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Linking Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities:

A Mixed Methods Study of English-As-A-Foreign-Language Teacher Educators

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Date 3 May 2024

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education at  
SIT Graduate Institute

2024

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## **Abstract**

### **Linking Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities:**

#### **A Mixed Methods Study of English-As-A-Foreign-Language Teacher Educators**

Adeline Jenny De Angelis

This mixed-methods study explored how much English-as-a-foreign-language teacher educators used English, Spanish, or a combination of those languages in teaching content courses (e.g., pedagogy, linguistics) and how their language use practices related to the teacher capabilities they most valued. Quantitative data was collected with a survey of 115 teacher educators from 21 Ecuadorian universities. Most participants reported teaching in English while incorporating some Spanish, usually in minimal amounts; most believed in minimizing Spanish. Ordinary least squares regression analysis indicated the amount of Spanish included related to teacher educators' prioritization of teacher empowerment over accountability to standards and to teacher educators' own English proficiency. Qualitative data was collected in focus group interviews with a subset of 37 teacher educators from 18 universities. Thematic analysis showed how educators linked English-only practices with fostering English proficiency and multilingual practices with fostering non-linguistic capabilities, especially teacher identity and cognition; factors perceived as constraining teachers'-in-formation conversion of English-medium course inputs into valued capabilities were especially salient for teacher educators with multilingual approaches. The mixed-methods integration concluded that valued teacher capabilities were linked to teacher educators' language use in a relationship closely bound with the affordances and constraints of specific

contexts. Language ideologies and teacher educator characteristics also had a role in language use practices. The study provides insight into the potential of multilingual approaches in global English language teacher education and higher education more generally, and urges educators and programs to critically reflect on what contextualized language use practices align with their values and goals.

Key words: language use practices, English-only, multilingual, capabilities, teacher education, English-as-a-foreign-language

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## Abbreviations

CA	Capabilities approach
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CIE	Comparative and international education
CLIL	Content and language integrated learning
CLT	Communicative language teaching
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
ELTE	English language teacher education
EMI	English-medium instruction
ESL	English as a second language
L1	First language
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OLS	Ordinary least squares
PINE	<i>Pedagogía de los Idiomas Nacionales y Extranjeros</i> (Pedagogy of National and Foreign Languages)

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## Chapter I: Introduction

### Research Problem

In Ecuador, as in many parts of the world, the educational system emphasizes English proficiency as an essential skill students need to acquire “for successful participation in a globalized, democratic society in the 21st century” (Ministerio de Educación, Ecuador, 2016, p. 349). Across Latin America, governments feel pressure to improve the quality of English as a foreign language (EFL) education, as learning outcomes apparently lag behind other parts of the world (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019). Teachers and teacher education have been described as “key bottlenecks” (Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019, p. 5) to improving English proficiency in the region. The think tank the InterAmerican Dialogue asserts that “many, if not most, English teachers in Latin America lack either the necessary English skills, the necessary pedagogical skills, or both, to be effective educators in the classroom” (Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019, p. 5). Identifying and implementing effective pre- and in-service EFL teacher education strategies is a priority for educational systems in Latin America (Serrano et al., 2015).

At the same time, some scholars in the region raise concerns that government initiatives aiming to improve EFL outcomes reinforce language hierarchies and stratified social structures (Cardona-Escobar et al., 2021; Mackenzie, 2020) and impose imported and top-down models that neglect local research and teachers’ experience-based knowledge (Calle et al., 2019; González Moncada, 2007). Globally, ideologies that insinuate that English speakers and methods from countries like the United States and Great Britain are superior to ‘non-native’ and ‘local’ varieties are pervasive in the field of English language teaching (ELT) (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Zaidan, 2020). Resisting such ideologies, a decolonial current has emerged that promotes empowering EFL teachers in peripheral contexts as legitimate knowledge producers (Borelli et



al., 2020; Kumaravadivelu, 2016). A decolonial perspective on ELT is prominent in scholarship from neighboring Colombia (Lucero & Castañeda-Londoño, 2021), but is not evident in Ecuadorian ELT.

In this context where the goals and philosophical underpinnings of EFL teacher education are contested, language use practices are the ‘elephant in the room’ (Kerr, 2016, p. 519). Educational language use practices—that is to say, the ways teachers and students use languages such as English and Spanish during instruction—reflect and reinforce messages about who and what education is for and carry implications for access and wellbeing (García & Otheguy, 2020; Kedzierski, 2016). Given these implications, language of instruction in low-income and postcolonial educational systems is a consequential topic in Comparative and International Education (Tikly, 2016). EFL teacher education classes, like any educational context, are characterized in part by their language use practices as participants make decisions about whether and how to use English and the local language(s). Yet, the literature on EFL teacher education rarely mentions language of instruction or language use practices. To the extent that it is discussed, the default language of instruction at ELT events in Latin America appears to be English (Zaidan, 2020).

