science teacher)

These science subject teachers' excerpts illustrate the fact that they share similar views on the impact of the policy. The teachers mention that the adopted policy requires them to teach their disciplines in the English language for which they had to improve their language levels. Most of the teachers stated that their English language level was quite low before the policy and that it gave them the incentive to improve and develop their English language skills.

Besides this, it is evident from these responses that the teachers are not necessarily "*acting against*" the policy that was imposed on them from top to bottom. The teachers are saying "*I had to improve my English level"* and "*This policy gave me chance to have this English level that I have now"* and "*I was able to improve the knowledge of this language".* The statements show as if the teachers were almost willing to learn and improve their knowledge of the English language to implement this policy. This finding is similar to the results reported in Karabassova's (2021) study, where she interviewed both mainstream and NIS school teachers. In her study, mainstream school teachers' statements showed their resistance to the policy and how they were struggling due to its implementation. For instance, the mainstream school teachers from Karabassova's (2021) study shared that they do not want to be forced to learn English and that if they wanted to continue their work at school they had to learn and join English language courses. Some of the mainstream school teachers expressed that they would leave their jobs. But when it came to NIS teachers Karabassova (2021) did not notice such kind of resistance from this group of teachers. She concluded that NIS teachers had more positive outlooks on the policy as they were "learning in context" meaning that the teachers had ongoing support, needed resources, and opportunities. Mainstream school teachers, on the other hand, did not have such kind of opportunities and seemed to be "left to their own devices" (Karabassova, 2021).
Clearly, from these quotes, it is evident that the mainstream school teachers in Karabassova's (2021) study were resistant to the policy and the above illustrated quotes from the teachers of this study did not reflect this level of resistance. This could be due to the fact that the teachers of this study were motivated by the desire to teach and work at this specific chain of schools since it offered a lot of opportunities. To remind the reader, the teachers mentioned that "*I think that it is an honour to teach such students who are intellectual… This school offers a lot of opportunities and that is why I chose this school"* (Karagoz, Biology teacher) and "*So actually this school is considered to be one of the best*

schools in our city" (Esengul, English language teacher). For this reason, it can be said that due to their desires to work at the school, it seems that the teachers did not resist the fact that they had to teach through the medium of the English language; and regardless of having limited competence in the language prior to the introduction of the policy.

The second group of teachers who shared that they have not been impacted by the policy were the English language teachers. These teachers stated the following:

> *My teaching practice? I think no because you know that I am teaching in English, so it means that anyway, I have to teach this subject in English.* (Dinara, English language teacher)

> *Not really, because the language of instruction is English, it has never changed but for students, I think there are benefits.* (Balnur, English language teacher)

From these excerpts, it is evident that these teachers relate the policy impact with science based subject teachers only, which was also seen in the *Attitude toward the trilingual policy* subtheme. However, what was unexpected was the fact that none of the English language teachers mentioned the other two languages in the policy and concentrated only on the impact of the policy on science subject teachers ,who now needed to teach their disciplines through the medium of the English language. Interestingly, it seems that English language teachers equate the trilingual education policy with science disciplines only, and not necessarily with their own subject. From the teachers' responses, it became clear that they are aware of the fact that the school and science subject teachers are implementing the policy, but when it comes to their involvement it seems to be very minimal. This finding was in fact opposite to the results found in a study conducted by Goodman and Abdimanapova (2020). Their study explored English as a Foreign Language teachers' views regarding the trilingual education policy. The participating teachers were from pilot and mainstream schools. The results of Goodman and Abdimanapova (2020) study showed that the teachers were "committed to their role as agents of implementation of trilingual education policy" (p. 91). Most importantly, Goodman and Abdimanapova (2020, p. 91) noted that:

> Teachers no longer have to focus on accurate reproductions of grammar, pronunciation, or translations according to the view of language as a fixed model; rather, they can focus on using language as a means of social communication.

This is absolutely in opposition to the statements shared by the English language teachers of this study. The above stated quotes and the following quotes, provided in the next sections, reflect the fact that the English language teachers did not seem to be majorly affected by the policy whereas the teachers from Goodman and Abdimanapova's (2020) study viewed the policy as an opportunity to "no longer have to focus on accurate reproductions of grammar, pronunciation, or translations according to the view of language as a fixed model" (p. 91). The differences in opinions could be justified by the fact that the teachers of this study teach at NIS school which is known for its tough selection process for teachers. Therefore, the English language teacher who starts the teaching job at this school is already expected to have a good command of English.

4.3.5 Subtheme: Training to implement the policy

The teachers provided different answers and seemed to have divided opinions in regard to the training aspect too. It was evident that science subject teachers provided more detailed information on training that they needed to take as part of implementing the policy whereas language subject teachers provided rather short and general replies. One of the English language teachers was even taken aback by the question on the training as illustrated in the following excerpt:

> *Let me think, I think no. No, no.* (Aigerim, English language teacher)

Similarly, the next English language teachers have also confirmed the lack of training available for them by stating that:

> *No special training.* (Dinara, English language teacher)

> *There are no special courses but, in my opinion, we can educate ourselves by attending our colleagues' lessons. We can read many literature resources and as I said everything is accessible on the Internet and we can get many electronic books from websites.* (Esengul, English language teacher)

In these three excerpts, the English language teachers replied that there are no training and special courses for them within the framework of policy implementation. One of the English language teachers Esengul mentioned that *they can educate themselves,* but no mention of any training that was organised by the school specifically for them. The next English language teacher Balnur stated the same and reported that there is no training available for English language teachers, but interestingly, instead English language teachers were the ones to provide training for the teachers of other disciplines. For instance, the teacher stated that:

> *Special training never for the trilingual policy for English teachers, but I guess I was part of it when I taught English to Russian and Kazakh-speaking teachers. We have in our school specific course for subject teachers, let's say maths and physics, those who should speak and teach their subject in English. So, we provide support for them, we provide and still providing some vocabulary terminology and they are attending and preparing for international exams like IELTS.* (Balnur, English language teacher)

These quotes provided by English language teachers highlight the fact that the teachers have not undergone any training in regard to the implementation of the trilingual education policy. But in fact, as one of the teachers mentioned, they are the ones to provide the training to other teachers who are required to teach through the medium of the English due to the requirements imposed by the policy. This was an interesting and unexpected finding and the same was mentioned by one of the science subject teachers:

> *We had English courses at school. They were delivered by the English language teachers. This was before the pandemic time. Now the courses have been suspended.* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

In terms of science subject teachers' responses to the training, it was revealed that all of the teachers, on the other hand, have taken and undergone some training to teach under the trilingual education policy. For instance, the teachers mentioned that:

> *I really love my school because first of all this school gave me an opportunity to work among strong teachers and gifted students. The second reason is that I have been to Singapore nine years ago. I have been to London four years ago. I saw another culture, lives. In Singapore, I had training about making projects with students. In London, I got three certificates of CLIL training. It was a really amazing experience.* (Jomart, Computer Science teacher)

> *In our school administration every time support us, they send us to Cambridge to study. They sent us to study short term CLIL courses. In 2018 in March, in this time, I was in London for a two-week special course in CLIL. We went through CLIL training. This CLIL training was delivered by Docetis International Training School. Teachers from different NIS schools took part in this CLIL training… After that, in 2019 we also studied blended teaching for 4 months at NIS School in Nur-Sultan. It was a very long course. I also received a CLIL trainer certificate. Now I am teaching in English.* (Fariza, Chemistry teacher)
>
> *The school organised some courses and I learned the English language in those courses. It was an online course organised by the school. Two years ago, I had a one-week CLIL course. It was in Nursultan, a special CLIL course.* (Han, Physics teacher)
>
> *In 2019-2020 I took CLIL training organised by the British Council. It was a three-month training on CLIL methodology. I learned a lot there on how to use the language in teaching the content.* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

From all of these excerpts, it is clear that all science subject teachers had the same type of training which was a CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) training which is one of the main trainings provided for the implementation of the trilingual education policy (NIS 2021; 2022). It was also evident that the teachers have undergone CLIL training in different places which were run by different organisations. For instance, while some of the teachers took CLIL training abroad where the training was delivered by international trainers; others took some local courses or workshops delivered by local trainers. The teachers did not address the selection process and it is still unclear how the school decides which discipline teachers take training abroad and which ones are exposed to locally based training. But what was clear is the fact that both international and local CLIL training has been organised by the school and that the school views CLIL training as an essential part of training for science subject teachers' implementation of the policy. This particular finding correlates with the results from Karabassova (2022, pp. 795-796) study which also highlighted the fact that:

> The participating teachers were offered different CLIL workshops with different durations and different formats: e.g., 3–5-day workshops conducted by international CLIL trainers, or 1-day workshops conducted by teacher-colleagues who attended international workshops.

Karabassova (2022) argued that “teachers were not aware of their role in developing their students’ language, and of the role of language in learning content” (p. 795) and that they had “low awareness of the theory, rationale, and pedagogical intentions behind CLIL” (p. 795). She concluded that this could be due to the fact that the teachers went through different kinds of CLIL workshops and thus she urged that such training need to be organised in a more systematic way (Karabassova, 2022). Similar arguments and statements have also been raised in a systematic literature review study on trilingual education policy conducted by Sarmirzin et al. (2023).

Besides the CLIL training, most of the in-service teachers also mentioned attending external or school-based English language learning courses. While school-based English language courses were organised by the school and required the teachers’ attendance, the external courses were the teachers’ own initiatives to improve their language levels and had to be organised by the teachers themselves. This means that the external courses were funded by the teachers themselves which can be considered as a significant outlay of funds as part of the implementation of the policy.

4.4.1 Theme 3: Language incorporation in teaching

This theme looks upon the issues related to the teachers’ attitudes toward translanguaging and its use as a pedagogical practice. However, due to the fact that none of the participants were acquainted with the practice of translanguaging, I needed to briefly clarify and explain to them this concept and paraphrase the term translanguaging with language incorporation. This was needed in order to make it easier for the teachers to understand my questions and avoid any misunderstandings. However, the teachers’ unfamiliarity with the concept of translanguaging and its naming can be said to be an indication of a lack of proper professional development and training in this field.

Thus, in this theme, I discuss the in-service teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging i.e., language incorporation and use in teaching, the cases when they feel the need to incorporate the languages as well as their language barriers in teaching through the medium of the English language. Besides capturing the mentioned, this theme also provides the teachers' attitudes toward content and language and whether they prioritise the content over the language aspect.

4.4.2 Subtheme: Attitude toward translanguaging

When it comes to the teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging practices in teaching it became clear that the teachers have divided opinions on this. From the analyses, it was seen that science subject teachers had a rather willing attitude toward translanguaging and did not seem to mind resorting to language incorporation practices in teaching. English language teachers, on the other hand, seemed to be resistant to language incorporations and their teaching practices mostly involved putting an English-only classroom environment over multilingual teaching. From both groups of teachers' responses, it became clear that for English language teachers English was both the content and language of instruction whereas for science subject teachers this aspect was slightly different. If to start with science subject teachers, then the following excerpts show their attitudes which state that:

> *I think that we should allow speaking in Kazakh or Russian. It is not so bad. It is not an English language course, it is Chemistry, so it is okay. So sometimes when they explain in Kazakh or Russian, I tell them to try to translate into English as they need to know how to use keywords in the English language correctly.* (Inkar, Chemistry teacher)

> *I am okay with speaking in different languages because we are allowed to teach them in two languages.* (Gulmira, Physics teacher)

From these two excerpts, it is clear that science subject teachers Inkar and Gulmira showed some openness toward translanguaging and language incorporation in teaching. The teachers shared that they are "*okay with speaking in different languages*" and that they resort to these languages "*because we are allowed to teach them in two languages*". Interestingly, the

Chemistry teacher Inkar stated the following "*I think that we should allow speaking in Kazakh or Russian. It is not so bad. It is not an English language course, it is Chemistry so it is okay",* implying that it is okay for *"their"* subject, and it sounds like the teacher would not think the same about English language classrooms. The teacher seems to differentiate the language used to teach the content subjects from the language in language-based disciplines. This is similar to Karabassova's (2022) finding who also reported that the teachers of the History and Geography disciplines differentiated between "the language to teach a content subject from the language which is taught in language classes" (p. 792). Both Inkar and Gulmira seem to convey the fact that science-based subjects are more inclined toward language incorporating practices especially given the content that they teach and the language of instruction being English. Another science subject teacher Fariza also showed willingness to resort to other languages and stated that:

> *Sometimes we use Kazakh, for example because students' levels are also different. Some students very quickly understand and for some students, it is very difficult to understand. So sometimes for difficult topics, we give first some materials in Kazakh and after that, we translate them into English.* (Fariza, Chemistry teacher)

According to the Chemistry teacher Fariza, she too resorts to the use of language incorporation and in her case as she mentioned that: "*Sometimes we use Kazakh… we give first some materials in Kazakh and after that, we translate them into English"*. The Chemistry teacher Fariza seems to be viewing these crosslinguistic activities as a way of scaffolding and supporting the students. Pinho Feller's (2022) study too reported content teachers' similar attitudes toward translanguaging and viewed it as a scaffolding tool by giving keywords, translations, and synonyms.

When it comes to English language teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging it became clear that the way they viewed such practices differed from above stated views of science subject teachers. In fact, in most cases, the English language teachers' attitudes were contradictory to the science subject teachers' willingness to incorporate translanguaging

practices into their teaching. To illustrate this, the following English language teachers' excerpts show that:

> *Firstly, at the beginning of the lesson we need to instruct the students that they need to use only English, and I usually say to my 7th-grade students no Russian, no Kazakh, only English. Have to repeat this but after some lessons, they will be ready to use only English.* (Aigerim, English language teacher)

> *We try to avoid using Kazakh or Russian. It is like 80% English and 20% is Kazakh or Russian. And at the beginning of the 7th grade, it can be possible to use Kazakh or Russian a lot. But in the middle grades or 11th and 12th grades, students are expected to speak in English.* (Esengul, English language teacher)

These excerpts show language subject teachers, specifically English language teachers attitudes toward translanguaging and their favouring of rather restricted language incorporation practices. The teachers use such words as "*No Russian, no Kazakh, only English*" and "*We try to avoid using Kazakh or Russian*" and these clearly show that they are not open nor willing to use other languages in teaching. What is more interesting is the fact that the teachers do not put these restrictions on themselves only, but also on their students. One of the teachers mentioned that they "*Have to repeat*" and remind the students to keep using only one language which is English. Another interesting fact is that one of the teachers mentioned that language incorporation does not apply to the English language discipline, but rather applies to other subjects. This does not only show the English language teachers' target language-only attitude towards teaching, but also seems to confirm one of the science subject teachers' previous comments. Similar to science subject teachers, the English language teachers too stated that incorporating different languages into teaching is not for their subject, but for "other subjects". The teachers clearly view the use of the English as an ideal practice, and this has also been reported by Karabassova and San Isidro (2020) who looked at school teachers' views of multilingual practices in CLIL scenarios. One of the English language teachers Dinara voiced a particularly strong opinion against the translanguaging practice by sharing that she sets up classroom rules and one of the first rules is to speak only in English. Dinara stated the following:

> *At the beginning of the year, we make a list of rules for our lessons. So, the first rule of course is to not speak in other languages except for English. And they try to follow of course the rules can sometimes be not followed so if they have trouble, if they do not understand how to say it in English, they can use it.* (Dinara, English language teacher)

In order to understand why such kind of "*rules"* were in place, Dinara was further asked whether the school administration favoured the use of other languages besides English in teaching. The following excerpt is Dinara's response to this:

> *Because they say that if in 40 minutes of English, they will use other languages it means that the lesson will not be so effective, so we have to use 40 minutes only for English.* (Dinara, English language teacher)

Dinara's statement shows that the school administration expects English language teachers to expose the students to as much English language as possible. The school administration's expectation of "maximum English exposure" or "English-only" may come from the common belief of seeing the target language teaching as an ideal practice and that students can learn the language only through maximum exposure. In other words, languages other than English are viewed as a hindrance that may disrupt the learning of the target language, which is English. From Dinara's statement it can be said that the teacher seems to be silently accepting the school administration's comments and acting in accordance with the maximum exposure to the English language. The introduction of classroom rules such as "*not speak in other languages except for English"* can be considered as teachers' action "as a response to their environment" (Jenkins, 2020, p. 168). What is clear from Dinara's statement is that the school administration, which is supposed to be a supporting system for teachers, seems to be attempting to influence, and in a way control, their teaching practices. In such cases teachers who are expected to enact teacher agency and influence the school curriculum may choose not to do so, or, as in Dinara's case, follow the rules imposed on them.

Karabassova and San Isidro (2020) reported similar results as their participants revealed that "school administrators expected them to only use the target language for instruction" (p. 565) and that in the cases of translanguaging the teachers "could even face disciplinary

action" (p. 565). In such cases, the teachers are left with no choice but to abide by the imposed English-only rules and close down spaces for multilingual teaching practices. The growing body of research in the field of translanguaging (Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Lewis et al., 2012) noted that it is essential for teachers to be free from the feelings of guilt, hesitation, and discomfort to be able to use translanguaging pedagogically and meaningfully. It is essential to note that school administration needs to give teachers more autonomy and should not impose any restrictions when it comes to teaching by incorporating other languages.

Interestingly, the school administration seems to be putting such English-only requirements on English language disciplines as the following excerpt opposes the statements illustrated above:

> *The school administration does not put any limitations for language use. But still, tell that it is better to expose students to English more.* (Han, Physics teacher)

From this it seems that the school administration separates the language use in accordance with the disciplines and gives science subject teachers more freedom and this could be due to the fact that the transition to EMI in science classrooms is taking a gradual transition form (Mehisto et al., 2022). But when it comes to English language classrooms, as illustrated by Dinara's excerpt, the administration expects them to follow the English-only teaching and expose the students to the target language, whereas the science subject teachers do not have "*any limitations for language use*". The school administration seems to be using the English language disciplines as a platform for the students to get accustomed to EMI which in turn prepares them for the English instruction in science subjects.

4.4.3 Subtheme: The need for translanguaging

As for the need for translanguaging and language incorporation, the teachers shared different kinds of scenarios and cases when they decided to open up spaces for such language

incorporation practices when teaching. If to start with science subject teachers, one of the situations that cause the need for them to resort to translanguaging practices is wherever they teach something complex. For example, the science subject teachers stated that:

> *At the moment in 12th-grade students are learning Chemistry; the unit which is more close to Biology. I can describe to students the structure of the protein, but I can't describe to them how DNA synthesises. It's difficult for me and I explain in the native language* (Chingiz, Chemistry teacher)

> *I think Physics is a difficult subject and learning it in English is even harder. So, if the students have any difficulties I try to explain in Kazakh and Russian for them. I give key terms in three languages. For example, if the students prefer Kazakh then I explain in Kazakh. And the same with Russian. But students also help each other. They translate together and help each other. The content is in English, but when help is needed, I switch to Kazakh and Russian* (Han, a Physics Teacher)

Clearly, from Chemistry teacher Chingiz and Physics teacher Han's excerpts it can be said that teachers resort to translanguaging practices whenever they encounter any difficulties with the content that they teach. As teachers themselves mention "*it's difficult for me and I explain in the native language"* and "*I think Physics is a difficult subject and learning it in English is even harder*". In Chemistry teacher Chingiz's case, the difficulty arises when teaching interdisciplinary topics that are connected to other subjects. Chemistry teacher Chingiz's words confirm the fact that the school program undertakes a spiral development that allows the students to make connections between the disciplines (Goodman & Abdimanapova, 2020). As the teacher may not be familiar with the subject knowledge of a particular topic, especially in the English language, the teacher decides to resort to translanguaging practices in such cases. Therefore, it seems that the teacher utilises the use of the native language as a scaffolding tool to make meaning not only for the students, but also for himself. The finding is similar to Karabassova and San Isidro (2020) who also argued that translanguaging can be perceived as a scaffolding tool for comprehension and meaning-making purposes. In Physics teacher Han's case, the teacher thinks that Physics is already a difficult subject and thus there is a constant need to incorporate both Kazakh and Russian in teaching practice. The teacher shared that he gives key terms in three languages,

tries to explain in Kazakh and Russian, and allows the students to translate together and help each other. Evidently, as in Chingiz's case, Han too uses translanguaging as a scaffolding tool. But besides that, he also resorts to translanguaging for peer scaffolding by allowing students to "*translate together and help each other"*. This is similar to Pun and Tai's (2021) and Tai and Li Wei's (2021b) studies which reported that teachers in science classrooms resort to translanguaging for peer scaffolding purposes. In their studies, peer scaffolding generated by translanguaging practice resulted in better meaning-making, and cooperative learning in lab work and also created an enjoyable learning environment for the students. Interestingly, similar to science subject teachers, English language teachers too experienced the need for translanguaging practices whenever they encountered difficulties in explaining a particular subject-related topic. To illustrate these, the following English language teachers' excerpts, show that:

> *Sometimes grammar can be difficult as there are no similar structures in Kazakh and Russian, and in these situations, we can use Kazakh for explaining these structures and giving some examples. Also, we can check if the student understood this grammar by asking them questions in Kazakh and Russian. Also asking them to give some sentences in Kazakh like examples (*Esengul, English language teacher)

> *During teaching, especially very difficult topics like articles, we can use their native language for clarification of some moments but mostly we need not.* (Aigerim, an English language teacher)

Although in the previous subtheme, the English language teachers expressed rather unwilling attitudes toward language incorporations, two of the teachers still were able to describe scenarios when they felt the need to resort to language incorporation practices. Similar to science subject teachers, English language teachers too named teaching complex topics as one of the main reasons as to why they use languages other than English. According to Esengul and Aigerim, the need for translanguaging practices arises when teaching grammatical points as well as articles. Esengul mentioned that she resorts to the usage of Kazakh and Russian languages in the cases of explaining grammar. The teacher justifies this by stating that "*there are no similar structures in Kazakh and Russian*" in

grammar so in these cases the teacher feels the need to use translanguaging practices, a finding similar to Yasar Yuzlu and Dikilitas (2022). Aigerim also stated that when teaching such difficult topics as articles there is a need to use the students' native languages. This is because the concept of articles is not present in both Kazakh and Russian and thus it becomes difficult for the students to understand the topic if it is explained fully in the English language.