This dissertation takes the stance that the lack of explicit attention to language use practices in EFL teacher education goes hand in hand with ambiguity about what exactly EFL teacher education aims to do and why. How much focus should be on English proficiency, pedagogical expertise, or critical thinking? Is the goal to empower teachers or to fix their shortcomings? How does teacher educators’ use of English and Spanish relate to what they are trying to accomplish in their work? And what role do language ideologies play in those practices and aims? Lack of clarity surrounding these questions undermines the potential for teacher

education to be effective and to promote equity and justice for teachers and their students. The following sections contextualize this problem of the relationship between language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies in EFL teacher education within discussions of teacher education in Comparative and International Education, in the ELT field, and in the Ecuadorian ELT context.

### ***Teacher Education***

Teacher education is one of the primary mechanisms by which educational systems strive towards quality and equity; it is also a site where ideas about what quality and equity look like are contested and defined. By *teacher education*, I refer to a range of educational activities, including pre-service degree and certificate programs and in-service professional development, designed to impart the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that teachers need in their work.

Educational quality depends on teacher education, which “circumscribe[s] what it is possible to achieve in the classroom” (Tikly & Barrett, 2011, p. 9).

However, there is no consensus on what exactly high-quality teaching is. Dominant global discourses on education are characterized by “a strong ‘best practices’ ideology” (Ramirez et al., 2016, p. 49). Scholars and policymakers with this perspective are concerned with empirical evidence of generalizable ‘best practices’ (e.g. Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). The ‘best practices’ approach is prominent in policy work in low-income countries where education is seen, according to human capital theory, as a vehicle for development and coincides with the increased involvement of organizations such as the World Bank (Mundy & Verger, 2015) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (Robertson, 2016) in educational policy. From this perspective, teacher education should ensure that teachers meet the standards of recognized best practices. Global discourses and accountability mechanisms have

heavily influenced teacher education reforms in the Latin American region (Voisin & Ávalos-Bevan, 2022).

However, some scholars raise concern that teacher education often takes up models from the Global North and imposes them on the Global South (Khoja-Moolji, 2017; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012; Weber, 2007).<sup>1</sup> The imposition of Northern educational models on the Global South is seen as ineffective and harmful. This critique of teacher education is grounded in post-colonial and decolonial theories and suggests that teacher education should instead aim to develop local, context-specific teaching knowledge and skills.

Another concern is that the dominant discourse on ‘fixing’ teacher practices has emerged to serve the political and economic interests of global actors promoting that discourse, such as the OECD (Robertson, 2016), edu-businesses, and philanthropic venture capitalists (Ball, 2012). The theory of critical cultural political economy of education (Robertson & Dale, 2015) conceptualizes these actors as advancing their own agendas within the context of structural power relations. Such critiques suggest current trends in teacher education may not, in fact, prioritize improving educational quality.

While these perspectives on teacher education contradict in some ways, academics and professionals do not necessarily fall into distinct camps. Tikly and Barrett (2011) argue in favor of capabilities-based teacher education that supports teacher professionalism and wellbeing and creates teacher-driven quality standards and accountability mechanisms. The capabilities approach sees education as a vehicle for social justice with “intersecting intrinsic, instrumental, and social-democratic functions” (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021, p. 463), integrating elements of

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<sup>1</sup> Global North and South refer, respectively, to high-income countries that have dominated global economics, politics, and culture over the last centuries and the low-income countries that the Global North has attempted to dominate and exploit, though these are imperfect categories that merely “gesture toward the continued dominance of colonial logics” (Khoja-Moolji, 2017, p. S147).

both ‘best practices’-focused and critical approaches. These competing viewpoints are evident in education for English teachers in low-income countries where English is taught as a foreign language.

### ***Teacher Education for EFL Teachers***

In addition to the broad global issues discussed in the previous section, trends in ELT shape the practices and aims of teacher education for EFL teachers. In this subsection, I provide additional context specific to the ELT field.

**English as a Lingua Franca and a Global Skill.** English is broadly recognized as the contemporary ‘lingua franca,’ a “common language for science, literature, music, business, diplomacy, migration and so forth” (Hernandez-Fernandez & Rojas, 2018, p. 12). A British Council report on the importance of ELT in Latin America notes that many individuals see it as “the language of self-improvement” (Hernández-Fernández & Rojas, 2018, p. 12). EFL is a mandatory school subject in most of Latin America (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017).