Besides the above stated need for translanguaging due to teaching difficult topics, there were some teachers who reported that this need arises mostly spontaneously. The following excerpts illustrate this where the teachers stated the following:

> *In most cases, it happens spontaneously. But sometimes I have some idea in my brain that in this case, I need to explain in the Kazakh language as it will be a bit easier to understand for students* (Inkar, Chemistry teacher)

> *There can be spontaneous tasks like give example or connect your example with real life. When giving the examples the students tend to speak in Kazakh or Russian* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

Both science subject teachers mention "*In most cases, it happens spontaneously"* and "*there can be spontaneous tasks*" which show that they do not pre-plan translanguaging practices and it rather occurs due to some certain circumstances. If in Inkar's case, the teacher shared that she uses spontaneous translanguaging unsystematically and whenever the situation calls for it, then in Karagoz's case spontaneous translanguaging is used purposefully. Karagoz noted that she resorts to the use of spontaneous translanguaging in the cases when she wants the students to make links and provide examples from real life. This way she purposefully targets the students' prior knowledge (Uddling & Reath Warren, 2023) and brings the students' linguistic repertoires into the classroom spaces.

Interestingly, one of the English language teachers' need for translanguaging seems to be spontaneous too, but the purpose differs from the above stated teachers' statements. The English language teacher claimed that:

> *Yeah, I tried to use more English because I felt like yes, I am using more Russian with them. I tried to, sometimes I forget, because they are so noisy in the class, and*

> *when I shouted at them, not shout but like a remark, I use Russian.* (Balnur, English language teacher)

The English language teacher Balnur's excerpt shows an interesting example of when the teacher feels the need to incorporate languages other than English. In this excerpt, the teacher mentioned that the use of the Russian language has a better impact on the students in drawing their attention and giving remarks. Interestingly, it seems that the teacher is implying that the English language does not possess the same effect on students, and for this reason, the teacher has to switch to Russian in order to get the students' attention. When asked why the teacher uses Russian and not Kazakh the teacher responded that she teaches Russian medium classes, so Russian in this case is considered to be the students' first language. This finding is similar to Karabassova and San Isidro's (2020) and Tarnopolsky and Goodman's (2014) studies which also reported that teachers prefer to use students' L1 for giving instructions or drawing the students' attention.

4.4.4 Subtheme: Language barrier

In this subtheme, all of the science subject teachers reported that they experience language barriers when it comes to teaching through the medium of the English language. The teachers talked about their struggles with the English language and shared the ways in which they are approaching the learning of the language and teaching through it. It seems that the teachers are viewing the Kazakh and Russian languages as their coping mechanisms as they struggle with teaching through the English language. For instance, the teachers shared that:

> *Yes, of course it is difficult. It is not my mother tongue. It is a language that came from outside and I am still learning this language. All the time I experience discomfort when using this language. There is still this barrier when teaching in English. But with the help of lesson preparation, I am slowly trying to get rid of the barrier. Of course, it is a big stress for the teacher to teach in a third language especially if he or she is not fluent in it. I started to learn this language only after coming to work at NIS school. As of now I am still learning and improving my knowledge of this language. I used to go to courses but as a teacher, I am very busy, and physically I cannot manage to attend the courses. Here we work from 8:30 to 5:30 every day. I improve the English language myself by preparing for the lessons and watching the videos.* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

By stating "*It is not my mother tongue. It is a language that came from outside*" Biology teacher Karagoz refers to the trilingual education which was imposed on teachers as a result of a top-down policy. In this excerpt, Karagoz does not only mention her struggles with teaching through the medium of English, but also touches upon her tight schedule which allows little room for attending English language courses. The teacher has to improve the level of the English language independently by preparing for the lessons and watching some videos. The teacher shared that she has a language barrier when teaching in English as she started learning this language "*only after coming to work at NIS school*". Karagoz stated that "*All the time I experience discomfort when using this language*" and she further reiterated that because of this discomfort, she has to switch to Kazakh or Russian when teaching her discipline.

In the following excerpts other science subject teachers also shared about their language barriers by stating that:

> *For me, it is not easy. In the beginning, it was difficult for me because I was also learning English and I don't think I speak very well in English. That's why it was difficult to teach completely in English… because students' levels are also different. Some students very quickly understand and for some students, it is very difficult to understand. So sometimes for difficult topics, we give first some materials in Kazakh and after that, we translate them into English* (Fariza, Chemistry teacher)
>
> *It's difficult for me and I explain in the native language* (Chingiz, a Chemistry teacher)
>
> *I have some difficulties in teaching because English is not my mother tongue. If I have language barriers, I switch to other languages which are Kazakh and Russian.* (Han, Physics teacher)

These teachers too express their struggles when it comes to teaching through the medium of the English language. One of the teachers mentioned that it is difficult, but the knowledge of the content makes it less difficult while the other teacher said that he resorts to the other two languages which are Kazakh and Russian in times when he experiences a language barrier due to the English medium of instruction. Similar statements of teachers resorting to other languages due to the language barrier have also been reported in other trilingual contexts

(Chang, 2019; Hu & Lei, 2014; Zhang, 2018). From these teachers' statements, it seems like translanguaging, and language incorporation is an inevitable practice for them given their levels of English language proficiencies. In fact, it seems like they view these translanguaging practices as some sort of coping mechanism and a coping strategy as they cannot fully deliver their lessons through the medium of the English language. This echoes Sah and Kubota's (2022) study, which noted that teachers undertaking an English language of instruction and whose first language is not English, view translanguaging as a coping strategy when teaching. Sah and Kubota (2022) provide an example of a Mathematics teacher in Nepal who kept translanguaging throughout the lesson when explaining mathematics formulas. Thus, in such cases when either the teacher's or the students' language proficiency is not good enough, the teachers tend to prefer to incorporate the languages in order to compensate for the inability to follow the stipulated language of instruction.

Besides the language barrier aspect, it also became clear that all of the science subject teachers did not have a good command of English prior to the implementation of the policy. Most of the teachers shared that they had to learn English either after coming to work at the school or due to the trilingual education policy. In other words, the teachers had no prior or very limited exposure to the English language and thus still felt the language barrier even at the stage of implementing the policy. In another multilingual context, Maltese school teachers reported about their language barriers too (Panzavecchia & Little, 2020) which seems to be a common aspect shared among teachers from trilingual and multilingual schools.

4.4.5 Subtheme: Content over language

In this subtheme, almost all teachers mentioned that they prioritise the content aspect more than the language one. Even though previously it has been mentioned that all science subject

teachers went through several CLIL training, it seems that the teachers do not possess an appropriate knowledge of CLIL methodology and how to use it in practice. The teachers also showed their lack of understanding when it comes to undertaking a balanced content and language integration in teaching and seemed to view content as more important than the language. The following excerpts illustrate these points where the teachers stated the following:

> *For example, some students can be good in English, but their comprehension of Chemistry will be different, and they may not be so good at Chemistry. That's why, when I assess I try to base my assessment on content.* (Inkar, Chemistry teacher)

> *I have students whose language level is not so high, so if they can't explain to me for example, the definitions, but the problems are solved clearly or correctly, in that case, I give them good marks. So, it depends on the problem and the answers of the students.* (Gulmira, Physics teacher)

> *Physics subject is a science subject and when we solve problems the students need content, not language.* (Han, Physics teacher)

From these excerpts, it is evident that science subject teachers prioritise content over language because they believe that for their disciplines content is the most important aspect in teaching. Although it is understandable that science subjects are mostly content-driven and thus it may be difficult to achieve the needed balance between the language and the content; it can be said that the teachers amid attending CLIL courses seem to have little awareness of the main intentions of the CLIL approach. As CLIL merges and integrates both language and content into a curriculum (Rafi & Morgan, 2023), the teachers seem to be missing the main point of this approach. Similar results have also been noticed by Villabona and Cenoz (2021) who argued that it is difficult for teachers to achieve content and language balance as some disciplines are likely to be "content-oriented without enough attention given to language, while others are language-oriented without enough attention paid to content" (p. 36). From this, it is evident that science subject teachers are more content-oriented and do not give enough attention to the language aspect. This seems to be contrary to the statements mentioned in the previous subtheme where the teachers owing to their competencies in the

English language shared that they resort to the other two languages. But when it comes to students, the teachers still seem to be prioritising the knowledge of the content more and base their assessments on content too.

Similar to the science subject teachers, one of the English language teachers, Balnur, also believes that content is more important than language, regardless of teaching language-driven discipline. The teacher stated the following:

> *Content is more important because the language, the linguistic aspect, it can be all time improved. But if the idea of the content is irrelevant, if they are not solid arguments related to the written idea, then no rather than yes. But if there are some grammatical issues, omissions, or stylistic mistakes, I know that it can be improved, it is doable it can be fixed, it is not a problem. So, all the time focus on the content mostly, but there are certain criteria that cover the linguistic aspect, and the content aspect and we all consider them. But personally, I mostly focus on the content.* (Balnur, English language teacher)

Balnur was the only English language teacher to note this, as the rest of the English language teachers responded that they prioritise language aspect more than the content. This shows that almost all English language teachers fall under the "language-oriented" category, whilst most of the science subject teachers are in the "content-oriented" category. However, there were two science subject teachers who mentioned that, even though the content is important, they still try to keep the balance between the two. The teachers stated that:

> *For me, content is more important. But since students learn the subject in the third language which is English, I think in that case the language is important too. As it is important to deliver the content so that the students understand it. I try to keep a balance between the content and the language* (Karagoz, Biology teacher)

> *For me, the priority is that my students understand me. We have to think of students first. If you keep speaking in English because you were told to, and students keep not understanding the topic. What is the point of that? I use English, Kazakh, and Russian in teaching the content so that my students understand better* (Fariza, a Chemistry Teacher)

These two teacher's viewpoints were rather different compared to other science subject teachers' opinions. A Biology teacher Karagoz mentions that she tries to keep "*a balance between the content and language"* and thinks that both content and language aspects are

important. And this corresponds to the pedagogical intentions of the CLIL approach (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2002). Another teacher Fariza provided a rather interesting statement where she challenged the English only instruction by stating "*What is the point of that?*". Fariza stated that she uses English, Kazakh, and Russian in her teaching as she believes that this way her students would understand her better. Clearly, in Fariza's case, the teacher uses the three languages as tools in order to enhance the students' understanding of the content. Unlike the above stated quotes from science subject teachers, the two teachers and Fariza, in particular, do not put the content aspect above the language but rather utilise the students' knowledge of the languages to target the content. In this sense, the languages in the content-based subject play the role of supporting tools that help the teachers to develop and co-construct the meaning, and similar arguments have been noted in studies conducted by Lin and He (2017), Nikula and Moore (2019) and Pun and Tai (2021). Pinho Feller's (2022) study confirmed this too as the science teachers utilised translanguaging in English and Portuguese and this way they "modelled language and taught content at the same time" (p.320). Pinho Feller (2022) concluded that teachers who incorporate translanguaging practices in teaching content-based subjects not only show that they value their students' language repertoires, but also place the students' meaning-making at the core of their instruction. This is echoed in this study too, as a Chemistry teacher Fariza perfectly noted "*If you keep speaking in English because you were told to, and students keep not understanding the topic. What is the point of that?*".

4.4.6 Section summary

This section provided the results from the conducted semi-interviews with eleven in-service teachers. The collected data were presented by themes together with relevant excerpts, examples, and relevant key literature. These excerpts and examples allowed me to present the key results on the in-service teachers' attitudes toward the trilingual education policy and

language incorporations for teaching practices. The results revealed the differences in opinion and practices between English language teachers and science subject teachers. The teachers' language choices and their attitudes towards it were reflected in the explanations they provided on their teaching practices.

The section consisted of three main themes and their subthemes. The first theme reported on each of the participants' backgrounds such as their positions, work experiences, language proficiencies, and the reasons for choosing this specific school for work purposes. From this theme it became clear that the participants had different working experiences, some of them spoke more than three languages and the reasons for coming to work at this specific school were different too. While the school's status and the opportunity to teach bright students were the main reasons, for others it was either the school's provision of equipment and the laboratory or the possibility to improve their teaching strategies.

The second theme reported on the teachers' knowledge of the policy, their attitudes toward the policy, the impact of the policy, and whether they were trained to implement the policy. When it comes to the teachers' knowledge of the policy it became evident that almost all of them presented generally known information on the policy. Only one of the teachers provided detailed information and also touched upon the current state of the policy. As for the teachers' attitudes toward the policy, it was also evident that teachers mostly had positive attitudes toward it and supported the policy. The teachers mentioned that the policy is advantageous for their students' and their future careers and stated that the knowledge of the English language is important in today's realia. However, as with the knowledge of the policy subtheme, in this subtheme too only one participant questioned the hierarchy of the languages presented in the policy, and argued that Kazakh should be at the top of the policy whereas Russian and English be seen as supplementary. The rest of the teachers only concentrated on the English language and its role in the policy and did not mention the roles or functions of the Kazakh and Russian languages in the policy. Concerning the impact of

the policy, the teachers seemed to divide into two groups where one group claimed that they had been affected by the policy whereas the second group did not really feel a difference from the policy. Only science subject teachers reported about the effect of the policy on their teaching practices and English language teachers could not seem to think of any impact and even equated the policy with science subject teachers' disciplines. In relation to the training to implement the policy too the teachers provided varied responses. It was revealed that science subject teachers undertook various training which were both international and local types of training. The most mentioned training among all science subject teachers was the training on Content and Language Integrated Learning. English language teachers, on the other hand, shared that they have not been exposed to any kind of training in relation to trilingual education policy. One of the English language teachers mentioned that there is no training for them but in fact, they were the ones to provide language support for science subject teachers by delivering English language courses targeted to improve science subject teachers' levels of the English language. These courses were conducted on the school grounds and the English language teachers had to prepare them and deliver the lessons out of teaching hours. Interestingly, only one of the English language teachers brought this up whilst other English language teachers did not mention it.

The third theme reported on the teachers' attitudes toward the concept of translanguaging, whether they feel the need for translanguaging, their language barriers, and their attitude toward keeping the balance between the content and language. In terms of the translanguaging concept, it was evident that teachers of English language discipline were reluctant to resort to it and preferred to adhere to keeping English as the sole medium of instruction. The cases when the English language teachers opened up for language incorporations were limited to teaching complex grammatical points and establishing rapport with the students. One of the English language teachers shared that the school administration expects them to expose the students to as much English language as possible. This could be

due to the fact that English language lessons last for 40 minutes as reported by the teacher herself. However, it still seems like the “maximum English exposure” or “English-only” is welcomed when it comes to teaching English language lessons and other languages seem to be still viewed as a hindrance. However, this was not the case when it came to the science subject teachers. One of the teachers shared that the school administration does not put any limitations on them in terms of language use and that they can use languages other than English in teaching.

Moreover, science subject teachers, on the other hand, were more willing to resort to translanguaging. As was reported by the science subject teachers, they feel the need for translanguaging due to the language barrier they experience when teaching through the medium of the English language. Science subject teachers noted that the English language is not their mother tongue and that it is the language that came from outside. Some of the other science teachers shared that they feel discomfort all the time when teaching in English. Thus, it seems that science subject teachers feel like they have no choice but to resort to translanguaging practices and see it as some sort of coping mechanism. And lastly, in relation to keeping the balance between the content and language aspects, it became clear that most of the teachers prioritised one aspect over the other by taking either a “language-oriented” or “content-oriented” approach. Only two of the science subject teachers expressed their willingness to undertake balanced content and language teaching. According to them, they prioritise their students’ understanding of the content and therefore they integrate the usage of the languages to achieve this. Another teacher even challenged the monolingual English-only teaching and stated, *"What is the point of that?”*. While this section provided the excerpts from the semi-structured interviews with the teachers and reported the results that mostly correspond to the scaffolding function of translanguaging, the next section dives deeper into the teachers’ views of translanguaging by reporting the results from lesson observations.

4.5 The results from lesson observations

In this section I present the results that are derived from lesson observations and discuss them through the adopted theoretical framework and relevant key literature. This is needed in order to establish any common links and discrepancies between both the results and the existing literature. In order to begin the discussion of the lesson observation results it is necessary to include the following Table 19 on the used theoretical framework that guided this work by making specific references to each of the three functions of pedagogical translanguaging.

Table 19

1. Symbolic function	Acknowledging the students' languages	Not required
2. Scaffolding function	Acknowledging the students' languages and making temporary and systematic uses of the students' languages	Not required
3. Epistemological function	Acknowledging the students' languages and systematically putting them into use in order to develop content and language learning	The proficiency in languages is needed

Table 19: Duarte's (2020) three functions of translanguaging

Subsidiary questions:

3. What strategies do teachers employ to incorporate pedagogical translanguaging into their teaching practices?

The Figure 4 below shows the two main themes and their subthemes that derived from the lesson observation analyses:

Figure 4. Theme Map

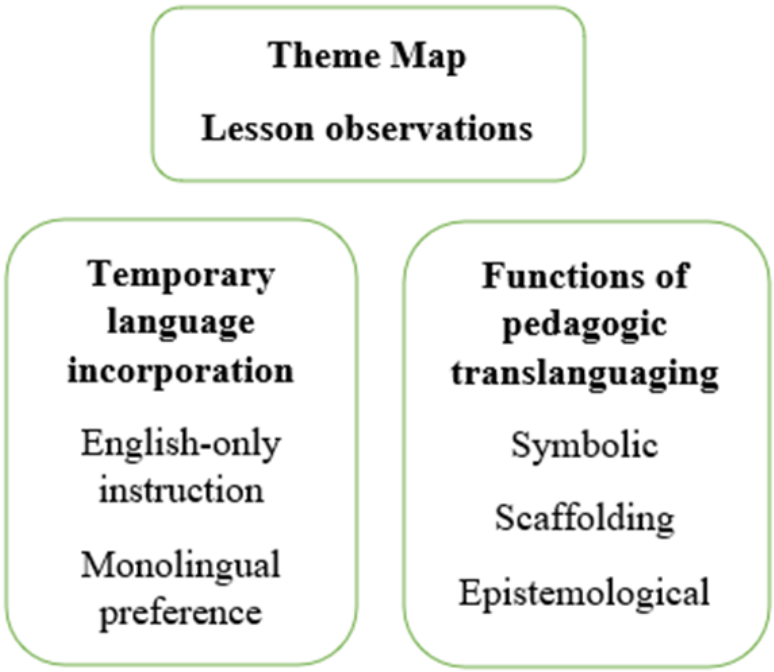


Figure 4. Lesson Observations Theme Map

4.5.1 Theme 1: Temporary language incorporation

This theme encompasses matters regarding to the use of languages in teaching practice. Specifically, the theme has identified two sub-themes namely English-only instruction and Monolingual preference. They focus on the teachers' language preferences and how their preferences impact their pedagogical practices in the classroom. In most cases, the teachers' views and attitudes which were discussed previously were reflected in their teaching practices. However, in some cases, the teachers' responses from their previous semi-structured interviews did not match and were in fact contradictory to their teaching practices. First, the discussion of the lesson observation results begins with the following English-only instruction subtheme.