Historically, the ELT field “has seen itself as teaching a language of economic opportunity not tied to any particular national or regional space or history” (Kramsch & Hua, 2016, p. 39). While this ‘culture-blind’ stance has been shifting towards a focus on intercultural communication and intercultural competence (Kramsch & Hua, 2016), the idea that English is a ‘neutral’ skill—or that ideologically- and culturally-laden aspects of ELT can be neutralized by a skills focus—is prevalent in EFL policy in Latin America.

Policy documents and academic literature that present English as an essential skill in the contemporary globalized world often espouse a human capital view of education. EFL education is seen as an investment and proficiency outcomes are the primary indicators of the return on that investment. Low proficiency among students and teachers is therefore of utmost concern for

analysts and policymakers who see English primarily as human capital (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; Hernández-Fernández & Rojas, 2018; Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019).

**Decolonial ELT.** A robust literature on decolonizing ELT has emerged since the 1990s, offering an alternative to the dominant view of English as a neutral, global skill. ELT literature inspired by postcolonial and decolonial theories forefronts links between ELT and the historical and contemporary dominance of Great Britain and the United States in global economics, politics, and culture (Kubota, 2016; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Pennycook, 2007). This literature has brought attention to language ideologies, language use practices, and empowerment of marginalized ELT professionals as central concerns for the field.

Phillipson (1997) argues that colonial power dynamics persist in the way that former colonial languages—and particularly English, given its contemporary lingua franca status—remain languages of prestige and privilege, disadvantaging other languages and their speakers. This phenomenon, along with the ideology that justifies it, is known as *linguistic imperialism* (Phillipson, 1992). A related, pervasive language ideology is *native-speakerism*, a belief in the superiority of ‘native’ speakers of powerful languages (especially English) over ‘non-native speakers’ (Holliday, 2006). This belief is racialized yet rationalized as a common-sense judgment of language proficiency or cultural knowledge (Holliday, 2006, 2017). Some decolonial ELT literature focuses on positive attributes of ‘non-native’ English-speaker teachers, while more recent literature challenges the meaningfulness of the native/non-native dichotomy (Faez, 2011; Kamhi-Stein, 2016; Llurda, 2016).<sup>2</sup> Instead, English teachers may be thought of as monolingual or multilingual speakers of the language. Despite increasing awareness of this

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<sup>2</sup> I use the terms ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ in quotation marks throughout this dissertation in recognition of the problematic nature of these terms, which are nonetheless the most readily understood terminology for describing teachers’ language backgrounds (Kamhi-Stein, 2016).

ideology, native-speakerism persists in ELT (Kumaravadivelu, 2016; Llurda, 2016) and is often internalized by EFL teachers and students (Perez Andrade, 2019; Zaidan, 2020).

Postcolonial and decolonial approaches to ELT have also inspired new perspectives on language use practices within the field. From the 1980s until the early 2000s, the dominant pedagogical philosophy in foreign language instruction was communicative language teaching (CLT) and English-only language use practices became a widespread norm in global ELT (Lin, 2013), with monolingual norms dominating the second language acquisition and TESOL fields (May, 2014). However, in the 2010s, scholars noted the rise of a critical ‘multilingual turn’ (Lin, 2013; May, 2014). While use of students’ first languages may still be perceived as taboo (Galante et al., 2020), multilingual language use practices have continued to gain traction (Lau & Van Viegen, 2020; Tian et al., 2020). In the most basic sense, these practices involve using some amount of multiple languages that students speak in the completion of academic tasks. Scholars of these approaches view them as involving much more than language mixing (Wei & García, 2022), including the use of multiple modalities and a holistic and non-hierarchical conceptualization of language and learning (Werner & Todeva, 2022). Multilingual practices have been found to be reassuring, motivating, and empowering for students (Galante et al., 2020; Morales et al., 2020) and may support content learning in addition to language proficiency (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Galante, 2022). Despite the ‘multilingual turn’ (May, 2014) it is common to find “Anglocentrism and English-only ideologies in many non-English-dominant neoliberal societies” (Kubota, 2016, p. 482).

Decolonial ELT scholarship often addresses teacher education. For instance, Kumaravadivelu (2016) has proposed a ‘decolonial option’ for the field based on teacher education that allows marginalized ‘non-native’-speaker teachers to be “producers, not just

consumers, of pedagogic knowledge” (p. 81). González Moncada (2021) narrates the evolution of EFL-teacher professional development and language policy in Colombia, describing how local scholars have resisted linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism to foster local knowledge production. However, this literature does not address language use in teacher education contexts where EFL teachers share a local language that is not English, which is the case in the vast majority of ELT contexts globally.<sup>3</sup> These practices and norms become especially relevant in places like Ecuador, where many teachers have low English-language proficiency as well as challenging teaching circumstances.