4.5.2 Subtheme: English-only instruction

From all observed lessons the English-only instruction was favoured by all English language teachers while it was less practised among science subject teachers. In most of the English

language lessons, the English-only instruction was present throughout the whole lesson while in others there were still some presence of languages other than English. For instance, in the following English language lesson delivered by Esengul, the lesson that looked at Environmental issues in Kazakhstan was fully in the English medium of instruction:

> *The teacher greeted the students and introduced the lesson objectives in English. The teacher showed a PowerPoint presentation and asked, "What do you see in the picture?". The students provided the replies in English. The teacher asked: What do you call the first picture? The students gave replies in English again. The teacher asked: How would you define the theme of today's lesson? The students gave various responses in English. The teacher says yes, you are right. The lesson theme was called Focus on Kazakhstan: environmental issues. The teacher then showed the assessment criteria and proceeded to explain the topic and gave explanations in English only. Throughout the whole lesson, the teacher adhered to English language of instruction and in the cases when the students asked questions in Kazakh and Russian, the teacher did not restrict them and allowed them to formulate their questions in these languages. However, when responding to the students' questions asked in Kazakh and Russian, the teacher still adhered to the English medium of instruction* (Esengul, English language teacher's lesson, Environmental issues in Kazakhstan topic)

Throughout the whole lesson, the English language teacher Esengul followed the English-only instruction and the students tried to adhere to this too. The teacher's lesson did not involve or list any key terms in Kazakh and Russian languages. This was unexpected, especially given the fact the topic of the lesson was Focus on Kazakhstan: environmental issues. Considering the topic of the lesson the key terms in the Kazakh language were not used in discussion parts. In the rare cases when the students asked questions in Kazakh or Russian, the teacher gave replies in the English language only. The teacher did not ask the students to translate their questions into English and accepted the questions formulated in other languages, but still provided the replies in English. A similar practice was also seen in English language teacher Dinara's lesson. In Dinara's lesson whenever the students had conversations with each other in Kazakh and Russian, the teacher did not interrupt and permitted the students to speak in these languages to each other. However, when eliciting the responses from them the teacher still preferred the English-only response. If to go back to both Dinara's and Esengul's replies during the pre-lesson observation interviews, it becomes

apparent that the teachers' replies seem to correspond to their teaching practices in the classroom. When asked about the use of translanguaging practices in teaching both of these teachers replied, "*In my lesson no"* (Dinara, English language teacher) and "*We try to avoid using Kazakh or Russian. It is like 80% English and 20% is Kazakh or Russian…*" (Esengul, English language teacher). However, when Esengul was asked why 20% of Kazakh or Russian was not incorporated into the lesson, the teacher replied that the observed lesson did not involve teaching complex grammar points and students did not struggle with understanding. This reply seems to show that the teacher views translanguaging practices as a last resort which correlates with Akhmetova's (2021) findings. In her study, Akhmetova (2021) also noted that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers resort to translanguaging as a last resort and try to avoid it unless a situation pushes the teacher to open up a space for language incorporation in order for the students to understand the material better. In the case of Esengul's observed lesson, the teacher did not see a need for translanguaging as the students were following the lessons and the topic did not involve any new grammatical points. From this, it can be said that the teacher views translanguaging as a last resort and not necessarily as an integral part of teaching and learning practice. Thus, from both Esengul's and Dinara's observed lessons, it can be said that the teachers' practices in the classroom did not correspond to any of the three functions of pedagogical translanguaging.

4.5.3 Subtheme: Monolingual preference

Besides English only practice it was also evident that another two of the English language teachers preferred monolingualism to multilingual practices. In some rare cases even problematicised the use of languages other than the English language (Saraceni, 2019). If in the previous English-only subtheme, the teachers who delivered the lessons in English-only instruction allowed their students to ask questions in Kazakh and Russian languages; then in

this subtheme, the teachers not only delivered their lessons in English only but also ignored and in some cases even tried to prevent the presence of other languages in the lesson. For instance, in the following English language lesson conducted by Balnur, the teacher prioritised monolingualism and expected the same from her students:

> *In a game "find who" the students needed to choose one card and then walk around the classroom to find one person who likes something written on the card. To explain the rules the teacher chose one card and showed the word on the card which was a sweet tooth. The teacher asked what sweet tooth was and a student answered məmmi mic in Kazakh [literally translates as: "sweet tooth", but not the idiom used in Kazakh]. The teacher said let's speak in English and said this is the person who likes to eat sugar. The teacher then explained the rules by saying: Who has a sweet tooth in the classroom? You need to find this person. Students chose their cards and started to look for the person who likes/does something written on the card. Students came up to each other and asked questions from the card. But when the teacher was not paying attention, they started talking in Russian and Kazakh to each other. The teacher noticed this, cleared her throat, and repeated to the students to speak in English only. Students started to speak in English, but still kept switching to Russian or Kazakh when the teacher was not paying attention* (Balnur, English language teacher's lesson, Healthy habit topic)

This excerpt from Balnur's observed lesson highlights two interesting points. Firstly, as illustrated in the excerpt the teacher asked what a sweet tooth was to which the student answered "*məmmi mic"* in Kazakh. The student provided a literal translation of sweet tooth, but not its idiomatic expression. The teacher did not correct the student, but rather made a remark to speak in English and provided the answer herself by saying "*This is the person who likes to eat sugar*". This point in the lesson created a moment for "linguistic creativity" where the teacher could ask the student to think about the idiom for sweet tooth in Kazakh and Russian. Clearly, the teacher decided to negate the translanguaging practice and its possible opportunity to create a playful talk (Tai & Li Wei, 2021a) and creativity (Little & Little, 2021). Instead, the teacher reminded the students to speak in English and the correct idiom for the sweet tooth in Kazakh which is тәттіқұмар ("sweet addiction") was not clarified and explained.

Secondly, it was evident that the teacher repeatedly asked the students not to use other languages and to adhere to the English language, but the students still kept talking to each

other in Kazakh and Russian when the teacher was not paying attention. Regardless of the teacher's numerous attempts to prevent the presence of other languages, the students still preferred to incorporate Kazakh and Russian languages in pair and group work. It seems that the teacher wanted to portray a pure English language lesson where the students had a perfect command of English to carry out different tasks and activities. However, by doing so the teacher showed her attitude towards incorporating other languages and left no choice for the students, but to speak quietly to each other whenever they switched between the languages. Similar observations were noted in Aigerim's English language lesson too where the teacher corrected the students' responses whenever they switched between the languages. Aigerim's reaction to students' usage of other languages was followed by "in English please" which acted as a signal to students to adhere to one language only which was English.

Further to Balnur's lesson, what was unexpected though, was the fact that Balnur who was trying to prevent her students from utilising other languages throughout the lesson, suddenly codeswitched herself to grab the students' attention. The excerpt below illustrates this where the teacher decided to codeswitch:

> *Students started to become a bit loud, and the teacher gave remarks in Kazakh. The teacher said "тыныш" in Kazakh and then proceeded to explain the task in English.* (Balnur, English language teacher's lesson, Healthy Habit topic)

In this example, the teacher codeswitched to the Kazakh language and said *тыныш* which translates from Kazakh as *quiet*. In addition to this, Balnur also used such words as *қайтала (repeat)* and *продолжай (continue)* in Kazakh and Russian throughout the lesson. When teacher Balnur was asked on this point as to why she decided to codeswitch, she responded that switching to the students' languages helps when grabbing their attention or when giving them remarks. She reasoned this by stating that it always works and that the students immediately react to this. This was an interesting finding, as in this example, it became evident that the teacher restricts the students' use of other languages and at the same time

decides to resort to the use of those languages herself in order to grab their attention. This example resonates with Tarnopolsky and Goodman's (2014) study, which looked at university lecturers' language choices in English as a medium of instruction (EMI) classes. Their study reported that the lecturers tend to resort to the students' languages in order to discipline them, to grab their attention, and to establish rapport with them. Other studies too confirmed the teachers' usage of the native language (L1) for classroom management purposes (Haifa, 2010; Kim & Petraki, 2009; Macaro, 2005).

If to look at both Aigerim and Balnur's responses in pre-lesson observation interviews, it can be said that both of the teachers' provided responses that corresponded with their teaching practices observed during lesson observations. While Aigerim's response "... *I usually say to my 7th-grade students no Russian, no Kazakh, only English"* was seen from her monolingual teaching and instruction, and Balnur's response, "... *because they are so noisy in the class and when I shouted at them not shout but like a remark, I use Russian*" was exactly as she described when she codeswitched to Kazakh and Russian for the purposes of calming the students down.

From this and previous subthemes, it became clear that all of the English language teachers' provided answers to the questions regarding the translanguaging practices were reflected in their teaching practices and thus can be said that their views corresponded to the ways in which they taught during the observations. The teachers did not illustrate the instances of pedagogical translanguaging practices and tried to follow English-only teaching and learning while expecting the same from their students as well. Thus, both Aigerim's and Balnur's teaching practices depicted in the observed lessons did not correspond to any of the three functions of pedagogical translanguaging.

4.6.1 Theme 2: Functions of pedagogical translanguaging

This theme captures the three identified subthemes which are called symbolic function of pedagogical translanguaging, scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging, and epistemological function of pedagogical translanguaging. Under this theme, it was identified that science subject teachers preferred to resort to systematic language incorporation strategies more in comparison to the English language teachers whose teaching practices were discussed previously. The theme starts by discussing the symbolic function of pedagogical translanguaging and in what ways the teachers resort to it.

4.6.2 Subtheme: Symbolic function of pedagogical translanguaging

This subtheme illustrates the situations when teachers, specifically science subject teachers, decide to undertake the usage of the symbolic function of pedagogical translanguaging. To remind the reader a symbolic function as its name suggests is restricted with only language acknowledgment. In other words, this function may be displayed by teachers when only acknowledging the use of students' linguistic repertoires without aiming at content and language development. The teachers may resort to a symbolic function due to their own needs or to ask for the translation of certain words or phrases from the students.

In the Physics teacher Han's lesson, the students needed to prepare for the upcoming final exams. During the lesson, the teacher and the students were engaged in recapping previously covered topics and materials. Throughout the lesson, Han was predominantly teaching in English, but from time to time asked the students to provide translations of the keywords, phrases, or the concepts' names in Kazakh or Russian languages. The students provided the translations of the words. When asked as to why he kept asking the students to provide the translations he responded that it was needed to check the students' comprehension and understanding of what these words mean in their L1 and such practice corresponds to one of the features of symbolic function of pedagogical translanguaging.

Besides the mentioned Han's lesson, the rest of the science subject teachers also actively utilised translations in their teaching practices. These translations were mostly literal, unsystematic, and spontaneous. Science subject teachers asked for a translation of content-specific terms by stating *"How to say this term in Kazakh? And in Russian?"* and in other cases provided these translations themselves. The translations mostly involved content-specific key terms which were translated from English to either Kazakh or Russian. For instance, a Physics teacher Gulmira kept asking for a translation of such content-specific words as *speed, velocity*, *motion,* and *force* in the Kazakh and Russian languages throughout the lesson. The students provided translations of the terms in both Kazakh and Russian languages, and this is illustrated in Table 20 below.

Table 20. The Physics teacher Gulmira's lesson

Teacher	*How do you say speed velocity in Kazakh?*
Students	*Жылдамдық*
Teacher	*How do you say speed velocity in Russian?*
Students	*Скорость*
Teacher	*How do you say motion and force in Kazakh?*
Students	*Қозғалыс және күш қуаты*
Teacher	*How do you say motion and force in Russian?*
Students	*Движение и сила*

Table 20: Physics lesson

Other teachers translated whole sentences and, in some cases, used dictionaries or online translation tools together with the students. The teachers' active use of translation practices may be understood by the fact that they were delivering their lessons in the English language too. Due to certain language barriers, most of the teachers wanted to make sure that the students knew the translations of certain keywords. Thus, throughout the lessons the science subject teachers kept making references to English content key terms and asking for their equivalents or word-for-word translations in Kazakh and Russian. By doing so, the teachers

not only acknowledged the other two languages which are Kazakh and Russian, but they also highlighted the importance of knowing the terms in these languages by making constant references to them. This is somewhat similar to Schoeman et al. (2023) study which also pointed out the use of the symbolic function of translanguaging by school teachers in South Africa. In their study, one of the teachers asked for the equivalent of the English "good morning" in Afrikaans and isiXhosa to which the students replied "Goeiemôre" and "Molo" (Schoeman et al., 2023). According to Schoeman et al. (2023), in this example, the teacher did not only allow the students to alternate between the languages, but also "created a culture of bilingualism in her class by telling her learners that they all have the ability to speak English and another language" (Schoeman et al., 2023, p. 9). Although in the science subject teachers' case, it can be said that their constant references to translation were not made to create a culture around their teaching, but rather to develop the students' abilities in learning about the names of concepts and key terms in three languages. In other words, science subject teachers are "valorising" (Duarte, 2020) and putting a value on Kazakh and Russian languages by making temporary links to them and asking for word-for-word translations from the students. In Duarte's (2020) study too, one of the Polish pre-service teachers performed a symbolic function of translanguaging by asking the pupils to provide translations for certain words from the story they read in the Dutch language. The pupils provided the translations of words in their own languages which were Polish, Frisian, and Arabic. Duarte (2020, p. 133) noted that this type of translation-based interaction allowed the teacher to acknowledge:

> All languages in the classroom by explicitly involving them in her story. In addition, the teacher uses the languages to check comprehension of the key terms of the story. The Dutch language is used as a bridge to the other languages.

This example can be applied to science subject teachers' cases as their teaching practices attained these aims to: valorising the use of Kazakh and Russian languages and checking the

knowledge of the key terms in these languages. Thus, these science subject teachers' practices correspond to the symbolic function of translanguaging.

All of the science subject teachers attained the symbolic function of pedagogical translanguaging and most of them moved beyond the symbolic function and captured the use of the two functions in their teaching practices. However, the Physics teacher Han's observed teaching practice was restricted to only the symbolic function of pedagogical translanguaging, and he did not depict the other two functions which are scaffolding and epistemological pedagogical translanguaging. If to go back to Physics teacher Han's pre-lesson observation interview the teacher responded that:

> *I think Physics is a difficult subject and learning it in English is even harder. So, if the students have any difficulties I try to explain in Kazakh and Russian for them. I give key terms in three languages. For example, if the students prefer Kazakh then I explain in Kazakh. And the same with Russian. But students also help each other. They translate together and help each other. The content is in English but when help is needed, I switch to Kazakh and Russian* (Han, Physics teacher's lesson)

From this it is evident that in the case of the Physics teacher (Han), there was a mismatch between his interview replies and the strategies he used in his teaching practice. Despite stating that he tries "*to explain in Kazakh and Russian*" the only crosslinguistic activity the teacher involved in his teaching was the use of translations. Thus, it can be said that Han's teaching practices in the observed lesson attained the symbolic function only and he did not illustrate the two functions of pedagogical translanguaging.

4.6.3 Subtheme: Scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging

This subtheme illustrates the situations when teachers, specifically science subject teachers, resort to the use of the scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging. The scaffolding function goes beyond the first symbolic function of translanguaging which is restricted to only acknowledging the presence of the students' languages in the classroom (Duarte, 2020). In symbolic function, the teacher may ask the students to translate a word or a phrase into their languages without necessarily engaging them in further content knowledge

development through the use of their languages. However, a scaffolding function may be "achieved when temporary but systematic bridges towards other languages are incorporated in everyday teaching attributing equal value to all languages" (Duarte, 2020, p. 128). In the case of the scaffolding function, the teachers do not necessarily need to be competent in the students' languages, especially when they "are perceived as the experts for their own family languages" (Duarte, 2020, p. 128). In other words, a scaffolding function involves a strategic use of languages that are targeted toward the enhancement and improvement of the language of instruction knowledge (Duarte & Günther-van der Meij, 2020) without requiring the teacher to know the language nor speak in it. Moreover, the teacher may resort to this function whenever there is a need to check the student's understanding and comprehension by putting into use their language repertoires.

This scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging was present in the following Biology teacher Karagoz's lesson which is illustrated below:

> *In a lab lesson the teacher explained the application of enzyme technology in the medicine and food industry. The students followed the teacher's instructions. Throughout the lesson the teacher codeswitched by inserting terms in Russian such as моющее средство (detergent), enzyme (фермент), oxygen (кислород), and proceeded to codeswitch in times when struggled to find the needed words in the English language.* (Karagoz, Biology teacher's lesson)

From this example, it is evident that the Biology teacher Karagoz decided to codeswitch due to the language barrier and the struggle with finding the correct word in the English language. The teacher seemed to use codeswitching as a coping mechanism that can help in times when struggling to teach through the medium of the English language. This is similar to Sah and Kubota's (2022) finding, who pointed out that content subject teachers undertaking English as a medium of instruction (EMI) tend to view translanguaging and codeswitching as a coping strategy when experiencing difficulties with expressing themselves fully in the English language. In Sah and Kubota's (2022) study, in the context of a Nepalese school, the mathematics teacher shared that they translanguage and use Nepali in cases when it is difficult to explain the formulas to the students. In another study conducted

by Temesgen and Hailu (2022), it was revealed that the teachers resorted to codeswitching in order to compensate for their language incompetence. In other words, in Temesgen and Hailu's (2022) study, the teachers codeswitched to Amharic due to their inability to express themselves fully in the English language. Besides codeswitching, Karagoz also engaged in systematic translanguaging, especially when providing answers to the students' questions and whenever she struggled to deliver the instructions fully in English. If to put in different words, the teachers utilised translanguaging as a scaffolding function in order to be able to provide better explanations and meaning making.

In the next lesson conducted by a Computer Science teacher Jomart, a scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging was also evident and present throughout his teaching practice. In order to demonstrate this, the following excerpt is used where the teacher's practice shows the following:

> *During the lesson, students sit at three big tables as groups. The teacher gave the students a task to read a text and answer the given questions (The text and questions were provided in the English language). Students worked in pairs and during the pair work the students talked to each other either in Russian or Kazakh languages. The students discussed the tasks together and brainstormed using predominantly Russian and Kazakh by adding some words in the English language too. During those group interactions in Russian and Kazakh, it was evident that the students were trying to reach a common understanding of the task and come up with a solution. The teacher did not stop the students' usage of other languages and encouraged them to continue the discussions in the languages of their preference. The teacher then asked the students "How can we provide confidentiality?" in the English language. The students provided the answers in the English language. It seemed that the students followed the teacher's language choices. If the teacher formulates the questions in English, the students answered in English, and if the teacher asked in Russian or Kazakh the students replied accordingly. Throughout the lesson, the teacher used group work and gave the students different tasks. During the group works, the students kept using Russian and Kazakh, and then reported back the results and answers to teacher in the English language.* (Jomart, Computer Science teacher's lesson)

In this example, it is also evident that the Computer Science teacher Jomart does not stick to one language only policy and prefers to open a space for the presence of other languages in teaching. A Computer Science teacher who predominantly used English in his instructions, preferred to use students' pair or group works as a space for multilingual interaction and

translanguaging. During pair and group discussions the students were actively translanguaging using both Kazakh and Russian languages. The students used and referred to these languages in order to make meaning of the tasks given by the teacher. However, whenever the teacher asked the question in English the students provided the replies in the English language as well. In the cases when the teacher posed the questions in Russian or Kazakh languages the students provided the answers in either Russian or Kazakh depending on the language used by the teacher. It seems that in this class, the students follow their teacher's language choices, and act in accordance with the teacher's language use. This was a rather interesting finding as in this class it was clearly seen that the students followed the teacher's language choices and acted accordingly. Computer Science teacher's practice echoes Pun and Tai's (2021) study where a Biology teacher used the English language for instructions and lab tasks as a space for the students' translanguaging interaction. Pun and Tai (2021, p. 1119) stated that:

> Once the teacher utters the word 'now' in line 1, it becomes noticeable that the students in this particular group start to speak Cantonese with their peers to make sense of their teacher's experimental instruction.

In other words, in Pun and Tai's (2021) study the teacher's word 'now' acted as a signal for the students to begin completing the lab tasks where they can freely use English as well as Cantonese. Throughout the lab tasks and experiments, the students used their dynamic linguistic practice which was Cantonese in order to make sense of the teacher's instruction (Pun & Tai, 2021). Pun and Tai (2021, p. 1120) further added that:

> The teacher's selection of English as medium of instruction conforms to the norm of the EMI setting, but at the same time, he/she didn't restrain students' use of L1 to externalise their understanding of the scientific procedures. It is actually a translanguaging process as a whole though there is no explicit multilingual interaction by the speakers.

From this, it is evident that translanguaging as a pedagogical practice, does not only attain the fact that the teacher needs to be constantly moving between the languages, but it can also be reinforced during the peer and group works. This is confirmed by the Computer Science

teacher Jomart's lesson, where the teacher allowed the students to use their group work as a space for knowledge construction (Pun & Tai, 2021) and co-learning (Tai & Li Wei, 2021b) by engaging in translanguaging practices.