### ***EFL Teacher Education in Ecuador***

**The Ecuadorian Context.** Ecuador is a mid-sized country in the Latin American region, with a population of approximately 18,000,000 (CEPAL, n.d.) that is characterized by its geographic, ethnic, and social diversity (Ayala Mora, 2002). The population is distributed across distinct regions of the Coast (around 54%), Highlands (around 41%), and Amazon (around 5%), with 63% of Ecuadorians living in urban areas and 37% in rural areas (INEC, n.d.). Seventy-seven percent of the population identifies as mestizo, 7% indigenous, 7% Montubio (an ethnic identity specific to part of the Coast region), 5% Afro-Ecuadorian, 2% White, and less than 1% other (INEC, n.d.). People born outside Ecuador make up 2.5% of the population, with more than half of foreign-born residents being Venezuelan and nearly a quarter Colombian (INEC, n.d.). Almost the entire population speaks Spanish (99%), with 4% speaking an indigenous language and 3% speaking a foreign language (INEC, n.d.). The most spoken indigenous language is Quichua<sup>4</sup> (INEC, 2011). Only about 35% of Ecuadorians have adequate employment and around

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<sup>3</sup> One exception is a recent publication by Ubaque-Casallas (2023) that describes two teacher educators’ multilingual practices in a Colombian English language teacher education course.

<sup>4</sup> Commonly spelled ‘Kichwa,’ the language is represented with the spelling ‘Quichua’ in this 2011 government source (INEC, 2011).

33% overall and 57% in rural areas do not have sufficient income to meet their basic necessities (INEC, n.d.).

**EFL Teachers and Teacher Education.** EFL education in Ecuador has been expanding in both public and private sectors since the 1990s, and especially since the mid-2000s (British Council, 2015; Intriago et al., 2017). Around twelve thousand EFL teachers are employed in the public K-12 system in Ecuador (Dirección Nacional de Formación Continua del Ministerio de Educación, personal communication, January 16, 2021), about 6% of the overall teacher population (Ministerio de Educación, n.d.). Private schools, language institutes, and universities also employ large numbers of EFL teachers, though comprehensive data on those teachers is not available. A series of reforms implemented in the early 2010s set standards for EFL teachers, students, and university programs (Cajas et al., 2023; Díaz Maggioli, 2017; Intriago et al., 2017; Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017), but gains in English learning have been slow to materialize. The vast majority of public-school EFL teachers have not yet demonstrated the level of English proficiency that is legally mandated, and many test at a basic level (Ministerio de Educación, Ecuador, 2019). While there is no reliable data on student EFL-learning outcomes or on proficiency in the general population (De Angelis, 2022), the English First English Proficiency Index has repeatedly ranked Ecuador's English level as among the lowest in the region (Education First, 2020).

Researchers have identified a variety of possible reasons English proficiency in Ecuador lags behind targets. Some publications point to teacher language proficiency as key (Burgin & Daniel, 2017; Ureña, 2014), while others emphasize a lack of student-centered pedagogy and misunderstandings about how to implement communicative language teaching (Acosta & Cajas, 2018; Calle et al., 2012; Ortega-Auquilla & Minchala-Buri, 2019). As the government has



attempted to significantly overhaul the educational system over the last decades, teachers have sometimes been framed as the problem (Fajardo-Dack, 2016). EFL teachers themselves are concerned about class size, student motivation, unrealistic curriculum standards, exhausting bureaucratic requirements, and lack of accessible professional development (Orosz et al., 2021; Sevy-Biloon et al., 2020).

Several studies have examined pre- and in-service teacher education for Ecuadorian EFL teachers (Daniel & Burgin, 2019; Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017; Orosz, 2018; Serrano et al., 2015). However, these studies rarely address the language of instruction in EFL teacher professional development. (An exception is Orosz [2018], who mentions that the model of training she details serves to improve English level as well as pedagogy.) Given the low level of English proficiency among teachers, it is notable that English use seems to be presumed.

In general, ELT research in Ecuador is pragmatically focused on describing educational policies, teaching methods, and outcomes, but does not engage in a critique of sociocultural, political, or economic power relations surrounding EFL education or the politics of ELT knowledge. This is in contrast to neighboring Colombia, which has produced a plethora of scholarship critically examining the relationship of colonialism and neoliberalism with EFL policy and practice (González Moncada, 2007; Hurie, 2018), complicating the assumption that English proficiency produces equity or prosperity (Mackenzie, 2020, 2021), and exploring decolonial knowledge production in ELT (Castañeda-Londoño, 2021; González Moncada, 2021; Lucero & Castañeda-Londoño, 2021; Méndez Rivera et al., 2020). These issues are likely also relevant in Ecuador, where decolonial praxis has been described outside the realm of ELT (Mignolo & Walsh, 2018) but has not been visibly taken up in relation to English teaching. The drive towards English proficiency standards coexists with unexplored assumptions about

pedagogical authority and knowledge (re)production in the context of Ecuadorian EFL teacher education. This tension is heightened by the serious pedagogical and linguistic challenges in Ecuadorian ELT.