Within the pedagogical translanguaging type, the illustrated excerpt from the lesson seems to correspond to the scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging. According to Duarte (2020, p. 128) a scaffolding function may be:

> Achieved when temporary but systematic bridges towards other languages are incorporated in everyday teaching attributing equal value to all languages.

In the case of the scaffolding function the teachers do not need to be competent in the students' languages, especially when they "are perceived as the experts for their own family languages" (Duarte, 2020, p. 128). In other words, a scaffolding function involves a strategic use of languages that are targeted toward the enhancement and improvement of the language of instruction knowledge (Duarte & Günther-van der Meij, 2020) without requiring the teacher to know the language nor speak in it. A scaffolding function was present in the Computer Science teacher Jomart's lesson, as illustrated in the excerpt above, as the teacher was able to create a space for students' translanguaging without necessarily resorting to their languages, but rather allowing them to utilise Russian and Kazakh in group works. Thus, the Computer Science teacher Jomart's illustrated lesson corresponds to the scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging.

In another Chemistry lesson conducted by Inkar, the teacher also utilised a scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging by providing an opportunity for the students to harness their L1 in order to provide peer support. For instance, the following observation from the Chemistry teacher Inkar's lesson shows that:

> *The teacher asked for a volunteer to solve a problem on the blackboard. One student volunteered and the teacher asked the student to write a formula for pentanol-1 compound. The student wrote CH3-CH2-CH2-CH2 on the blackboard and then hesitated to write the rest and asked for help. The teacher then switched from English to Kazakh by saying "бірге көмектесейік" which translates into English as "let's help together". After the teacher's words, the rest of the students instantly provided help and instructions in the Kazakh language; as a result the student was*

> *able to finish the pentanol-1 compound formula correctly (CH3-CH2-CH2-CH2-CH2-OH). The same teaching strategy was applied by the teacher throughout the whole lesson, where the teacher's single switch to Kazakh acted as a signal to the students to start providing peer support in L1, which was a Kazakh language (Inkar, Chemistry teacher's lesson)*

From this example, it is evident that one of the affordances of pedagogical translanguaging practice is to provide peer support (Allard, 2017; Rajendram, 2023). Chemistry teacher Inkar who provided the task to the student in the English language decided to switch from English to Kazakh when the student asked for help. The teacher's single switch to Kazakh activated and opened up a welcoming space for other students to switch to Kazakh language too in order to provide support to their fellow students. The students used L1 (Kazakh language) in order to provide help and instructions to their peers. As a result, the student was able to finish the task with the help of peer support and complete the formula correctly and this was reinforced due to the students' translanguaging practices. This finding is similar to Pun and Tai's (2021) study which also highlighted the use of translanguaging practices to create peer work and support, especially in such disciplines that involve lab work and content subjects. Pun and Tai (2021) further state that translanguaging can help with better comprehension and also with creating an atmosphere that is enjoyable and less tense. This is true in the case of the Chemistry teacher Inkar's above excerpt, as the students' use of shift from English to the Kazakh language created a less formal and pressurised environment for the student completing the task. In fact, the student on the blackboard seemed to feel at ease once the instructions started to be given in the Kazakh language, instead of English, and this confirms the findings in Pun and Tai's (2021) study.

In another study conducted by Rajendram (2023), the students supported each other through the use of translanguaging practice. Rajendram (2023, p. 604) stated that:

> Many learners explained that they translanguaged to help their friends who were having difficulties understanding words, phrases or sentences in English. According to Silvia, 'If one sentence my friend didn't understand, if I tell in English, she cannot understand the word. If we can explain in Tamil, then only she can understand, and she will improve her language.

In other words, the students in Rajendram's (2023) study resorted to Tamil in order to help each other when experiencing difficulties with understanding certain points. Only by resorting to Tamil, the students could co-construct the meaning, and this is similar to the Chemistry teacher Inkar's lesson, where the students' use of the Kazakh language allowed their fellow student to understand how to complete the task.

From this and previous examples, it became evident that teachers do not necessarily need to actively switch between languages in order to engage the students in translanguaging practices. While in the previous example, Computer Science teacher Jomart used group work as a translanguaging space, then in this example, the Chemistry teacher Inkar invited the students to translanguage with a single shift from English to their L1. These two examples confirm Duarte's (2020) statements who argued that teachers do not necessarily need to be fluent in the students' languages in order to be able to engage them in translanguaging practices. Therefore, within the pedagogical translanguaging type the illustrated excerpts from the observed lessons seem to correspond to the scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging. This is because in Chemistry teacher Inkar's lesson the teacher used a sentence in the students' L1 and thus signalled them to join in the shift together in order to take part in a scaffolding practice for peer support. As a result of this scaffolding practise, the teacher was not involved in it, but rather allowed the students to take on a leading role. The teacher acknowledged the presence of the students' language by making a temporary link and this corresponds to the principles of scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging (Duarte, 2020).

Thus, the three teachers Biology teacher Karagoz, Computer Science teacher Jomart, and Chemistry teacher Inkar's teaching practices and the strategies they used attained the scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging. If to go back to their pre-lesson observation interviews, then both Karagoz (Biology teacher) and Inkar (Chemistry teacher) shared that they tend to resort to translanguaging practices spontaneously and this has been

illustrated in Inkar's (Chemistry teacher) lesson where she spontaneously shifted to the students' L1 in order to stimulate peer support. The teachers also shared that they tend to explain in the students' L1 as it is easier for students to understand, thus it can be said that their replies in the interviews matched their teaching practices.

4.6.4 Subtheme: Epistemological function of pedagogical translanguaging

The third function is epistemological, and it is aimed at not only acknowledging the students' existing language repertoires as in the case of the two previous functions, but it also develops and enhances the language and content knowledge (Duarte, 2020). According to Dutton and Rushton (2021), the epistemological function of translanguaging can help to "facilitate access to background knowledge" (Sayer, 2013), develop critical thinking, and deepen understandings and socio-cultural engagement (Creese & Blackledge, 2015). In other words, teachers who fulfil an epistemological function, see the students' languages as assets that can help to activate their deeper understanding of the content material by also developing their knowledge of the language. For these reasons, the teachers undertaking an epistemological function need to be proficient in students' languages in order to be able to make use of them by interacting with the students (Duarte, 2020).

In this subtheme, the science subject teachers' preferences for epistemological function of translanguaging practices were captured. If in the previously discussed two subthemes, the teachers resorted to it due to their own or students' language barriers, then this subtheme illustrates how the teachers willingly utilised translanguaging strategies as a legitimate teaching practice. For instance, in the following Physics lesson conducted by Gulmira, the teacher used the following teaching practice:

> *The teacher talked about Newton's First Law in English and asked the students to explain Newton's First Law in Kazakh and Russian. Students explained the Law in Kazakh and Russian languages. When giving instructions the teacher used all three languages. First of all, the teacher started speaking in English and then switched to Russian and English. For all of the instructions the teacher first spoke in English and then Kazakh and in Russian. The teacher gave the students a task on problem-*

> *solving. Once again, the teacher explained the tasks in three languages. In the cases when the students struggled with understanding the tasks the teacher did not hesitate to switch to the students' L1 for explanation purposes* (Gulmira, Physics teacher's lesson)

This was one of the few lessons where the three languages were used in tandem and continuously throughout the whole lesson. From this example, it is clear that the Physics teacher prefers to translanguage by incorporating the usage of the three languages systematically. First, the teacher explained the topic in English and then elicited the students' understanding of the topic in Kazakh and Russian languages. The same technique is also evident when giving instructions and new terms. Interestingly, since the teacher incorporated the three languages systematically, there weren't any boundaries or restrictions for the students' language use. Both the teacher and the students could formulate their questions and instructions in one language and then receive the answer in the other. When asked why the teacher incorporated the three languages throughout the lesson, the teacher replied that this way it is possible to check the students' understandings of the topic and also create an appropriate atmosphere where the students can freely use the three languages together. The teacher further shared that she did not want the students to feel restricted and that it was important for her to create a comfortable learning atmosphere for the students. This kind of language fluidity created in this lesson corresponds to the strategies discussed in Cenoz and Santos' (2020) study. In their study, the students were able to read a piece of news in Spanish and summarised them in Basque. This way the students not only developed their metalinguistic awareness, but also built their knowledge of the vocabulary (Cenoz & Santos, 2020). In another study conducted by Pun and Tai (2021), it was revealed that translanguaging when used in science-based subjects can not only enhance the students' understandings of the material and co-construct the meaning, but it can also create an enjoyable learning environment. Within the pedagogical translanguaging type, the illustrated excerpt from the lesson seems to correspond to the epistemological function of pedagogical translanguaging. To remind the reader, the epistemological function of pedagogical

translanguaging is aimed at not only acknowledging the students' existing language repertoires, but also to develop and enhance the knowledge of the language and content (Duarte, 2020). According to Dutton and Rushton (2021), the epistemological function of translanguaging can also "facilitate access to background knowledge" (Sayer, 2013), develop critical thinking, and deepen understandings and socio-cultural engagement (Creese & Blackledge, 2015). In other words, teachers who fulfil an epistemological function see the students' languages as assets that can help to activate their deeper understanding of the content material by also developing their knowledge of the language. For these reasons, the teachers undertaking an epistemological function need to be proficient in students' languages in order to be able to make use of them by interacting with the students (Duarte, 2020).

Similarly, some of the recent studies that have been investigating pedagogical translanguaging have also reported the advantageous parts of the epistemological function in their studies. In their studies, Charamba (2020) and Ngubane et al. (2020) have looked at the use of multilingual practices in South African classrooms. Charamba (2020) looked at the role of translanguaging practice, specifically in science classrooms, where the students had to take two kinds of tests: pre-test and post-test. The students took the pre-test in the English language and the post-test was written in two languages which were English and Sotho (Charamba, 2020). The results of the pre-test showed that 22 out of 28 students did not get a pass mark in the test (Charamba, 2020). After the pre-test, Charamba (2020) conducted interviews with the students who reported that the main reason behind their poor academic performance was the medium of instruction which was the English language. The students then were exposed to "translanguaging-informed intervention" (Charamba, 2020, p. 1785) which was in place to prepare them for the post-test. Translanguaging-informed intervention equipped the students with English Sotho Natural Sciences bilingual dictionaries and also the students were "allowed to use their home language during lessons" (Charamba, 2020, p.

1786). The students then took a post-test and this time 21 out of 28 students got a pass whereas in the previous test 22 students failed to get a pass (Charamba, 2020). After the follow-up interviews, Charamba (2020, p. 1793) concluded that:

> Students in the study highlighted that the use of more than one language during the lessons and the provision of learning materials written in their home language made them understand the concepts better than in the typical monolingual interactions they are always subjected to.

According to Charamba (2020), this epistemological shift created by translanguaging informed intervention allowed the students to comprehend and understand the material better than when it was given through one language only. Ngubane et al. (2020) study too highlighted the importance of epistemological access and noted that teachers need to build on the multiple linguistic repertoires the students have at their disposal. In their study, the teachers utilised isiZulu-English translanguaging practices to explain the writing techniques and concepts for the students of English First Additional Language (EFAL) writing classrooms (Ngubane et al., 2020). Ngubane et al. (2020) reported that this epistemic access "was found to enhance learners' cognition of the writing concepts and to stimulate active participation in the learning of writing" (p. 142).

Further into the Physics lesson conducted by Gulmira, the teacher also presented a fun and interactive lesson where she resorted to the use of codeswitching. However, the use of codeswitching in her lessons was for a different purpose compared to the previously discussed Biology teacher Karagoz's lesson. If in Biology teacher Karagoz's lesson, it was evident that the teacher decided to codewitch due to her own language barrier, then in the Physics teacher Gulmira's lesson codeswitching was used to provide clarifications for the students. To illustrate this, the following observed lesson is used as an example:

> *The teacher then asked the students to use their mobile phones and enter a website called nearpod.com. Students used the English language to ask the teacher on how to enter the website as some of them were struggling with the access. The teacher repeated the instructions on entering the website, but this time she codeswitched from English to Kazakh. These instructions included such phrases as "nearpod вебсайтына кіру үшін yes мына button press жасаймыз". After this clarification, the students were able to join the website. (Gulmira, Physics teacher's lesson)*

This example illustrates the fact that the teacher decided to refer to codeswitching practice in order to explain better to students on how to access the website. The teacher codeswitched by using such phrases as *"nearpod вебсайтына кіру үшін yes мына button press жасаймыз"* which translates into English as "*in order to access the nearpod website we need to press this button".* Even though the students asked questions using the English language, the teacher felt the need for codeswitching to provide clarifications. This way the teacher must have thought that the students would understand the instructions better when they are provided not only through English, but also by incorporating their first language too. This example is similar to what AspachsBracons et al. (2008) argued about. According to AspachsBracons et al. (2008, p. 173), codeswitching:

> is not a sign of language delay or corruption, quite the opposite. It is a sign of the dynamic nature of language and the way in which people make language serve their needs.

Gulmira codeswitched quite naturally and was not taken aback by the fact that she was incorporating a language other than English. Throughout her lesson, Gulmira kept referring to codeswitching and bringing the Kazakh language into the classroom spaces when mitigating and clarifying certain points. This is in line with Baker's (2011) thirteen reasons for codeswitching which were discussed in Chapter 2: Literature review. One of the thirteen reasons for codeswitching was to provide clarification or whenever a speaker needs to repeat a word or a phrase for clarification purposes. Moreover, this finding echoes Bensen and Çavusoglu's (2013) study in which EFL teachers shared that they tend to codeswitch as it simplifies the explanation process and saves time. Moreover, the teachers in Bensen and Çavusoglu (2013) pointed out that they do not have to repeat the same thing in English over and over again as by simply codeswitching to the students' first language they will increase their comprehension and understanding. Lastly, Bensen and Çavusoglu (2013) too noted that teachers tend to codeswitch to provide clarification for the students who may struggle with

understanding certain points due to the level of language command. And this has been confirmed by the findings in this study too.

The last example from Gulmira's lesson illustrates the students using their mobile phones to enter the nearpod.com website. The students logged into the website and needed to sign up using their names or any other preferred name. Once everyone was on the website the students were engaged in the following activity:

> *Students entered the website and competed with each other on who will be the first to reply to the questions and score the most. The questions in the activity were in the English language. However, during the activity, the students used the three languages (Kazakh, Russian, and English) to express their emotions or when asking questions from the teacher to clarify the question. The teacher provided the answers in three languages. After the activity, the teacher and the students solved the problems together and for this, they used the three languages too.* (Gulmira, Physics teacher's lesson)

In this excerpt too it became evident that the Physics teacher Gulmira prefers to incorporate pedagogical translanguaging by using the three languages systematically throughout her whole lesson. The teacher, apart from using codeswitching, also made systematic incorporation of the three languages and allowed the students to do the same. Thus, it can be said that the Physics teacher Gulmira's teaching practices observed in the lesson corresponded to the epistemological function of pedagogical translanguaging.

The second example conducted by a Chemistry teacher Inkar also attained the epistemological function of pedagogical translanguaging. The following excerpts illustrates Inkar's lesson:

> *The teacher started the greeting in Kazakh and provided the lesson explanation in Kazakh. Then the teacher presented a riddle in Kazakh which was shown on the whiteboard. The teacher stated that the answer to the riddle was the topic of the lesson. The students read the riddle which was written in a fairy tale format in Kazakh and then provided the answer ("ethyl alcohol"). The students gave the answer in English which was "ethyl alcohol". The teacher then showed the next slide with the answer (ethyl alcohol) which was written in English and stated that it was the topic of the lesson. The teacher asked what ethyl alcohol was and the students provided the answers in Kazakh, Russian, and English languages. The teacher showed lesson aims and objectives and then gave keywords in three languages: Kazakh, Russian, and English. The teacher then showed a video which was in the*

> *English language, but the provided worksheets on the video task were in the Kazakh language. The students needed to watch the video in the English language and then provide the answers to the questions in the Kazakh. After the video, the students successfully answered all the questions in Kazakh and the teacher praised them by saying in Russian "молодцы" (well done).* (Inkar, Chemistry teacher's lesson)

As in the previous example, in this lesson too, the teacher conducted a fun and interactive lesson. As illustrated in the excerpt, Inkar decided to use a riddle to introduce the students to the topic of the lesson, which was ethyl alcohol. This subject-specific term, ethyl alcohol, activated the translanguaging flow (García et al., 2017) between the teacher and the students. The teacher facilitated students' understanding of the subject-specific term by enabling them to access it through whichever language in their linguistic repertoire (Kazakh, Russian, or English) they felt drawn to. As seen from the example, Inkar kept using different crosslinguistic activities throughout her lesson, which were in the form of the riddle or the video. From the provided responses, it becomes clear that as a result of such types of activities, the students did not feel any boundaries in using the three languages freely. This in turn created not only language fluidity but also a dynamic interaction between the teacher and the students (Lin & He, 2017). The video activity allowed the students to watch it in the English language and demonstrate their comprehension in their L1. As a result, all of the students were able to fill in the worksheet and answer the questions correctly. This activity is similar to the pedagogical translanguaging tasks reported in Cenoz and Santos's (2020) study. In Cenoz and Santos's (2020) study, the teacher from a trilingual school in a Basque Country used an activity called "*the multilingual news".* Similarly, to Inkar's video task in this study too, the teacher asked the students to read a piece of news in one language and then summarise it in another. According to Cenoz and Santos (2020, p. 7), the participating teacher of the study reported that the students:

> Seemed to realize that the languages were not competing with each other but that they could, in fact, support each other. They really enjoyed this class.

Cenoz and Santos (2020) concluded that the pedagogical use of the students' linguistic repertoires resulted in students' comprehension of the tasks as well as their completion. This is in line with the lesson conducted by Inkar where students were also given a chance to put their linguistic repertoires into use. As a result, Inkar's lesson too attained the epistemological function of pedagogical translanguaging, as it not only acknowledged the existence of the students' linguistic repertoires, but also used them to increase the knowledge of the content.

4.6.5 Section Summary

This second section provided the results from each of the participants' lesson observations. The section consisted of two main themes and their subthemes. The first theme reported on English language teachers' teaching practices which were divided into English-only instruction and monolingual preference subthemes. The English-only subtheme identified that most of the English language teachers were still in favour of full exposure to the target language although they did not disrupt the students' use of other languages in pair works and when asking questions. The monolingual preference subtheme, on the other hand, showed that some of the English language teachers did not only deliver their lessons in English only, but also did not allow their students to use other languages as opposed to the previous subtheme.

The second theme consisted of three subthemes which were the symbolic function of translanguaging, the scaffolding function of translanguaging, and lastly epistemological function of translanguaging. The symbolic function of translanguaging was attained by all of the science subject teachers, as throughout their lessons they showed signs of acknowledging the students' language repertoires by being involved in translation tasks. The scaffolding function of translanguaging was attained by most of the science subject teachers while the epistemological function of pedagogical translanguaging was attained by only two. The

teachers who attained the scaffolding function of pedagogical translanguaging actively utilised codeswitching practices due to their own or their students' language barriers. Some of the science subject teachers' use of pedagogical translanguaging resulted not only in metalinguistic awareness and a supportive atmosphere, but also in peer support. The two science subject teachers who attained the epistemological function of translanguaging used the three languages throughout their lessons which was seen in their instructions and the tasks that they gave to their students. As a result of these teachers' practices, the students' illustrated not only comprehension, but also were able to complete the tasks. The teachers utilised the language and content aspects in tandem, therefore achieving the fluidity of languages and the development of content knowledge. The next section of this chapter discusses the results in relation to the third and last data collection instrument which was document analysis.

4.7 The results from document analysis

In this section I present the results derived from the third and last data collection instrument which was document analysis. The last subsidiary research question that this section was guided by was the following:

Subsidiary question:

4. How do school documents, and lesson plans reflect the usage of pedagogical translanguaging?

Although the above research question states the school documents and lesson plans, it is necessary to note the fact that I decided to include other types of documents for the analysis as well. This was needed due to the fact that by incorporating other types of documents, I wanted to get a clearer picture of the policy and understand where does the pedagogical translanguaging stand within it. This was also needed in order to obtain the relevant amount of data as the school documents and lesson observations were not capturing the whole

situation when it came to the implementation of the trilingual education policy. Therefore, in the course of document analysis, I concentrated on two levels of policy contexts which constituted of state and school levels. This is illustrated in the following Figure 5 below.