### **Research Purpose and Questions**

The purpose of this research was to describe the approaches to language use currently in practice within EFL teacher education in Ecuador and to articulate how teacher educators' language use practices link to what they hope to accomplish through their instruction. In doing so, this study aimed to provoke deeper consideration than previously evident in global ELT research of how language in teacher education may foster the teacher capabilities most urgently needed within a specific context, given the affordances and constraints of that context. I aspire for the research results to lead educators and administrators to legitimize or question the approaches to language they are using in their courses and programs, with a focus on the implications of those practices for well-being and justice within the university program itself and in local English language teaching and learning. The study is guided by three interrelated research questions:

1. How much do EFL teacher educators use English, Spanish, or a multilingual approach when teaching EFL content courses, and what is the relationship of their language use practices with the teacher capabilities they most value (holding ideologies and teacher characteristics constant)?
2. How do EFL teacher educators understand the relationship between their language use practices and the teacher capabilities they most value?
3. How and to what extent does integrated quantitative and qualitative data from EFL teacher educators link their language use practices to valued teacher capabilities?

## Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

This research focuses on three key concepts: language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies. These concepts come from somewhat distinct bodies of literature, which I bring into conversation with one another in this dissertation. In doing so, I draw on two theoretical perspectives: decolonial theory and the capabilities approach.

*Language use practices* refer here to the extent to and ways in which educational participants use various languages in their repertoires—most often Spanish and English in the Ecuadorian ELT context—during educational activities. Decolonial theory illuminates how language use can legitimize or delegitimize certain ways of being and knowing (García & Otheguy, 2020; Mignolo, 2009) and uphold language ideologies (Zaidan, 2020). The capabilities approach, judging educational quality based on provision of capabilities and valued outcomes (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021), allows us to consider the instrumental importance of language use (Tikly, 2016), while also taking into account the decolonial perspective.

*Valued teacher capabilities* refer here to the knowledge, abilities, attitudes, and ways of being that teacher educators aspire to foster in teachers. These are sometimes referred to as professional competencies or as teachers' knowledge base but are conceptualized here as teacher capabilities. From the perspective of the capabilities approach, key capabilities may be context-specific and defined by the people involved, but ought to provide for wellbeing and justice (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021). Identifying teacher capabilities that are valued in the Ecuadorian EFL context provides guidance as to what goals language use practices ought to support. It also provides an opportunity to consider why those goals are valuable to educators, as from a capabilities perspective they ought to support wellbeing and justice rather than simply reflect dominant ideologies.

In this research, I consider three *language ideologies* described in the literature: linguistic imperialism; native-speakerism; and multilingualism. My approach is oriented by decolonial ELT scholarship, rooted in the common notion from Southeast Asian postcolonial theorists and Latin American decolonial theorists (Bhambra, 2014) that harmful colonial power relationships reside in and are perpetuated through knowledge, culture, and language.

The notion that language use practices are linked to valued teacher capabilities and to language ideologies undergirds this study. I conceptualize these three aspects of teacher education as bidirectionally interrelated, meaning that each one both influences and is influenced by the others. Examining all these relationships would be beyond the scope of a dissertation. I therefore focus particularly on language use practices and how those practices relate to valued teacher capabilities, within contexts pervaded by language ideologies. My conceptual framework contextualizes language use, an ever-present and yet largely unstudied practical aspect of teacher education, and establishes the potential meaning and importance of language use practices in relation to broader goals and ideologies.

### **Methodological Approach**

Undergraduate and graduate ELT-related degree programs at Ecuadorian universities provided the context for this study of EFL teacher education. The study took a mixed-methods approach with a convergent design, integrating quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Quantitative data provided a broad perspective on how much EFL teacher educators use English, Spanish, or a multilingual approach when teaching EFL content courses and the relationship of their language use practices with the teacher capabilities they most value. Qualitative data provided detail on how EFL teacher educators understand the relationship between their language use practices and the teacher capabilities they most value. Following the

convergent mixed-methods approach, I integrated the quantitative and qualitative data to address how and the extent to which language use practices and valued teacher capabilities are linked, as described by survey data and EFL teacher educators' own explanations.