Figure 5. Policy Contexts

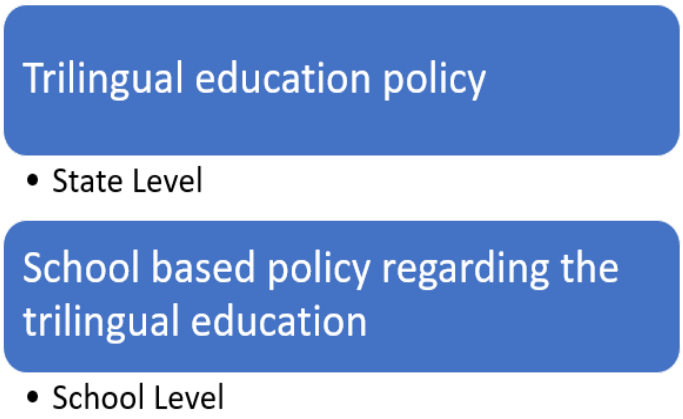


Figure 5: Policy contexts

As was explained in Chapter 3: Methodology, I opted for an interpretive-critical framework for the document analysis stage. This means that I focused more on exposing debatable features of the policy and was engaged in bringing the policy's potential problems and associated issues to the surface. Especially, as I have already provided a substantial information on the policy in Chapter 2: Literature review.

Thus, in order to achieve the mentioned points, I decided to include not only the following normative and legislative documents:

- Annual report "Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools" 2022;
- Annual report "Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools" 2021;
- Annual report "Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools" 2020;
- Annual report "Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools" 2019;
- Annual report "Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools" 2016;
- Annual report "Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools" 2014;
- Annual report "Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools" 2012;
- OECD Review: Kazakhstan (2015);
- National Plan 100 Concrete Steps (2015);
- The State Program of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2020-2025 (SPED, 2019);
- The State Program of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020 (SPED, 2010);
- The State Program of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2016-2019 (SPED, 2016);

- The State Program for the Development and functioning of Languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020 (2010);
- Strategic plan of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2017-2021 “On Education” (2017);
- The Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan “On Languages”(1997);
- The Roadmap for The Development of Trilingual Education in Kazakhstan for 2015-2020 (2015);

But also, the following empirical studies that provided an analysis of the policy. These articles were:

- Fimyar, O. (2018) “We Have a Window Seat”: A Bakhtinian Analysis of International Teachers’ Identity in Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools in Kazakhstan;
- Goodman, B., and Karabassova, L. (2018). “Bottom Up and Top Down: Comparing Language-in-Education Policy in Ukraine and Kazakhstan;
- Karabassova, L. (2020). Understanding education reform in Kazakhstan: Why is it stalled?;
- Karabassova, L. (2021). English-medium education reform in Kazakhstan: comparative study of educational change across two contexts in one country;
- Karabassova, L. (2022). Teachers’ conceptualization of content and language integrated learning (CLIL): evidence from a trilingual context.
- Khaldarova, K., & Abdisadyk, G. (2021). Problems and challenges of implementing trilingual education policy in mainstream high schools of Kazakhstan
- Kambatyrova, A (2022). Parents’ language ideologies in the context of trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan;
- Mehisto, P., Winter, L., Kambatyrova, A., & Kurakbayev, K. (2022). CLIL as a conduit for a trilingual Kazakhstan;
- Mehisto, P., Kambatyrova, A., & Nurseitova, K. (2014). Three in one? Trilingualism in education policy and practice;
- Sarmurzin et al. (2023). Challenging aspects of Kazakhstan’s trilingual education policy: evidence from a literature review;
- Smagulova, J. (2021). When language policy is not enough;
- Yakavets, N. (2014). Reforming society through education for gifted children: the case of Kazakhstan;
- Yrsaliyev, S., Karabasova, L., Muhametzhanova, A., Adil, A., Bekova, M., & Nurlanov, E. (2017). Teaching in three languages, international experience and recommendations for Kazakhstan;
- Zhilbayev, Z. O., Syrymbetova, L. S., Mukasheva, M. Y., Zhetpisbayeva, B. A., & Smagulova, G. T. (2019). Promotion of trilingual education in Kazakhstani schools: online monitoring results.

I also included six media sources that proved to be useful and essential for this stage of document analysis:

- Angliiskii yazyk v shkolakh Kazakhstana budut izuchat tolko s tretego klassa (2022);
- Forbes.kz. (2016). The study of the history of Kazakhstan in the Kazakh language will be introduced from the 7th grade in the schools of the country;
- Gorbunova, A. (2019). Nigmatulin—Shamshidinova: You pay extra not for knowing the language, but for a piece of A4 paper;
- kz (2022). Teachers' salary increased by another 25%;

- Nazarbayev, N. (2019). Nazarbayev asked MoES not to implement trilingualism by 'clumsy' methods;
- Sagadiyev E. (2018). The strategy for teaching English in schools has changed;
- Tokayev. (2019). "About trilingualism: It is a very complex and important question";

Besides the mentioned documents above, I also considered and reviewed the eleven in-service teachers' lesson plans that were provided during the lesson observations. The analysed sets of documents were not restricted to the English language only sources, but also included sources in Kazakh and Russian languages. The aim of this subsidiary question was to find out how pedagogical translanguaging is reflected in the policy documents. Especially as both interviews and observations showed that the teachers were not familiar with the concept of translanguaging. A similar observation was made in the document analysis stage where the collected sources referred to the trilingual education policy itself, but not on the language use. As this research's central phenomenon is the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan, the following identified themes were identified and deemed important to include in order to understand the policy itself.

The Figure 6 below illustrates the three main themes that derived from the document analyses which are issues with EMI, teachers' training, ongoing changes and setbacks to the policy, and elitist policy. It is important to note that the analysis of the above-mentioned documents involved such steps as skimming, reading, interpretation, and coding (Bowen, 2009). The recurring codes were then formed into three broad themes.

The findings of each of the identified themes are presented in Figure 6 below.

Figure 6. Theme Map

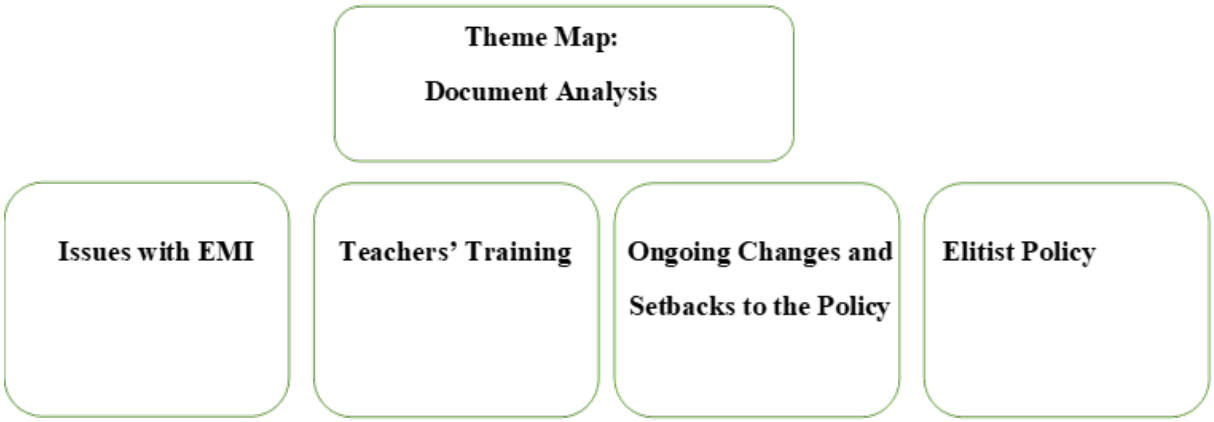


Figure 6. Document Analysis Theme Map

4.7.1 Theme 1: Issues with EMI

The reviewed empirical studies, policy documents as well as this research work highlighted issues with the English language, and it is becoming one of the mediums of instruction as part of the trilingual education policy requirements. In fact one of the reviewed empirical studies stated that "trilingualism has merely become a synonym of 'teaching in English,' and the idea of teaching subjects using Kazakh L2 and Russian L2 was soon forgotten" (Karabassova, 2020, p. 1532) which also complements the findings of this study. Almost all of the in-service teachers talked about English only without elaborating much on the roles of the other two languages which are Kazakh and Russian. This is because the English language became the medium of instruction for science-based subjects such as Chemistry, Biology, Computer Science, and Physics (MoES, 2018). This initiative drew everyone's attention as before the adoption of the policy, the English language was only taught as a foreign language discipline. But now after the adoption of the policy, it seemed that:

> Despite never having studied English and only being briefly exposed to it (between six and nine months), the vast majority of the educators were thrust into a "full immersion" manner of instruction. (Sarmurzin et al., 2023, p. 6)

Indeed, before the adoption of the English as one of the mediums of instruction most of the teachers had a quite small exposure to the language (Karabassova, 2020; Sarmurzin et al., 2023) or in some cases no exposure at all. This has also been noted by the participants of this

study who shared that they had to learn a new language in order to be able to teach their disciplines in accordance with the requirements of the policy. In order to solve this problem, the science subject teachers were offered to undertake English language courses. They were also offered a bonus of up to 50% of their official salary for teaching through the medium of the English language (24.kz, 2022). Despite such kind of support the science subject teachers still "found it difficult to teach students with undeveloped language competencies" (Karabassova, 2020, p. 39).

The State Program for the Development and Functioning of Languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020 noted that the number of English language speaking people needs to be increased up to 20% by 2020 while the number of trilingual speakers (Kazakh, Russian, and English) to be increased up to 15% (SPED, 2020). The State Program of Education Development and Functioning of Languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020 also stated that the share of science subject teachers who teach through the medium of English was 0,6% in 2010 and that it needs to increase up to 10% in 2015 and up to 15% in 2020 (SPED, 2020). However, this did not happen as the Roadmap for the Development of Trilingual Education (2015) noted that the overall number of teachers adopting English as a medium of instruction was only 2.4% in 2015. According to the Strategic Plan "On Education" (2017) Kazakhstani school students will need to have full fluency in Kazakh, Russian and English languages by 2050. The research site of this study was also in the process of delivering an English medium of instruction. All of the science subject teachers went through the relevant training and therefore were obliged to comply with the requirements and to teach through the medium of English.

Regardless of these optimistic predictions or as Karabassova (2020) argues "high and unrealistic expectations" (p. 49), the English medium of instruction still remains a main challenge in the implementation of the trilingual education policy. In the analysed empirical studies, it became clear that teachers implementing the policy experience numerous types of

difficulties when teaching in English, with the language barrier being one of them (Karabassova, 2020; 2021; Zhilbayev et al., 2019). Karabassova (2021, p. 568) argued that mainstream school teachers:

> Did not believe in their own capacity to teach in English and did not have a continuous opportunity to learn both the language and new pedagogy.

Another study conducted by Yrsaliyev et al. (2017) noted that not only the teachers but also the students' experienced issues with the English medium of instruction due to insufficient levels of English language proficiency. It is worth noting that the participants of this study have also talked about their language barriers and feelings of discomfort and difficulties when implementing the English medium of instruction.

The State Program of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2016-2019 (SPED) (2019) noted that since 2017-2018 15 higher education institutions have provided teachers' training in natural-mathematical directions majors. Necessary teaching materials and textbooks in English have also been provided along with the relevant English language courses. For instance, as reported by NIS Annual Report (2022), 80 secondary school teachers of Computer Science, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics were offered a six-month-long online course of academic English to improve their language proficiency. The participants of this study too mentioned the organisation of school-based English language courses which were also targeted towards improving their English language levels. However, regardless of the mentioned points, the in-service teachers still experienced difficulties in implementing the English medium of instruction (Karabassova, 2021), and the need for science subject teachers with the capacity to teach through the medium of English remained high.

As a solution for the ongoing challenges with the English medium of instruction, the well-known methodology called Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) was put forward as the main type of training for implementing the policy (NIS Annual Report, 2022; SPED, 2020). As reported by NIS Annual Report (2022, p. 65):

> Efforts towards the implementation of trilingual education are currently centered on enhancing teachers' skills using the CLIL approach. In 2022, 203 teachers of Intellectual schools were trained.

The report further stated that the teachers were trained on such topics as "Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) research and practice" (NIS Annual Report, 2022, p. 65) and "Effective use of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): Preparation and practice" (NIS Annual Report, 2022, p. 65).

However, several studies conducted on teachers' use of CLIL methodology have reported that the teachers had a "low awareness of the pedagogical intentions of CLIL" (Karabassova, 2022, p. 794) and that this was "reflected in the teachers' conceptualisation of CLIL as just 'teaching through another language'" (Karabassova, 2022, p. 794).

Karabassova (2020; 2021) argued that there were two main reasons for the cause of such kinds of problems. The first involved an unsystematic approach toward organisation of teachers' training and the second was in policymakers' attitudes as they superficially introduced the English medium of instruction without necessarily taking into consideration the needed components and steps for such a demanding and challenging educational change.

During the semi-structured interviews, all of the science subject teachers talked about their struggles with the language barrier and that they experience difficulties when adopting the English language as the medium of instruction for teaching. It became clear that in-service teachers prefer to employ the use of L1 as a coping mechanism in order to make the teaching of content more accessible and comprehensible. Given the teachers' struggles with language barriers, it is still not clear as to why the policymakers are pushing hard for CLIL training and not acknowledging the need to educate the teachers on language inclusion practices. Owing to their insufficient English language proficiencies, teachers who resort to the use of other languages end up feeling guilt (Karabassova, 2020), when in fact they could legitimately use these practices if relevant professional development or training was present. Therefore, the issues with the English medium of instruction seem to be still pertaining and

the need in educating the teachers on multilingual practices such as pedagogical translanguaging remains high.

4.7.2 Theme 2: Teachers' training and lesson plans

The State Program of Education Development for 2011-2020 announced that training highly qualified teaching staff is of utmost importance and that the quality of education can be determined by only highly qualified teachers. The State Program of Education Development for 2011-2020 thus declared that this will be achieved through educating English-speaking teaching staff through Master's degree programs as well as through the "Bolashak" International Scholarship of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan.

However, teachers' training needed for the policy implementation was the most discussed and in some cases one of the most criticised aspects of the policy (Mehisto et al., 2014). While it is understood that teachers' training is an essential part of the policy and well-trained teachers are the core of its implementation, there were still some challenges that were discovered in this theme.

First, it became clear that the teachers' training as part of the implementation of the trilingual education policy was entrusted to both major and private training organisations. The major training sources were comprised of Nazarbayev University, Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools, Centre of Excellence as well as Orleu also known as the National Centre for Professional Development (NIS, 2019; SPED, 2016; 2020). These major organisations are well known for their deliveries of extensive teacher training and provisions of teachers' professional development programs. As for the private training sources, these were Ustaz Professional Learning Centre, Astana Bilim Ordasy, and other small enterprises (SPED, 2016). The State Program of Education Development for 2016-2019 mentioned that 42 Kazakhstani universities were also involved in teacher training although the exact names of these universities were not indicated (SPED, 2016). Strategic Plan "On Education" (2017)

mentioned that teachers will also be involved in other external English language training courses in order to increase their command of the language. It seems that the Ministry of Education and Science had no choice but to involve both major and private organisations due to the transition to large-scale adoption of the policy (Karabassova, 2021) to make sure that teachers receive appropriate training for its implementation. Therefore, the content, duration, and quality of the training delivered by these two types of organisations varied greatly. A study conducted by Khaldarova and Abdisadyk (2021) confirmed this where the participants shared that they had mixed feelings regarding the attended training. In their study, Khaldarova and Abdisadyk (2021) shared that some participants were satisfied with the quality of the attended training while others argued that they were not satisfied with the quality of the sessions, and some even stated that they were of poor quality. Others focused on the duration of the training and shared that the organisation of attended training felt rushed and not long enough.

Second, both preservice and in-service preparatory programs were involved in training and preparing science subject teachers to start teaching through the medium of the English language. As reported by Yerlan Sagadiyev (2018) a previous Minister of Education and Science in Kazakhstan, somewhere around 31,000 teachers were required to take these preparatory training and achieve B2 English level to be able to proceed with teaching through the medium of English. A government-based report shows that in 2018 the number of teachers who took the language training was comprised of 18,902 (Gorbunova, 2019). Another training centre known as Orleu had delivered training for 86,885 teachers in 2016 and 91,079 teachers in 2017 (NIS, 2019).

During the document analysis stage, it was noticed that the overall number of teachers who attended and took the training was different across varying sources, and this seemed to even create a dispute within the Ministry itself. For instance: the Members of the Parliament in Kazakhstan reported about 18,000 trained teachers while the number given by the Ministry

of Education and Science (MoES) was 11,423 (Karabassova, 2020). This mismatch in numbers could be due to the fact that the government does not have a unitary database that shows the exact and overall number of teachers who went through relevant training. This issue has also been noted in a study conducted by Sarmurzin et al. (2023).

One of the most important types of training that were delivered by the above-mentioned organisations was Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) training. NIS Annual Report (2021, p. 56) stated that:

> Much attention in the professional development of teachers for the implementation of trilingual education is paid to the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach when subjects are taught in the second/third language. This approach teaches subject content and language and prepares students for real life.

Content and Language Integrated Learning became one of the most important methodologies in the implementation of the trilingual education policy (Karabassova, 2022; NIS, 2021; 2022). From the interviews with the participating in-service teachers, it became clear that all of the science subject teachers were exposed to CLIL training. Interestingly, while some of the teachers reported attending locally organised CLIL training, others talked about attending international ones. This was an interesting finding as it was in line with Karabassova's (2022) arguments regarding the organisation of CLIL training. Karabassova (2022, pp. 795-796) argued that:

> Teachers were offered different CLIL workshops with different durations and different formats: e.g. 3–5-day workshops conducted by international CLIL trainers or 1-day workshops conducted by teacher-colleagues who attended international workshops.

She further posits that teachers who attend different kinds of CLIL training end up forming different views and ideas regarding this methodology. And these teachers despite attending such training which was different in format, duration, the educating tutor "were expected to demonstrate similar results and work with the common curriculum" (Karabassova, 2020, p. 47). A lack of transparency when it comes to organising such workshops and training still makes different scholars question the delivery of the trilingual education policy

(Karabassova, 2020; 2022; Sarmurzin et al., 2023). Interestingly, CLIL as well as the English language courses were the only types of training that teachers attended as part of the trilingual education policy. No other training or workshops were mentioned in regard to language incorporation strategies or pedagogical translanguaging. This was also confirmed in the interview stage as none of the participating teachers were familiar with the concept of translanguaging. Karabassova (2020) concluded that the teachers' insufficiency in teaching their disciplines through the medium of the English language could be due to the lack of proper language training. Teachers end up feeling guilty (Karabassova, 2020) for using other languages due to the lack of relevant training and awareness of crosslinguistic teaching activities.

On another note, when it comes to the lesson plans, it became clear that in this aspect there were some inconsistencies too. First of all, all of the in-service teachers' lesson plans were written in one language only which was either in English or Kazakh language. It was expected for the English language teachers' lesson plans to be in the target language (English), but not for other disciplines. For instance, almost all of the science subject teachers' lesson plans were written in English and only one was written in the Kazakh language. From this, it seemed that science subject teachers preferred to write their lesson plans in English since they were implementing the English medium of instruction as part of the policy requirement. Although it was not a prerequisite for them to write their plans strictly in English as in the case of the English language teachers. As one of the science subject teachers still decided to write the lesson plan in Kazakh, it shows that the teachers have more flexibility to follow their own language preferences in the process of writing a lesson plan. Apart from language differences, all of the plans followed almost the same design and structure which included the following key aspects: the theme of the lesson, the learning objectives, the language objectives, a subject specific vocabulary, cross-curricular

links, previous learning, and activity plan in minutes consisting of introduction, development, and conclusion.

Each lesson plan starts with the theme of the lesson, and it usually introduces the students to a particular lesson's topic. This could be a new topic or a continuation of the previous lesson's topic. The in-service teachers tended to write their themes of the lesson in a rather short and concise way by using only one or two sentences (e.g., *Healthy habits vs unhealthy habits*, Balnur, English language teacher) and some preferred to include dates and unit numbers.

The second key aspect which was the learning objectives identified the characteristics the lesson was contributing to as well as the specific aims of the lesson. This aspect too showed the differences in teachers' lesson plans. Most of the in-service teachers provided detailed characteristics of learning objectives and explained what aspects the students needed to learn by the end of the lesson (e.g., *use speaking and listening skills to solve problems creatively and cooperatively in groups; use conjunctions if, when, where, so, and, or, but to link parts of sentences in short texts,* Balnur, English language teacher). Some of the teachers, on the other hand, made brief statements by referring to a subject program without providing any other details on the learning objectives (e.g., *11.1.2.1 - explain the difference between the term's security privacy, and data integrity*, Jomart, Computer Science teacher).

The third key aspect which was the language objectives, identified the skills (writing, listening, speaking, or reading) the students were expected to develop as well as the knowledge of relevant grammar or phrases. The language objectives too were mostly written in a rather concise way without providing much detail (e.g., Focus on the development of speaking and writing skills in terms of providing utterances about environmental problems, Esengul, English language teacher). Apart from a brief mention of objectives, the in-service teachers do not thoroughly elaborate on the ways in which language objectives will be achieved during the lesson. For instance, the lesson observation showed that in-service

teachers engaged in such multilingual practices as translations, translanguaging, codeswitching, and eliciting answers from students in languages other than English. However, these practices were not explained nor mentioned in the lesson plans meaning that some of the multilingual practices the in-service teachers engaged in were not planned beforehand, but rather happened spontaneously. However, this statement does not apply to those in-service teachers' lessons where they used whiteboards to display the tasks that involved multilingual engagement; (e.g., Chemistry teacher Inkar's lesson with riddles in Kazakh and answer to the riddle in English) and from this, it is clear that teachers' used tasks and practices were obviously planned out and were targeted towards the stated language objectives.

Subject-specific vocabulary usually indicated the key terms that teachers needed to use in lessons in order to familiarise their students with them and to teach how to use them in sentences. These terms were mostly highlighted, and all of the teachers included the subject specific vocabulary in their lesson plans. However, upon examination, it became clear that none of the teachers included the key terms in three languages in their lesson plans albeit teaching them during the lessons. In most cases, the in-service teachers included the key terms in English only (e.g., *data integrity, data privacy, data security, recovery, authentication, server side scripting, and others*, Jomart, Computer Science teacher). Only one in-service teacher included key terms in two languages which were in Kazakh and Russian (e.g., *у, яд [poison]*, *арақ, водка [alcohol]*, *Fariza*, Chemistry teacher). Other teachers preferred to provide the key terms at the beginning of the lesson by displaying them on the whiteboard or by providing them as a separate spreadsheet. Interestingly, during the lessons almost all of the teachers provided the key terms in three languages which were Kazakh, English, and Russian). However, these subject-specific key terms were not specified nor included in the lesson plans. This could be due to the fact that the lessons were observed nearer the end of the study term. Possibly, for this reason, teachers did not feel the

need to include the key terms in their plans as some of the observed lessons did not introduce a new topic but were in the form of a revision or preparation for upcoming final exams. Therefore, it is difficult to state whether the key terms in the lesson plans are usually written in one, two, and three languages or if they are provided in three languages during the lessons only.

Another important point to raise is that almost all of the teachers' lesson plans did not illustrate any links or references to Kazakh culture. Interestingly, only one of the teachers included a section on Kazakh culture (healthy or unhealthy habits of Kazakh people, Balnur English language teacher) in their lesson plan. As it was mentioned in the literature review section, the trilingual education policy was introduced to revive the Kazakh language and uplift its status by putting it at the core of the policy implementation. The State Program for the Development and Functioning of Languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020 noted that:

> Implementation of youth policy will be based on upbringing of Kazakhstan patriotism, moral and spiritual culture, formation of national identity. (SPED, 2020, p. 52)

As the policy planning stage supposed the formation of the Kazakh identity, it seems that it is not yet reflected in the implementation stage. The teachers' lesson plans did not include any references to Kazakh culture (apart from only one teacher) and thus it can be said that the inclusion of such factors is not obligatory, but rather left up to the teachers' own discretion.

Whilst it is understandable that it may not be possible to link every lesson theme to Kazakh culture, the teachers could still make connections with contextual, historical, and other aspects that are relevant to Kazakh culture and society in general.

However, cross-curricular links showed different results compared to the previously discussed point about Kazakh culture. It became clear that most of the in-service teachers included cross-curricular links by identifying specific disciplines in their lesson plans. For

instance, in teaching the topic of Healthy habits vs unhealthy habits the English language teacher Balnur identified Biology and Physical Education as the main cross-curricular links. However, the teacher did not provide an explanation as to why these disciplines are relevant to the topic apart from merely listing them. A similar kind of approach was seen in other in-service teachers' lesson plans too (e.g., *Focus on Kazakhstan topic - Geography, Chemistry, Biology, Math, Kazakhstan in the modern world*, Esengul English language teacher). From this, it is seen that the teachers thought it was important to include cross-curricular links even if they did not explicitly identify the ways in which they are connected to the topic of the lesson. As most of the in-service teachers still decided to include such links in their lesson plans, it could be due to the fact that they see these links as an important aspect of CLIL methodology. It became known earlier in this section that all of the in-service teachers of this study went through CLIL training as part of the policy implementation requirement. Thus, it seems that the teachers thought that it was important to bring some of the elements of CLIL methodology although they were not explicitly communicated in the lesson plans. Lastly, previous learning and activity plans in minutes (introduction, development, and conclusion) did not show any inconsistencies as all of the teachers included them in their lesson plans and also organised them in a similar manner. The previous learning briefly explained the topic that was covered in the previous lesson and activity plan in minutes and provided a detailed overview of the whole lesson starting from the introduction to the conclusion with the addition of relevant timestamps. In this step, the teachers thoroughly explained their actions as well as each step starting from the beginning until the end of the lesson.

From the mentioned points, it can be concluded that the examination of in-service teachers' lesson plans reflected only minimal features of the trilingual teaching and translanguaging as a whole. Although it can be said that there were some aspects of lesson plans that resembled and reflected the links to CLIL methodology. All of the lesson plans were written in one

language only which was either in English or Kazakh. However, all of the plans provided the key terms and one of the teachers included the terms in two languages. Most of the teachers concentrated on naming the cross-curricular links and this as stated above could be due to the teachers' exposure to CLIL training. Contrastingly, only one of the teachers made references to Kazakh culture and there was a clear lack in providing explanations on the ways in which language objectives needed to be achieved. This is also may be connected to the fact that the in-service teachers did not receive relevant training on trilingual teaching as well as on multilingual practices that would allow them to identify the strategies for achieving the identified language objectives. The stated points do not only show the inconsistencies in lesson plans, but also highlight the link between the training and lesson plans as a product of the exposure to the training. This once again shows the importance of providing the teachers with relevant training as they equip them with the necessary knowledge and expertise especially if they are faced with the implementation of a very demanding policy such as the trilingual education policy.

4.7.3 Theme 3: Ongoing changes and setbacks to the policy

This theme captured one of the main challenges in the delivery of the policy which was its repeated and ongoing changes as well as the factors that caused setbacks to the policy. From the analysed documents and articles, it was evident that the policy went through numerous changes starting from its introduction in 2007 and up until now. If in some cases the justifications for these changes were given and discussed, then in others there were not any. Apart from constant changes, the policy has also been suffering from numerous setbacks which put the initial plans and aims of the policy on pause. Both the changes and setbacks in the implementation of the policy are presented further.

Firstly, one of the biggest changes in the implementation of the policy was the shift in the medium of instruction for core subjects. The initial model of the trilingual education policy

(See Tables 18 and 19) necessitated the History of Kazakhstan to be taught in Kazakh and World History to be taught in the Russian language while four science subjects to be taught in English (forbes.kz, 2016). The following tables illustrate the initial model of the trilingual education policy and specify the subjects and their mediums of instruction.

Table 21. The initial model of the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan
Kazakh as a medium of instruction classes

In Kazakh medium	In Russian medium	In English medium
Core subjects	Russian Language and Literature, World History	English language, Biology, Physics, and Computer Science, Chemistry

Table 22. *Russian as a medium of instruction classes*

In Kazakh medium	In Russian medium	In English medium
Kazakh language, Kazakh literature, The History of Kazakhstan	Core subjects	English language, Biology, Physics, and Computer Science, Chemistry

From the two tables above, it can be seen that in the initial model of the trilingual education policy, the History of Kazakhstan needed to be taught in Kazakh for Russian medium classes and World History in Russian for Kazakh medium classes. This was needed in order to increase the language abilities of Kazakh-speaking students in Russian and Russian-speaking students' abilities in Kazakh by exposing them to disciplines in the respective mediums of instruction. As it was thoroughly discussed in Chapter 2: Literature review, the introduction and then adoption of the trilingual education policy was needed in order to uplift the status of the Kazakh language and maintain the use of the Russian language. However, in the updated model of the trilingual education policy (See Tables 21 and 22), it is seen that these subjects have been removed meaning that both Kazakh and Russian medium classes will continue learning the History of Kazakhstan and World History disciplines in their L1.

Updated model of the trilingual educational policy in Kazakhstan
Table 21. *Kazakh as a medium of instruction classes*

In Kazakh medium	In Russian medium	In English medium
Core subjects	Russian Language and Literature	English language, Biology, Physics, and Computer Science, Chemistry

Table 22. *Russian as a medium of instruction classes*

In Kazakh medium	In Russian medium	In English medium
Kazakh language and literature	Core subjects	English language, Biology, Physics, and Computer Science, Chemistry

In 2018, the Ministry of Education and Science (MoES, 2018) made a decision to change and update the initial model of the trilingual education policy (See Tables 21 and 22). The updated model is intended to use English as a medium of instruction to teach four science subjects while the remaining subjects are to be taught in native languages which are either Kazakh or Russian (MoES, 2018). The Ministry of Education and Science (MoES) diverged from the initial plan which was intended to target the use of the three languages in teaching certain disciplines. According to Karabassova (2020, p. 45):

> As the policy moved to the next level, the idea of teaching Kazakh history and world history through, respectively, Kazakh L2 and Russian L2 had gradually been fading away, as further references were only about English as a medium of instruction policy.

From this it seems that the First President Nazarbayev's proposed idea of trilingual education and concentrating on three languages which "simultaneously implied using all three languages for teaching subjects" (Karabassova, 2020, p. 45) is shifting towards the English as a medium instruction instead. Similar points have also been raised by Sarmurzin et al. (2023) who questioned the policy by stating the following: "Is Kazakhstan's TEP indeed trilingual education?" (p. 2). The policy which initially supposed the increased use of Kazakh and Russian as L2 (See Tables 21 and 22) made a diversion toward English as a medium of instruction and concentrated on it since then.

Interestingly, upon analysing the state and policy-related normative documents it became clear that the word “trilingual” was mentioned in the SPED (2016-2019) thirteen times whereas in the SPED (2011-2020) this word was used only twice. In another important document called the National Plan 100 Concrete Steps (2015) the word “trilingual” was not mentioned at all. As these policy-related documents set directions and goals for educational development, it is unclear as to why the trilingual education policy was not thoroughly discussed nor presented in them. Contrastingly, the word “English” was mentioned in SPED (2016-2019) twenty-six times, twice in SPED (2011-2020) and four times in National Plan 100 Concrete Steps (2015). This once again proves the abovementioned statements regarding the trilingual education policy concentrating more on English and thus diverting its attention from trilingual teaching to English as a medium of instruction.

Besides the secondary schools, the shift in focus from trilingual education policy to English is also bringing its changes to primary schools and higher educational institutions. For example, in primary schools, the learning of the English language used to be from Grade 1 or 5, and this depended on the school’s type and capacity (Kambatyrova, 2022). However, starting from 2022, the English language is to be taught as a subject from Grade 3 (Angliiskii yazyk v shkolakh Kazakhstana budut izuchat tolko s tretego klassa, 2022), in order to prepare the pupils for the English medium of instruction program that begins in secondary school level.

Another change or setback in the policy was seen from the policy’s diversion from the initial plan which was to move all mainstream schools to English medium of instruction. The Ministry of Education and Science (2016) reported that all mainstream schools should move to the English medium of instruction in the 2021-2022 academic year. Instead of that, a setback in the policy was declared in 2019 which reported that the shift to an English medium of instruction will be paused in all mainstream schools (Nazarbayev, 2019). As a result, the trilingual education policy and specifically English medium of instruction

teaching are currently being implemented only in three types of secondary schools which are Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools, Daryn, and Bilim-Innovation Lyceums (Kambatyrova, 2022). However, the teachers working in mainstream schools who went through training and also who received a salary raise had to proceed with teaching in English (Karabassova, 2021).

Interestingly, due to the constant setbacks and diversions in the initial plans, it also became clear that the policy is suffering from the lack of clear and set timelines for its implementation. This has also been noted by Karabassova (2020, p. 49) who argued that:

> For over 10 years, the trilingual education policy existed as a discourse rather than a discreet policy document with clear action plans. It started as teaching different subjects via three languages (Kazakh, Russian, English) and then became EMI during its implementation until it was stalled.

However, the current President of Kazakhstan Kassym-Jomart Tokayev (2019) made a decision to bring back the teaching via Kazakh and Russian which once again proves the inconsistency of this policy. Tokayev (2019) announced that the trilingual education policy is of utmost importance and that Kazakh and Russian languages should come first and be prioritised and only then the English language. The plans to bring back the teaching via Kazakh and Russian were not communicated in the analysed documents and thus it is unclear how this will be accomplished.

Similarly, this changing and rather abstract pattern has also been noticed in the policy-related documents as well. The document called “The Roadmap for the Development of Trilingual Education in Kazakhstan for 2015-2020” was specifically adopted for trilingual reform by the Ministry of Education and Science in 2015 (MoES, 2015). It was developed by the Ministry of Education and Science’s working group in 2015 (MoES, 2015). The developed roadmap contains information in relation to the implementation of the trilingual policy and includes seven main strategic principles. These principles are as follows:

> legislative and normative base, research work, methodological and textbook support, teachers training and professional development, institutional and informational

> support, and the matters of finance. (The Roadmap for the Development of Trilingual Education, 2015, pp. 6-8)

The document itself is quite short (only 8 pages), and each of these principles consists of half-page information and in some cases less than that. Most importantly, the roadmap which is supposedly viewed as a pillar of the trilingual education policy implementation does not mention nor provide any information on trilingual teaching. The roadmap does not mention anything on how the teachers should approach trilingual teaching; the roles of the three languages and whether switches between the languages in the form of "translanguaging" are allowed in the classroom spaces. The roadmap only provides brief information on the abovementioned aspects and does not address the most important part of policy implementation which is trilingual teaching and language incorporation. In other words, the use of translanguaging practices was not considered, reflected, or approved in one of the most important documents for the implementation of the trilingual education policy. The Roadmap for The Development of Trilingual Education (2015) only mentions the development of trilingual terminologies and textbooks as one of the main priorities within the methodological and textbook support strategic principle. However, the State Program of Education Development (2016) pointed out that there is still a lack of textbooks that support strategic principles and that they are essential for the effective delivery of the trilingual education policy.

In her biographical segment, Karabassova (2020) shared that she took part in the development of the "Trilingual Education Implementation Strategy - 2020" (p. 39). According to her the initial number of people involved in it included over 20 people but, in the end, the strategy was finalised by only 4 people (Karabassova, 2020; AEO NIS, 2014). Karabassova (2020, p. 39) further revealed that:

> The final 30-page draft, including key conceptual terms, was passed onto the MoES for consideration and was approved as a 2-page document, titled "Roadmap of trilingual education development in Kazakhstan for 2015-2020" (MoES, 2014), containing just a broad list of activities rather than any desired outcomes and

> milestones. The reason why the document was shortened was not explained to the strategy developers.

The Roadmap for the Development of Trilingual Education in Kazakhstan for 2015-2020 which was intended to provide recommendations for the reform's implementation did not contain "any expected outcomes, milestones, or key indicators to the stakeholders" (Karabassova, 2020, p. 44). For this reason, as Karabassova (2020) noted the roadmap "became a mere formal document to which all organisations were referring in reports and presentations" (p. 44). Indeed, the roadmap does not provide nor identify any timelines or periods for achieving certain goals and thus it can be said that Karabassova's (2020) raised points are appropriate.

This was also seen in the interview stage of this study as most of the participating teachers provided only general information regarding the policy and did not refer to or name any of the official policy documents related to the trilingual education policy. It seemed that the teachers were not fully aware of the whole process of implementing the policy, and that it was still quite vague. Interestingly, this roadmap which was adopted as one of the most important documents for the implementation of the trilingual education policy discusses the plans only for 2015-2020. There have not been any updates to the document for 2021-2023, so it is not so clear what actions are expected to be taken in this period.

The reason behind this vagueness and constant changes and setbacks to the policy could be explained by one important factor and this is a continuous change in the ruling body specifically in the change of the ministers. From the outset of the trilingual education policy in 2007, there were eight different ministers who were responsible for the delivery of the policy. Each of the ministers brought their own vision and understanding of the policy and therefore made according and relevant changes to the policy implementation. These ministers' efforts in making sense of the policy and then bringing their own changes were due to the lack of clear, unified, and most importantly consistent policy implementation guidelines. From such observations, it can be said that Karabassova's (2020) statements

about the trilingual education policy existing only as a discourse "rather than a discreet policy document with clear action plans" (p. 49) prove to be true. Thus, from this section, it becomes clear that there were many changes and setbacks to the policy, and it is safe to assume that further changes and additions may be implemented in due course.

4.7.4 Theme 4: Elitist policy

This theme captures the characteristics of the two types of schools that have not only been affected by the policy, but also need to implement the trilingual education policy at their premises. These two sites are Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools and mainstream schools where the former was established to "test and translate" (NIS, 2016) the policy and the latter to "learn and implement". Apart from these two schools, other schools such as Daryn and Bilim-Innovation Lyceums have also been teaching under the trilingual education reform (Karabassova, 2020). Interestingly, Daryn, Bilim-Innovation Lyceums, and Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools are considered to be elite schools for gifted students whereas mainstream schools are known as publicly available types of schools. Regardless of these strike differences all of these schools are still expected to become trilingual and teach under this reform. However, most studies that have looked at these schools' implementation of the reform reported on the vast gaps between mainstream and Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools, and as Smagulova (2021) noted the policy seems to be deepening inequalities and resulting in "elite closure" (p. 266). According to her "it appears that language policy has unintentionally resulted in widening social difference and social inequality" (Smagulova, 2021, p. 266) due to the stark differences the two schools have.

If to start with Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools' characteristics and mode of education, then it is considered to be multifaceted and consists of the following aspects:

- "State-funded, full-day schools with two directions (specialisations): one is physics–mathematics and another chemistry–biology.
- A new governance structure: High Board of Trustees and a Board of Trustees.
- Academic freedom (e.g., in selecting curriculum).

- Internationally recognised curriculum (e.g., IB and a new curriculum developed with the support of Cambridge International Examination – CIE).
- Trilingual policy.
- Strategic partnerships with major international educational providers.
- Dissemination of accumulated experience: expected to transfer successful experience and practices to the wider system of education in Kazakhstan" (Yakavets, 2014, p. 523).

Clearly, the above-mentioned characteristics point to the school's desire to "depart from existing norms and pioneer new practices" (Shamshidinova, Ayubayeva, and Bridges, 2014, p. 73). Another distinguishing characteristic that puts Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools and mainstream schools apart is the fact that the former has its own established payroll system which allows for hiring highly qualified teachers and this cannot be told about the latter school (Yakavets, 2014). Even though the teachers' salary system in Kazakhstan is in the form of *stavka* which means in accordance with the teaching load (Yakavets et al., 2023), the mainstream school teachers' salary is still considered to be lower compared to the teachers in Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools. As a result of which more qualified and knowledgeable teachers may prefer and decide to work in highly paid schools and this potentially decreases the chances of less qualified teachers who may find themselves working in mainstream schools.

Another point in favour of Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools is that they have a rigorous teacher hiring process and who are selected for "strong academic qualifications, relevant teaching experience, and good language and IT skills are invited for interview" (Yakavets, 2014, p. 524). Mainstream schools in contrast to Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools do not have such high requirements for their teachers. Interestingly, Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools are also known for employing foreign teachers, especially those who can teach STEM subjects in the English language (NIS Annual Report, 2012). This in its turn enables the local teacher to benefit and learn from the foreign teacher's expertise. Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools call this collaboration between a foreign and local teacher as team-

teaching (Fimyar, 2018) where one teacher may lead the lesson, and another provides instructions and guidance during tasks.

Apart from this Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools have great resources (Mehisto et al., 2022), as they are known for financing "modern technology and robotic equipment" (Fimyar, 2018, p. 303) which cannot be told about the mainstream schools. The same has been confirmed by one of the participant's semi-structured interviews which noted that the school is highly equipped for laboratory work and that it was one of the main reasons as to why the teacher chose the school as a workplace. To remind, other teachers of this study mentioned that they chose the school for the opportunity to teach intellectual students and one of the teachers called these schools as simply the best type of schools. Clearly, the teachers' statements show that Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools have better resources and better reputations which may potentially attract teachers from mainstream schools. This in turn may "create some tensions within the entire education system when schools compete not only for the best students but also for the best teachers" (Yakavets, 2014, p. 528). Yakavets (2014, p. 529) then questions the policy by stating that:

> How much could teachers in other public schools learn and change their practice, given that they are still working with an 'old' curriculum and forms of assessment? The evidence from this research suggests that policy-makers and practitioners in Kazakhstan want to learn from international experience and that they are focused on capacity building and developing the potential of local experts. Indeed, they show openness, motivation with a strong drive toward excellence, enthusiasm and the ability to work hard. However, some believe that they are being asked to change too much too quickly. Reforms take time to be properly developed and effectively implemented.