I collected quantitative data with a survey of professors who taught non-language courses (courses not dedicated exclusively to English language learning, such as teaching methods, linguistics, or research methods) in ELT-related programs at the undergraduate or graduate level at Ecuadorian universities. The survey collected data on language use practices; valued teacher capabilities; language ideologies; and teacher educator characteristics. I used descriptive statistics to describe teacher educators' language use practices and ordinary least squares regression to analyze the relationship between those practices and valued teacher capabilities, language ideologies, and educator characteristics.

I collected qualitative data through focus group interviews with a subset of survey-takers. Questions in the focus group interviews paralleled the areas of inquiry in the survey, facilitating the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). I employed thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), based on coding of themes, to identify patterns in the qualitative data and thus describe the relationships teacher educators saw between their language use practices and the teacher capabilities that they most highly valued.

The final stage of this convergent mixed-methods study was to integrate the two forms of data and use that integrated data to answer my final research question. Joint display of the quantitative and qualitative findings facilitated that analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). By employing a mixed-methods approach, I sought to describe broad trends in EFL teacher education as well as to examine the meanings of and motivations for those trends in the specific,

contextualized experiences of EFL teacher educators, offering a more complete picture than one single methodological approach could provide.

### **Rationale and Significance**

On a conceptual level, this research study contributes to our understanding of language use practices and language ideologies by extending those concepts to the area of EFL teacher education and providing quantitative data on their prevalence, in addition to qualitative explanation of their importance to teacher educators. It also suggests a way to move beyond the discord between instrumental and critical understandings of the purposes of ELT and EFL teacher education, using the capabilities approach. Moving beyond this conflict is significant for many of us who seek approaches for “attaching [English] neither to global economic interests nor to national hegemonies but to the deep aspirations of socially and historically situated social actors” (Kramsch & Hua, 2016, p. 47). At the same time, I sought to pursue a decolonial option to “explore... what alternative conceptualizations and descriptions are possible regarding language use, acquisition, learning, teaching” (Kubota, 2020, p. 726).

On a practical level, greater empirical knowledge of language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies in Ecuadorian EFL teacher education has implications for how we approach teacher education. Exploring these relationships suggests ways to work towards valued and valuable outcomes. In that way, this dissertation provides insight into how teacher educators and education programs may use English and Spanish and bridge the gaps between competing priorities and philosophies. The overarching aim is to contribute new knowledge to scholarship and practice towards improving EFL teacher education in the region.

## **Researcher Positionality and Assumptions**

My interest in and approach to this topic arose from my own experiences and identity as a White, ‘native speaker’ of English from the United States who has worked as an EFL teacher and teacher educator in Ecuador for more than ten years. In that time, I have had the opportunity to design, supervise, and implement several U.S. Embassy-funded teacher training initiatives with national reach, to teach master’s courses at three local universities, and to work closely with many Ecuadorian EFL teachers and teacher educators. I am proud of the Spanish-language proficiency and understanding of the Ecuadorian context that I have gained over a decade. However, I am an outsider to the experiences of Ecuadorian educators and ‘non-native’ English-speakers in the ELT field more broadly.

I am often concerned by manifestations of linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism that I encounter—and benefit from—in my field, and I try to be conscientious about the ideological messages I send through my professional practice. Before and while working on this dissertation, I made decisions on an almost daily basis about how to use English and Spanish in teacher education and what goals and teacher capabilities to prioritize. I found those decisions to be fraught with tension, a sense that Ecuadorian and foreign teacher-educator colleagues have also shared with me. My original motivation for this study was my desire for insight into what I experienced as a minefield of ideology-laden norms, competing goals, language proficiency limitations, and personal feelings. My experiences in events and courses that I attended, taught, and heard about from colleagues led me to believe that using a significant amount of Spanish in EFL teacher education was not the norm in Ecuador, and that using only English, in contrast, was. However, I had not seen research systematically exploring these practices, which was part of the motivation for my study.

My own experience also led me to assume that English-only or English-primarily practices are not simply determined by institutional policies or individual educators' choices but are socially enforced by those participating in teacher education. I have anecdotally observed situations in which teacher educators introduce Spanish in pedagogy-focused activities and participating teachers persist in using English, even when doing so appears to hinder communication. My perception has been that this norm is at least partially driven by sociocultural forces—such as language ideologies and professional identity construction—and not solely a desire to practice English.

I also make the assumption that the interaction of language use practices, valued purposes, and language ideologies that I perceive in Ecuador has relevance beyond my work and beyond Ecuador. In fact, from a decolonial perspective, that assumption is part of decolonizing academic knowledge production to include geographically-situated local knowledge and recognize that it can be as conceptually generalizable as traditionally universalized Western and Northern theorizing (Kubota, 2020). I believe the broader relevance of this study is also supported by the literature, as well as the theoretical and conceptual framework.