As the gaps between the two schools are clear, the scholars (Mehisto et al., 2022; Smagulova, 2021) started to question how Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools are going to "test and translate" (NIS, 2016), and whether it would be possible for the mainstream schools to "learn and implement" due to the obvious vast gaps between them. As Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools are equipped with the needed resources, equipment, competitive salary, and teaching staff, it seems that the policy is indeed becoming to resemble an elitist type of

policy as it is still not so clear how the translated experience would be applicable in the mainstream school realias. This brings to mind Hong Kong's model of trilingual education which was discussed in Chapter 2: Literature review. From the points discussed there, it became clear that Hong Kong too prioritised and promoted the use of English as a medium of instruction as part of its Trilingual and Biliterate policy. However, influenced by parents, the availability of teachers, and schools' facilities, Hong Kong decided to "fine-tune" (Lau, 2020) the policy by granting schools full autonomy to decide on a medium of instruction based on their conditions and available resources (Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2015). This initiative ended the debates as well as the strong segregation between English and Chinese medium schools as the schools are free to choose either full or partial English/Chinese mediums of instruction (Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2015). From this, it is evident that policymakers are not the only drivers of the policy, but parents', teachers', and students' voices can also contribute to policy change. When it comes to Kazakhstan's case, the policymakers should also consider other stakeholders' views and opinions regarding the policy implementation. Following Hong Kong's example, the policymakers could also allow each type of school to decide on adopting either partial or full English as a medium of instruction based on their circumstances and needs. As currently, the policy obliges and expects every type of school to undertake a full English medium of instruction, it seems that such schools as NIS would be in an advantageous position whereas mainstream schools would have difficulties. As each type of school would be expected to demonstrate similar results by showing their abilities in trilingual teaching, specifically in the English medium of instruction, it becomes even more essential to allow each type of school to adjust to the requirements based on their capabilities.

4.7.5 Section summary

This last section of this chapter provided the findings from the documents analysis which looked at lesson plans, empirical articles, as well as policy-related normative documents on trilingual education policy. The section consisted of four main themes which were on issues with EMI, teachers' training and lesson plans, ongoing changes and setbacks to the policy, and elitist policy. Before providing a summary of each of the mentioned themes it is important to remind that the document analysis undertook an interpretive-critical framework which means that highly debatable, problematic, and questionable parts of the policy were discussed and exposed.

The first theme, issues with EMI, identified EMI as one of the most challenging and problematic aspects of the trilingual education policy. This theme highlighted the fact that the English language creates difficulties for in-service teachers as they experience language barriers when teaching through it. As most teachers had limited exposure to the English language prior to the implementation of the policy the analysed studies argued that the policymakers were setting high requirements and unrealistic expectations for the teachers. As a way of mitigating issues with EMI, the CLIL was proposed as the main methodology for the implementation of teaching through the medium of the English language.

The second theme, teachers' training, and lesson plans discussed the teachers' training in relation to the implementation of the trilingual education policy. This theme revealed that the teachers' training has been entrusted to both major and private training organisations. It also became clear that the number of teachers who attended this training was different across varying sources and this seemed to be due to the lack of a unitary database that could provide an exact number of teachers who received training. Also, one of the most important trainings that the teachers had to take was on CLIL methodology which was also subject to criticism as the teachers seemed to be conceptualising it differently. It was concluded that the reason behind this was in unsystematic provision of training as the duration, the trainer, and the content were different across various training providers. Besides CLIL and English

language courses, no other types of training were mentioned in the analysed documents. The analysis of lesson plans revealed that although not explicitly, but at least some of the features of CLIL methodology were present in them. As teachers went through CLIL training, this showed the potential connection between teachers' training and its impact on their practices including the lesson plans. As no training was provided on multilingual teaching and awareness it became important to reiterate the need in introducing such kind of training for the teacher who could then legitimately apply multilingual teaching strategies in teaching practice.

The third theme, which is on ongoing changes and setbacks to the policy, highlighted the numerous kinds of changes that arose starting from the policy introduction in 2007 and up until now. One of the biggest changes in the implementation of the policy was the change in the medium of instruction for core subjects, specifically teaching the History of Kazakhstan and World History through Kazakh L2 and Russian L2. Another important change was in the setback of the policy which promulgated that shift to the trilingual education will be paused for mainstream schools while other flagmen schools will continue testing and teaching the trilingual education policy. There were also some inconsistencies in the documents, and it was concluded that a possible reason for ongoing changes and setbacks to the policy is the constant changes in the ruling body.

The last theme, which was on the elitist policy, discussed the vast differences between the schools implementing the trilingual education and the schools that are expected to learn from the former type of school. It seems that the policy is deepening inequalities between the schools, and it is still not completely clear how the former types of schools will translate their experiences to mainstream schools. The inequalities were seen in the teaching staff, the provided facilities and resources, training, and others. Considering these, it was concluded that the policy seems to be of an elitist type of policy as it expects the same results from two types of schools without taking into account their vast differences. As a way of

recommendation for policymakers, it was suggested to look at other countries' trilingual models, one of which was Hong Kong which decided to fine-tune the policy implementation. By fine-tuning and providing each type of school autonomy and freedom to decide on the ways in which they can implement the policy based on their capabilities would help in eradicating the overarching idea of elitism.

The next chapter, which is the last chapter of this thesis work, brings together the identified research questions and summarises the answers to them by providing conclusive remarks.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

5.1 Chapter Introduction

In the previous chapters I presented and discussed the results from the three sources of data collection which were semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, and document analysis. The findings of which were linked to the adopted theoretical framework as well as to the existing research on the investigated subject matter. The main purpose of this research study was not only to learn about the participants' views and attitudes toward the language policy, but also it was about understanding the policy overall, its current status as well as its challenges and benefits. Thus, I was not taken aback by the amount of work that I had to commit to and undertake due to the adoption of the three different data collection methods. As I am confident that this research will bring to the policymakers' attention the aspects that have been raised by the participants. Moreover, I hope that other in-service teachers who are implementing the policy will read this work and learn about such transformative practices as pedagogical translanguaging. I also hope that the recommendations provided at the end of this chapter will be taken into consideration by policymakers, pre-service teachers as well as in-service teachers who are implementing the trilingual education policy.

Thus, this chapter provides my own reflections on the key findings by answering the identified three research questions. Following that the chapter brings to the reader's attention both recommendations and directions for further research that should be considered in the trilingual education policy. Finally, this chapter brings together the advantages and limitations of this study, and personal reflections, and provides a reflection on the doctoral journey.

5.2 Reflections on the Key Findings and Recommendations

Following the analysis and discussion of the results in the previous chapter, I now delve into the discussion of my own reflections on the results by answering this study's three research questions as well as their sub-questions. First, I start by answering research question one which is presented below.

5.2.1 Research Question 1

What are in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging in implementing the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan?

The first research question of my study sought to explore the in-service teachers' views and attitudes when it comes to the use of translanguaging as a pedagogic tool to implement a language policy. The results of the study, as extensively discussed in Chapter 4: Results and Discussion, show that the in-service teachers' views and attitudes mostly differed, and they were shaped by the disciplines they taught in the school.

The in-service teachers' opinions and views were split into two groups who were English language teachers and science subject teachers. Apart from many changes which are addressed further, there were two common aspects that were shared by these two groups of teachers. Firstly, both English language teachers and science subject teachers had positive views regarding the trilingual education policy and did not show any resistance to its implementation. The teachers shared that the policy helps students to become trilingual and this leads to such beneficial aspects as prospects in future education and careers. Some other teachers liked the opportunity to teach through the medium of English due to the access and ability to use materials in English. The second common aspect shared by these two groups of teachers was the fact that none of the teachers were familiar with the concept of translanguaging. The spontaneous and in some cases pedagogical translanguaging they

engaged in their lessons was mostly done on a natural and in some cases on an intuitive level rather than on a theoretical basis.

It also became clear that English language teachers still hold the "maximum exposure to the target language" belief (Li, 2022). The teachers shared that they prefer to deliver their lessons in English with only a minimum amount of inclusion of other languages. Their attitudes towards any kind of language incorporation activities were quite unwilling and there were two factors that may have influenced and shaped their beliefs.

First of all, an important factor that emerged throughout the research was the fact that English language teachers were not exposed to any training for the implementation of trilingual education policy as reported by the teachers themselves. Interestingly this group of teachers was the one to deliver English language seminars for science subject teachers as the latter group required help with English language learning. English language teachers were not classified as the group that may need support and instead, it can be said that they were shadowed by the science subject teachers' needs.

Another factor that is equally important to raise is the school administration's attitude toward the teaching of the English language. From one of the participants' words, it was revealed that the school administration expected English language teachers to teach predominantly in English. The teachers felt the urge to use a 40-minute lesson as an opportunity to expose the students to as much English as possible which potentially puts seeing multilingual practices as a *status quo* in English language lessons into question. Clearly, there still seems to be some sort of stigma associated with language incorporation and mixing. The only pedagogic value of multilingual practices they saw was when they had to incorporate the students' L1 when teaching and explaining complex grammar. The results of the study thus suggest that the attitude toward the monolingual preference is largely influenced by not only personal beliefs but also can be shaped by lack of training, support, and imposed expectations of the school administration.

The science subject teachers, on the other hand, had more flexibility and showed their positive outlook on translanguaging practices and shared that they actively resort to different languages when teaching. This group of teachers were more willing to incorporate the students' languages into teaching and as in the case of English language teachers, there were two factors for that. First of all, from both interviews and lesson observations it became clear that science subject teachers possessed more freedom when it comes to resorting to other languages. As reported by the teachers themselves they were "allowed" to teach in languages other than English and this point was made clear by both policy documents and school administration. Although the teachers were obliged to undertake training and language courses to start teaching their disciplines in the English language, they still were not pressured to deliver their lessons strictly in English only.

Second of all, science subject teachers' willing attitude toward the utilisation of the three languages was due to their levels of the English language. The teachers shared that they experience a language barrier and that their current English language levels do not allow them to deliver the lessons fully in English. As their disciplines involve theories, calculations, lab work, and explanations of complex topics, the teachers shared that their English command is not good enough to explain the materials to the students in an accessible way. For this reason, these teachers resort to Kazakh and Russian languages mainly due to their own struggles in delivering the materials in English. Clearly, the attitudes that science subject teachers possess toward translanguaging practices are more positive and willing, but it seems that some of them may still view such practices as some sort of a coping mechanism rather than a transformative teaching strategy.

5.2.2 Research Question 2

How do Kazakhstani in-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical translanguaging influence their teaching practices?

and subsidiary question

What strategies do teachers employ to incorporate pedagogical translanguaging into their teaching practice?

The second research question of my study concentrated on the in-service teachers' willingness to undertake multilingual teaching practices and what strategies they employed in their everyday teaching practices. While most of the participants' views and attitudes informed their teaching practices when it comes to pedagogical translanguaging, there were still some participants whose views were contradictory to their practices. All of the English language teachers reported their preferences in teaching only through the medium of instruction with an occasional switch to other languages when explaining complex grammatical points. Upon conducting lesson observations, it became clear that English language teachers' practices could be categorised into two distinct groups. The first group's teaching practices corresponded to their claimed views and opinions when it comes to language incorporations. This group of teachers did not only adhere to the target language only teaching, but also required the same from their students. Two of the English language teachers did not allow their students to speak in Kazakh and Russian languages and even interrupted them by stating that they needed to provide the same answers in the English language. The teachers did not accept the students' questions in other languages too and made sure that they asked questions in English only as well. This practice adopted by the teachers seemed to resemble seeing other languages as problems (Ruiz, 1984) where any incorporation of other languages could disrupt the teaching and learning process. Interestingly, despite one of the English language teachers' efforts to keep an English language speaking space, the teacher herself had to switch to the students' languages in order to establish rapport with them by making remarks. The teacher knew that the students would react to their languages and thus used occasional code-switching as a tool for classroom management purposes (Haifa, 2010; Kim & Petraki, 2009; Macaro, 2005). This

once again proves the fact that some of the English language teachers still hold strong beliefs about the separation of languages and seem to use other languages only as a last resort. However, there were some teachers who in spite of their reluctant and in some cases unwilling attitudes toward language incorporations still were engaged in opening up a space for other languages. These teachers too preferred to adhere to “English-only” teaching, but they did not necessarily expect the same from their students. In these teachers' lessons, the students were able to interact with each other in their preferred languages during the peer work. The students were also able to ask questions in other languages, although the teachers’ responses were in English. In these lessons, the students' languages were not ignored, and the teachers did not put the students under the pressure of speaking only in the English language.

The results that were drawn from science subject teachers showed that they were more eager to engage in language incorporation practices than in the case of English language teachers. From the lesson observations, it became clear that they incorporated different strategies as codeswitching, translation and even translanguaging, both spontaneous and pedagogical in their teaching practices. Most of the science subject teachers used these strategies as coping mechanisms (Sah & Kubota, 2022), due to their inability to deliver the lessons only in English. In some cases, the teachers resorted to the strategies to make the materials clearer and more accessible for the students. In other cases, one of the science subject teachers shifted to the students’ language in order to open up a space for translanguaging and invite others to join in bringing their languages into this space. This resulted in peer support and showed that translanguaging can create an enjoyable learning environment (Pun & Tai, 2022) whenever the students are allowed to put their languages into use. There were some science subject teachers who showed emerging stances on translanguaging, and this was seen from how they utilised the three languages for pedagogical purposes. These were evident in one of the science subject teachers’ lessons where the learning materials were not

only given in the three languages, but also the teacher made constant links to these languages throughout the whole lesson. These links were given in such ways where the text on the board was given in English or Kazakh, and the teacher explained it in Kazakh or English. Similarly, the same strategy was used when asking questions from the students and eliciting answers from them. The teachers constantly created fluid links between the languages and leveraged the students' knowledge of these languages (Haukås, 2016). The teacher did not base the used strategies on any theories, but rather decided to use them intuitively. This once again shows the importance of providing the training for in-service teachers around multilingual use as these teachers would not only learn about the legitimacy of their actions, but actually learn how to use them more purposefully. After all, as Gorter and Arocena (2020) concluded that professional development courses can change teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and help them become more inclined toward adopting translanguaging practices into their teaching practices.

5.2.3 Research Question 3

How do school documents and lesson plans reflect the usage of pedagogical translanguaging?

The study's third and final research question explored the "The Trinity of Languages" policy in detail by analysing the relevant policy documents and research articles. Particularly, it investigated the role of pedagogical translanguaging within the implementation of the policy. It was revealed that none of the included documents captured the essence of the pedagogical translanguaging practice in the implementation of the trilingual education policy. This is because the trilingual education policy adopted Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as its main methodology for implementing the policy (Mehisto et al., 2022; MoES, 2015; NIS, 2021; 2022). As part of the policy, the teachers attended CLIL training in order to be able to qualify for teaching through the medium of the English

language. However, it became clear that the offered CLIL training differed in length, trainers, and in location too (Karabassova, 2022). While some of the teachers attended international CLIL training, others were offered only locally based courses (Karabassova, 2022). These differences resulted in teachers' forming various views regarding the methodology and its execution which contradicted the overall idea of demonstrating similar results and working with the same curriculum.

The issue of EMI emerged strongly throughout the analysed documents and empirical studies. The policy documents acknowledged the issues and struggles with EMI and as a support, the teachers were offered English language courses and an additional bonus to their salaries. As most of the teachers had limited or no prior exposure to the English language and as a result, some of the empirical studies argued that the policymakers had overly optimistic and even unrealistic expectations (Karabassova, 2022). The studies claimed that the trilingual education policy was turning into EMI policy as policymakers were accentuating their attention on English only leaving behind the other two languages which are Kazakh and Russian (Sarmurzin et al., 2023). This puts the initial idea behind the implementation of the "Trinity of Languages" policy in question as its main mission was to not only promote or teach through the medium of the English language, but it was rather supposed to target the Kazakh language and uplift and increase its status (Nazarbayev, 2007). Thus, it can be said that the policy has diverted from its initial plans and seems to be putting the English medium of instruction at its core.

It also became clear that the policy is inferring the one-size-fits-all method by obliging both NIS and mainstream schools to implement the policy regardless of the obvious differences between these two types of schools (Yakavets, 2014). The first type of schools are known for the facilities, resources, and equipment they have, and the rigorous selection of teaching staff and students (Yakavets, 2014), while the same cannot be said about the second type of schools. Given these differences, it is still not clear whether NIS schools' translated

experiences would be applicable to mainstream schools and thus it can be said that the policy is potentially taking up an elitist form.

Most importantly, the policy seemed to be vague due to the numerous kinds of changes and additions to it. The main document The Roadmap for the Development of Trilingual Education in Kazakhstan for 2015-2020 which was specifically developed for the implementation of the policy did not contain any timelines, the expected outcomes, or recommendations for different stakeholders including the teachers (Karabassova, 2020). This two-page document did not communicate the ways in which the students' learning potential could be enhanced by targeting all three languages in teaching and instead, it focuses on English language only. Obviously, deficit ideologies seem to surround the delivery of the trilingual education policy as monolingualism is still viewed as an ideal practice as opposed to multilingual one.

In countries such as Kazakhstan, where the curriculum is unified and monolingual teaching is implied (Klyshbekova, 2023), a translanguaging practice seemingly a natural choice given the countries' multilingualism, still struggles to gain ground in policy implementation. As the policy documents and administrations do not expect the teachers to benefit from the students' existing language repertoires and utilise them in teaching, the teachers often find themselves trapped in a dilemma; the teachers undertake multilingual teaching, but end up feeling guilt (Karabassova, 2020; Schoeman et al., 2023) or the teachers follow monolingual teaching, but at the expense of the students' comprehension.

In sum, although the in-service teachers in this study showed a willingness to benefit from multilingual teaching, the policymakers nor the policy itself do not seem to be expecting such attitudes from them. As pedagogical translanguaging practices or other forms of multilingual inquiry were not explicitly stated or implied in the documents it can be stated that such pedagogical practices still do not belong to the status quo in Kazakhstani schools (Klyshbekova, 2023). It can be concluded that without the collaboration of policymakers and

teachers in finding the needed balance between teaching the content and at the same time bringing the languages into the classroom spaces, it is likely that the teachers would find it hard to resort to pedagogical translanguaging practices legitimately.

5.3 Limitations of the present study

This research work has several limitations that need to be considered and acknowledged. First, the biggest limitation of this study was the time constraint. The start of my data collection fell in the period of January 2022, which is now known as a "Қанды қаңтар" (Bloody January) tragedy in Kazakhstan. This month was marked by a series of mass protests and riots that took place in many cities of Kazakhstan including my data collection city. The schools were closed, and all international flights were cancelled and postponed and thus I had to wait until the situation in the country settled down. By the time I was allowed to travel to Kazakhstan the academic year in schools was approaching the end, making it even more difficult for me, as the teachers were busy with final exams and assessments. It is also worth mentioning that COVID-19 related cases were still being reported in Kazakhstan, therefore making the data collection process even more challenging for me. Although I managed to collect my data, I believe a lengthier period of time spent with the participants would have allowed me to build better relationships with them and generate more data. Although I was able to conduct one pre-observation interview, one observation, and one post-observation interview with each of the participants, I still feel that the topic of trilingual education in Kazakhstan deserves a lengthier time investment whether through longitudinal study or through conducting a set of observations. Looking back at the collected data and conducted research I believe that a participatory type of research could allow to co-construct research through collaborating with in-service teachers who are implementing the trilingual education policy. Thus, future research could look into more longitudinal studies that would depict the teachers' views in a more detailed manner. I am interested to continue researching

this topic and one of the possibilities would be by undertaking it as part of a postdoctoral project.

Second, this research work involved only the in-service teachers as the participants of the study. Once again due to the time constraint, but mainly due to my own interests, I opted for exploring the views of the main implementers of the policy and the reasons for such choice have been clearly stated in Chapter 1: Introduction. For future research, involving parents and students would add another set of important implications as it is equally significant to understand the ways in which they view the policy and their attitudes towards the three languages in the policy.

Third, this research work does not offer any quantitative data and as a result, has a relatively small sample size. In order to provide a quantitative evidence, future research can look into the conduction of surveys across two types of schools which are NIS and mainstream schools. This would help to identify whether the policy is indeed undertaking an elitist approach as it was mentioned in the document analysis stage. The conduction of such a survey would result in valuable insights regarding how each type of school is shaping its own understanding of the policy as well as approaching its implementation.