Finally, I personally subscribe to a multilingual approach and believe that some use of teachers' own language(s) in EFL teacher education is beneficial, as informed by my own experiences and by the literature mentioned in this chapter and described further in Chapter 3. I believe that English proficiency is not or should not be the only or primary aim of EFL teacher education, and that own language use can support English learning and make education more inclusive. While I have maintained those beliefs and that approach, conducting this study has complicated my thinking and increased my appreciation for reasons why some teacher educators may disagree with me.



## **Overview of the Dissertation**

This dissertation takes the following form. Chapter 2 presents the study's orienting theoretical and conceptual framework. I discuss how decolonial theory and the capabilities approach guide my thinking and connect those perspectives with the three core concepts of the study. Chapter 3 provides a review of the literature on language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies. I address English-only, own-language, and multilingual language use practices; various specific and overarching teacher capabilities; and ideologies of linguistic imperialism, native-speakerism, and multilingualism. Chapter 4 presents the study's convergent mixed-methods design. It includes a quantitative component with a closed-question survey, a qualitative component employing focus-group interviews, and the integration of the quantitative and qualitative components. The remaining chapters present and discuss the study's findings. Chapter 5 presents findings of the quantitative analysis, Chapters 6 and 7 describe and discuss qualitative findings, and Chapters 8 and 9 integrate the quantitative and qualitative components of the study. Finally, Chapter 10 concludes with implications for practice and directions for future research.

## **Chapter II: Theoretical and Conceptual Framework**

This study was guided by two orienting theoretical perspectives and a conceptual framework that unites the three core concepts of the study—language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies. This chapter explains the theoretical and conceptual orientations of the dissertation and concludes by presenting the unified theoretical and conceptual framework.

### **Orienting Theoretical Perspectives**

#### ***Decolonial Theory***

Postcolonial and decolonial theories guide my understanding of language use practices. These theories share similar concepts and concerns but distinct geographical, historical, and intellectual origins (Bhabra, 2014). Postcolonial theory, whose foundational scholars are Said (1978), Spivak (1988), and Bhabha (1994), arose from Southeast Asian contexts, while decolonial theory, with key theorists Quijano (2000, 2007), Lugones (2007), and Mignolo (2009), arose from South American contexts (Bhabra, 2014).

Postcolonial theory originated with Said's (1978) book *Orientalism*, in which he innovatively critiqued the manner in which Western knowledge producers define their ideas as universal but also distinct from and superior to non-Western thought, legitimizing the colonization of the non-Western 'other.' As further developed by Spivak (1988) and Bhabha (1994), postcolonial theory foregrounds issues of power in knowledge production, positionality, hybridity, and context-specific historical antecedents rooted in colonial legacies (Anuar et al., 2021). Postcolonialism also illuminates how colonized people both adopt and resist colonial discourses and structures (Rizvi, 2007).

Postcolonialism provides a pertinent critical lens for examining processes of learning and knowledge production in English language teacher education (ELTE) in Global South contexts. Critical scholarship on English language teaching (ELT) has drawn on postcolonial theory to describe processes of “marginalization” and “self-marginalization” that impact ‘non-native speaker’ English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 22) and lead them to both challenge and perpetuate ideologies of native-speakerism and linguistic imperialism (Zaidan, 2020). Decolonial ELT scholars like Kumaravadivelu (2016) sometimes draw on the work of both Southeast Asian postcolonial and Latin American decolonial theorists, who similarly describe how “educated people in peripheral countries internalize the values and points of view of the Center countries” (Barrantes-Montero, 2017, p. 7) but may come to question those values through critical education.

Latin American decolonial theory, also known as the modernity/coloniality school, is based upon Quijano’s (2000) notion of ‘the coloniality of power.’ Quijano innovatively articulated the intrinsically colonial nature of contemporary society as predicated upon a universalized Western modernity and rationality that is inextricable from colonial dominance. Key concepts from decolonial theory are those of coloniality, modernity, and border thinking or epistemic disobedience, also described as thinking ‘otherwise’ (Barrantes-Montero, 2017). Ecuador-based scholar Walsh’s (2015) work on decoloniality links the epistemological ‘otherwise’ with decolonial praxis in Freirean pedagogies and social movements of the Americas and Ecuador in particular. Scholars in this school developed their work after the publication of postcolonial theory’s foundational texts, which might seem potentially influential. However, their theorizing is based on analysis of the Americas’ colonial history, on Latin American world systems and critical social theory scholarship (Bhambra, 2014), and on the thought of visionaries

of Latin American social movements. They do not tend to cite the Southeast Asian postcolonial theorists among their sources. I have found that most South American ELT scholarship that is concerned with coloniality in language, teaching, and knowledge production tends to cite the Latin American modernity/coloniality school rather than postcolonial theorists, which is unsurprising given the importance of local knowledge in both scholarly traditions.