Another limitation of the study is that the results of this research work cannot be generalised to other secondary schools as this study looked at the experiences of only one school. As it was revealed in the document analysis stage, the schools in Kazakhstan have their own distinctive features and can differ by their statuses, the resources they have, the qualifications of the teaching staff, the students and the adopted curriculum. Therefore, the results of this study provide an understanding of the views and opinions of in-service teachers from only one school and teachers from other Kazakhstani schools may hold different views and opinions towards the investigated subject.

The final limitation of this study is that it concentrated on only in-service teachers' views and did not involve the views of other affected stakeholders such as pre-service teachers,

students, parents, school administration, and policymakers. Although the inclusion of diverse stakeholders' perspectives on the investigated topic would have provided a more holistic and thorough understanding of the policy. However, due to the mentioned time constraint and the length of the program, the investigation of diverse stakeholders' perspectives may not have been feasible.

5.4 The implications and recommendations of the present study for future research

The results of this study unveil a range of opportunities that may be applicable to future research. Firstly, as was mentioned in the limitation section above, future research could look into bringing diverse stakeholders' views and opinions on the policy together. Moreover, future research could also target other language-based disciplines as this research looked at two disciplines only, namely English language and science based subjects. Such an extensive set of data would enable educators, researchers, and policymakers to understand and see the policy more holistically. Inconsistencies in the identified policy documents and lack of proper policy guidelines which were raised in this study could bring the policymakers' attention to taking a more systematic approach to the formation of the policy. Additionally, training and seminars need to be delivered that would raise the in-service teachers' awareness of multilingual teaching practices. From this study, it became clear that both English language and science subject teachers were not fully familiar with the concept of translanguaging and were mostly self-guided in their teaching as part of implementing the trilingual education policy. Moreover, the findings and discussion chapter has indicated the teachers' ranging attitudes toward language incorporations and the ways in which they adopted such practices in teaching. This means that the teachers do not have a general or commonly established approach to translanguaging practice. Thus, one of the most important implications that this study argues about is in the importance of producing and providing relevant professional training programs for in-service teachers, specifically in

translanguaging practices. In-service teachers need to be educated on various aspects of translanguaging practices and its strategies that can be applicable in trilingual settings. Such professional training would not only raise their awareness of the importance of translanguaging practices but would also allow them to start using such practices more meaningfully and purposefully.

From the document analysis, it became clear that the policymakers put CLIL training at the core of implementing the policy, but this research argued that multilingual and translanguaging training should be given an equal value as well. The professional development in the form of workshops or seminars should bring to the teachers' attention the advantageous parts of the multilingual approach, so that they do not ignore the students' existing language repertoires, but rather see them as instruments that can empower and motivate them. The policymakers could look into the perspectives of adding multilingual practices, specifically pedagogical translanguaging to existing school curricula. Such initiatives would help in-service teachers overcome their resistance to language incorporation and start using these practices more effectively, purposefully, meaningfully, and most importantly legitimately. However, in order to introduce such training and professional development, the policymakers need to accept the value of translanguaging practices for pedagogical purposes and see them as a resource that can help the in-service teachers to cope with the implementation of such demanding policy as the "Trinity of Languages".

Next, the document analysis section brought the reader's attention to the stark differences between the intellectual and mainstream schools. As all secondary schools are planning to shift to trilingual education teaching at one point it is important to note that the policymakers should not be applying a one-size-fits-all solution to all schools. As schools tend to have different teaching staff, financing, resources, and most importantly students with different approaches to learning it is important to highlight that the policymakers need to consider the

particular context of each school when setting the requirements for the policy implementation. It is also essential to note that the policymakers should consider other trilingual contexts' examples and their ways of implementing the policy. The good practices of different countries' educational models could be fed into the ways in which the trilingual education policy is shaped and further developed. Especially, in such cases when the country is not trilingual speaking but rather strives to become one. In the literature review, I brought together other countries' trilingual and multilingual models where for instance I discussed Hong Kong's "Biliterate and Trilingual" policy model. Hong Kong's model gave autonomy to every secondary school to decide and choose their own medium of instruction considering their existing resources, the availableness of the teaching staff as well as the students' needs. This kind of fluid approach towards the mediums of instruction should be applied to Kazakhstan's trilingual model meaning that the country should not be imposing the same type of requirements and regulations to all kinds of schools. As it was seen both from the document analysis and literature review, secondary schools in Kazakhstan vary greatly in accordance with their types, the resources they have, the students they teach, as well as the available teaching staff. Therefore, adopting a fluid approach to the medium of instruction and giving autonomy to the schools would help them to decide on the ways in which they approach the trilingual education policy based on the resources they have.

Finally, teachers need to be provided with more autonomy too and they need to have the freedom to decide the ways in which they will support their students' learning. School administrations should not be imposing their expectations on teachers but rather learn about the support and help they need as the teachers are the main foundation of the policy, they are the ones to implement it. Most importantly, in-service teachers should be involved at each step of developing and shaping the policy processes, and their ideas be fed into the policy formation.

5.5 Contribution to the development of the translanguaging field

While the previous section discussed the implications and recommendations of the present study for future research, in this section I want to concentrate on this research work's contribution to the field of translanguaging and pedagogical translanguaging in particular. This study investigated pedagogical translanguaging which is now attracting increased attention from different scholars (Back, 2020; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Fang & Liu, 2020; Galante, 2020; Liu et al., 2020). Most importantly, this work explored the role of pedagogical translanguaging in a trilingual context which is also becoming a point of interest for different scholars (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Zhang & Chan, 2022). Pedagogical translanguaging, which specifically targets the classroom settings, proved to be a suitable framework for this research work. In fact, this work is one of the few works that adopted the lens of pedagogical translanguaging to explore Kazakhstan's trilingual education policy. While other settings with similar policies have long been applying the framework of translanguaging to their studies (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Galante, 2020; Liu et al., 2020), this research work reported the findings on pedagogical translanguaging from an underexplored context.

This research work's one of the main contributions to the development of the field of translanguaging was the fact that the practice can fit in with not only the bilingual education where it originated from (Williams, 1994), but also in trilingual education too. Specifically, given the historical background of the investigated context and the change in the status of the native Kazakh language, the adoption of translanguaging practice allows to achieve an equal and fair use of the three languages. Li Wei (2021, p. 181) noted that:

> Educators and policymakers need to be aware of the long-term consequences of suppressing the minoritized languages of the bilingual learners in terms of stigmatized attitudes, register loss, and emotional detriment. Translanguaging offers a holistic and equitable view of multilingualism: all languages matter!.

With that being said, the adoption of pedagogical translanguaging practice can help with the policy's current situation as it is seemingly turning from a trilingual to an English medium of instruction policy (Karabassova, 2021; 2022; Sarmurzin et al., 2023). The practice would enable the in-service teachers not to fall into the one language of instruction only pitfall, and instead encourage them to incorporate the different named languages.

Another important contribution is in the development of the existing contexts of translanguaging practice. While the previous contexts ranged from academic writing (Lu, 2009), street signage (Gorter, 2006), children interaction (Jorgenson, 2008), and even hip hop (Pennycook, 2007), then this study looked at translanguaging practice in a classroom context. The findings of the study provide empirical evidence as to how the pedagogical translanguaging can be integrated into the teaching activity. In this study, in-service teachers' practices captured all three functions of pedagogical translanguaging namely symbolic, scaffolding, and epistemological functions. These in-service teachers' reasons for incorporation of such practices ranged in accordance with their beliefs and the subjects they teach, even though they did not have any prior training or professional development to undertake such practices. This proves and contributes to the fact that translanguaging is not only deliberate and intentional (Galante, 2020), but it can also be a naturally occurring phenomenon (Canagarajah, 2011). It shows that translanguaging cannot be fully restrained by a top-down monolingual policy as multilinguals have a natural predisposition to it. However, as Canagarajah (2011) warned this does not mean that teachers do not require proper training and teaching on translanguaging since such practice comes to them naturally. Teachers need to "develop teachable strategies of translanguaging" (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 9) and be able to utilise such strategies purposefully. This study indicated that the in-service teachers were not familiar with the concept of translanguaging, and no prior training had been provided in order to teach them to undertake multilingual teaching strategies. The in-

service teachers' unfamiliarity with this widely known concept calls upon the researchers' and scholars' contribution to the development of this concept in this part of the world. Lastly, this research work apart from contributing to fill in the identified research gap which was presented in Chapter 1: Introduction; it also presented an in-depth exploration of in-service teachers' views of the pedagogical translanguaging and whether it was part of their teaching practices. As Canagarajah (2011) noted "studies on translanguaging have also been conducted in a product-oriented manner, leaving processes out of consideration" (p. 5) meaning that such studies provide only a "deficient view of translanguaging" (p. 6). In this study, on the other hand, the concept of pedagogical translanguaging was explored at three different levels specifically through semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, and document analysis. While semi-structured interviews and lesson observations provided the in-service teachers' views and attitudes towards pedagogical translanguaging and the strategies they employ to incorporate it into teaching their practice, then the document analysis presented whether the concept was reflected in the important policy-related documents and articles. By adopting these three different research instruments, the research work was not only able to draw important implications but also to report the findings from an underexplored context with a top-down policy approach. It is hoped that this research work will raise awareness of pedagogical translanguaging among in-service teachers and stimulate other scholars to further investigate and contribute to the understanding and formation of the concept of pedagogical translanguaging specifically in the Kazakhstani context.

5.6 My personal journey

I had an inner battle within myself on whether I needed to include this section or not. But looking back at my PhD journey, I think this section is needed at least for myself to feel a sense of accomplishment. In this section, I used the words that describe my whole doctoral

journey and I start with the word that first came to my mind and this word is *challenging.* My doctoral journey was quite challenging as I had to juggle both academic work and parenting at the same time. Besides my parental responsibilities, I was also faced with numerous obstacles on my way such as navigating intricate research methodology, grappling with complex theories, and staying on top of all the deadlines. It was not an easy task, especially finding a balance between the two worlds, but I believe that the whole process made me more resilient, disciplined, and organised and I was able to prove to myself that student mothers can also strive and achieve their goals.

Rewarding. Regardless of the challenges I had to face, I still feel that the whole journey was quite rewarding. Greg Behrendt's famous quote: "Life's biggest rewards come from biggest challenges" perfectly encapsulates the whole essence of pursuing a PhD degree. My unwavering determination and tireless efforts showed the fruits of my hard work which were in the forms of a book review, a journal article, conference presentations, blog posts, and research visits abroad. I was also able to work on different research projects which allowed me to learn more about different methodological applications and theories and most importantly to collaborate with different scholars. I truly expanded my expertise in undertaking different research methods and deepened my understanding of the investigated field. All I can say is that this doctoral journey was challenging not in an overwhelming and overpowering way, but rather in a transformative and rewarding way.

Growth. Finally, conducting my research using the data triangulation method has immensely enhanced my skills as a researcher. For my master's degree, I used only a semi-structured interviewing data collection method and thus I was familiar with this method and knew how to approach it. But for conducting lesson observation and document analysis, I had to do an extensive background reading, attend workshops on qualitative research inquiry, consult my supervisor and peers, and also read other PhD students' theses. These activities did not only help me to identify the ways in which I can start building my skills, but also helped me to

develop a plan for undertaking such kinds of research instruments. After conducting the research and writing several manuscripts, I can surely say that my knowledge and expertise in research methodology has strengthened and increased, and I became more confident in adopting other relevant research methods into my research practice. Apart from these, I was also able to develop my skills in using the NVivo software for data analysis. Throughout my PhD degree, I had an opportunity to train Master's students to use the software and gave several workshops for PhD students from other departments. During the workshops, I realised that I was actually learning a lot myself by answering other students' questions and learning about their ways of using the tool for coding purposes. I was also able to develop my presentation skills and explain my research study to people from outside of my research area.

Community. Most importantly this PhD journey immersed me into a community of like-minded PhD students and scholars who inspired me and kept me going. Their never-ending support, continuous feedback, and belief in me shaped me as an early career researcher. Looking back at this journey, I experienced a significant growth both personally, academically, and professionally and the skills that I have gained along the way prepared me well for my next research endeavours in which I am also planning to strive.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Ethical Approval

The University Of Sheffield.

Downloaded: 06/01/2022
Approved: 06/01/2022

Maira Klyshbekova
Registration number: 200215082
School of Education
Programme: PhD in Education

Dear Maira

PROJECT TITLE: Kazakhstani In-Service Teachers' Views on Implementing the Trilingual Education Policy through Pedagogical Translanguaging
APPLICATION: Reference Number 044271

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 06/01/2022 the above-named project was **approved** on ethics grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

- University research ethics application form 044271 (form submission date: 31/12/2021); (expected project end date: 26/10/2024).
- Participant information sheet 1099739 version 2 (30/11/2021).
- Participant consent form 1099768 version 1 (27/11/2021).

If during the course of the project you need to deviate significantly from the above-approved documentation please inform me since written approval will be required.

Your responsibilities in delivering this research project are set out at the end of this letter.

Yours sincerely

Anna Weighall
Ethics Administrator
School of Education

Please note the following responsibilities of the researcher in delivering the research project:

- The project must abide by the University's Research Ethics Policy: https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/rs/ethicsandintegrity/ethicspolicy/approval-procedure
- The project must abide by the University's Good Research & Innovation Practices Policy: https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/polopoly_fs/1.671066!/file/GRIPPolicy.pdf
- The researcher must inform their supervisor (in the case of a student) or Ethics Administrator (in the case of a member of staff) of any significant changes to the project or the approved documentation.
- The researcher must comply with the requirements of the law and relevant guidelines relating to security and confidentiality of personal data.
- The researcher is responsible for effectively managing the data collected both during and after the end of the project in line with best practice, and any relevant legislative, regulatory or contractual requirements.

Appendix B: Interview Protocol

Interviewer: Maira Klyshbekova
Interviewee: School administration/ teacher
Interviewee position: English language teacher
Project: Kazakhstani In-Service Teachers' Views on Implementing the Trilingual Education Policy through Pedagogical Translanguaging
Date of the interview:
Duration of the interview:

1. Where do you teach? Why did you choose this specific school for teaching as a career?
2. What is your position?
3. What subject do you teach? How long have you been teaching for?
4. What is your language background? What languages do you speak/know/use?
5. What do you know about the trilingual education policy in Kazakhstan?
6. What is your opinion on the trilingual education policy?
7. Have you been affected by the trilingual education policy? What changed?
8. Did you receive special training due to the implementation of the trilingual education policy? What kind of? Where?
9. What is your discipline's language of instruction?
10. Do you use languages other than the language of instruction? What kind of and what for?
11. Do you use the students' L1/L2/L3 to explain the content? Do you use L1/L2/L3 for complex content? Which do you tend to use more? Is it helpful?
12. In what cases do you find yourself using L1/L2/L3 during the lesson? Could you describe a specific situation?
13. What do you think when your students use their L1/L2/L3 during your lesson?
14. What do you think when your students mix their L1 with other languages in your lesson? Do you encourage it? Why? Why not?
15. Do you use any tasks that encourage the students to use L1/L2/L3?
16. What do you think about teaching the content subject in L1/L2/L3?
17. During the assessment do you tend to assess the language aspect or the content more? Which one is more important to you? Are they equal to you? Why? Why not?
18. Do you experience any difficulties in teaching the content due to the language barrier? How do you cope with such situations? Do you shift to other languages in that case?
19. What do you think of teachers who use L1/L2/L3 to teach the content through specifically planned strategies and techniques?
20. Do you use such kind of planned strategies in your lessons? Why?
21. Which language incorporation strategies do you find most effective? What kind of strategies?
22. Do you think it is important to acknowledge the students' language needs? Why? What do you do to acknowledge it?
23. Does the school support the usage of L1/L2/L3 in your lessons? How?
24. Does the school policy/documents promote the use of L1/L2/L3 in your lessons? How?
25. Is there anything else you would like to share on language use in your lessons?

Appendix C: Participant Consent Form

Kazakhstani In-Service Teachers' Views on Implementing the Trilingual Education Policy through Pedagogical Translanguaging

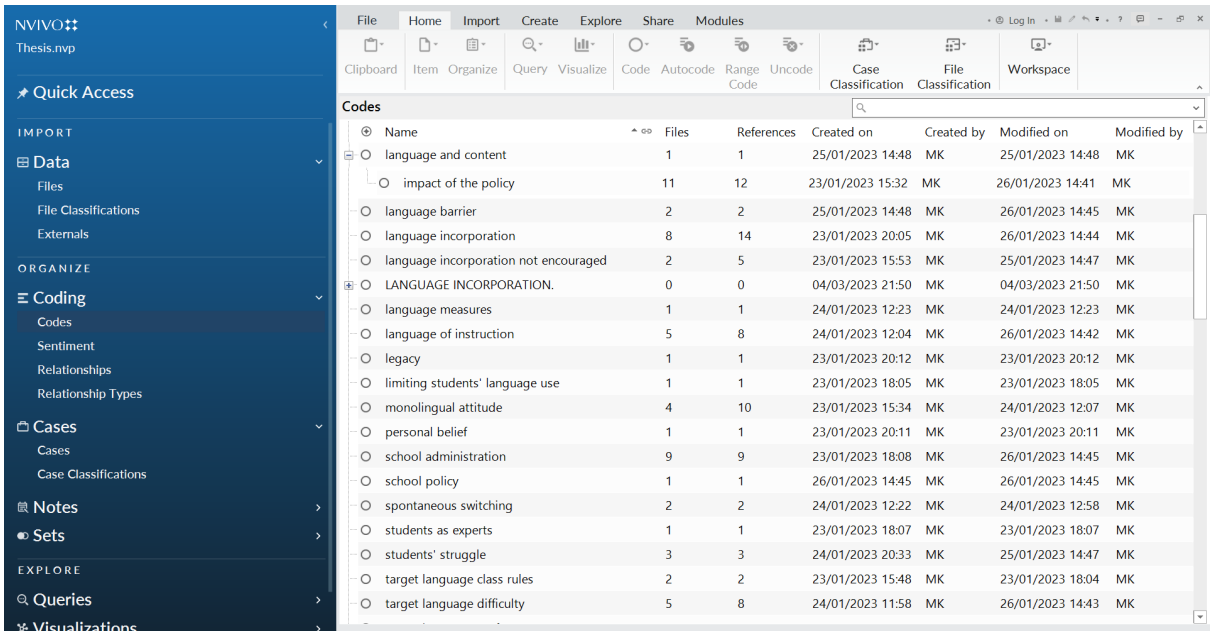
Consent Form

Please tick the appropriate boxes	Yes	No
Taking Part in the Project		
I have read and understood the research information sheet dated and the research has been thoroughly explained to me. (If you answer No to this question, please do not proceed with this consent form until you are fully aware of what your participation in the research will mean.)	☐	☐
I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the research.	☐	☐
I agree to take part in the research. I understand that taking part in the research will include taking part in two interviews and one lesson observation, which will be audio-recorded. The audio recordings will be destroyed after the transcription process has ended.	☐	☐
I understand that my taking part is completely voluntary and that I can withdraw from the research up to one week after my first interview took place. There will not be any negative consequences if I choose to withdraw.	☐	☐
How my information will be used during and after the project		
I understand my personal details such as name, phone number, email address will not be revealed to people outside this research project.	☐	☐
I understand that my words may be quoted in publications, reports, and other research outputs. I also understand that my name in these outputs will not be mentioned.	☐	☐
I understand and agree that other authorised researchers (such as research supervisors) will have access to my anonymised data only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.	☐	☐
I understand and agree that my anonymised data may be used in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs	☐	☐
So that the information you provide can be used legally by the researchers		
I agree to assign the copyright I hold in any materials generated as part of this project to The University of Sheffield.	☐	☐

Name of participant [printed] Signature Date

Name of Researcher [printed] Signature Date

Appendix D: Example of the Coding Process



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language incorporation	8	14	23/01/2023 20:05	MK	26/01/2023 14:44	MK
language incorporation not encouraged	2	5	23/01/2023 15:53	MK	25/01/2023 14:47	MK
LANGUAGE INCORPORATION.	0	0	04/03/2023 21:50	MK	04/03/2023 21:50	MK
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language of instruction	5	8	24/01/2023 12:04	MK	26/01/2023 14:42	MK
legacy	1	1	23/01/2023 20:12	MK	23/01/2023 20:12	MK
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personal belief	1	1	23/01/2023 20:11	MK	23/01/2023 20:11	MK
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target language difficulty	5	8	24/01/2023 11:58	MK	26/01/2023 14:43	MK