While this dissertation draws inspiration from both postcolonial and decolonial theories, I refer to decolonial theory as the most relevant orienting theoretical perspective. Especially relevant to this dissertation is the decolonial concept of the subversive value of ‘epistemic disobedience’ (Mignolo, 2009) or the ‘otherwise’ (Walsh, 2015), which disrupts dominant ways of knowing with geopolitically situated knowledges. Decolonial theory highlights the importance of local ELT scholarship’s “struggle and resistance to imposed and hegemonic discourses and practices in the field... by considering peripheral perspectives or knowledge ‘otherwise’” (Lucero & Castañeda-Londoño, 2021, p. 6). It supports ELTE approaches that aim to foster empowered EFL-teacher identities and improve education through centering teachers in the Global South and their students, rather than imposed best practices (Barrantes-Montero, 2017; Castañeda-Peña & Méndez-Rivera, 2022). The decolonial perspective also supports collaboration and dialogue and encourages English language teacher educators to “strive for collectiveness, plurality, and locality” (Borelli et al., 2020, p. 319). Given that, from a decolonial perspective, language can legitimize or delegitimize certain ways of being and knowing (García & Otheguy, 2020; Mignolo, 2009), multilingual language use may support aims of centering the identities and expertise of EFL teachers in the Global South.

However, Kubota (2016) offers a noteworthy criticism of ELT scholarship adopting increasingly popular decolonial and multilingual perspectives. She cautions that, while we

celebrate postcolonial multilingualism from “our own hybrid plurilingual status of privilege within neoliberal academic institutions, ...we further accrue cultural, economic, and symbolic capital from presenting and publishing while moving further away from real-world problems” (p. 490). Meanwhile, most ELT practitioners continue to work in circumstances shaped by hegemonic structures and ideologies where inequalities remain unsolved by the ‘multi/plural turn.’

A decolonial perspective oriented this study’s approach by providing a critical lens on how teacher knowledge is produced in EFL teacher education in Ecuador. That critical lens illuminates how colonial hegemonies can be perpetuated or disrupted through language, culture, and knowledge production in (post)colonial and Global South contexts. It enables a view of language use and language teaching approaches—particularly in the ELT field—as laden with implications for who holds cultural, political, and economic power (García & Otheguy, 2020; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Phillipson, 1997) rather than as neutral communicative and pedagogical instruments (Kramsch & Hua, 2016). Those potentially consequential implications provided an impetus for examining teacher educators’ language use practices and valued teacher capabilities, the first two core concepts of this study. The third core concept, that of language ideologies, arose from decolonial critique of linguistic imperialism, native-speakerism, and monolingualism (García & Otheguy, 2020; Holliday, 2017; Phillipson, 1997). Post- and decolonial theories allow us to conceptualize the existence of such ideologies and how they can influence the practices and purposes of ELTE.

This decolonial orientation clearly implies a critique of practices and purposes that perpetuate colonial hegemonies in language use and knowledge production, and an interest in alternative approaches to ELTE. However, while embracing that critique, this study also sought

to heed Kubota's (2016) caution that most teachers and students of English globally must function in contexts where the English language, and certain types of English speaking and English teaching, *are* given special value. ELTE research should also serve the immediate needs of ELT practitioners in such contexts, who may value instrumental uses of English and ELT approaches critiqued as perpetuating colonial dynamics.

### ***The Capabilities Approach***

An alternative to valorizing particular ELTE practices and purposes because they disrupt dominant ideologies and knowledge hegemonies is to conceptualize beneficial ELTE through the capabilities approach (CA). The CA is an evaluative framework, developed by foundational scholars Sen (2004) and Nussbaum (2006), that theorizes “the relevance of what we are free to do and free to be” (Sen, 2004, p. 78). The CA conceptualizes those freedoms, which involve both skill and opportunity, as ‘capabilities’ (Robeyns, 2017). Fundamental to the CA are “the ends of wellbeing, freedom, justice, and development... conceptualized in terms of people’s functionings and/or capabilities” (Robeyns, 2017, p. 51). From a CA perspective, education should ensure learners’ access to valuable ‘capabilities’—those that foster their wellbeing and contribute to a more just society—and empower them to convert those capabilities into ‘functionings’—achievements or outcomes—if they so choose (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021).

As conceptualized by the CA’s original theorist, Sen, which specific capabilities are valuable depends on context and is open to debate among the community involved (Sen, 2004). I adopt Sen’s context-based conceptualization of valuable capabilities, rather than that of Nussbaum (2006), who proposed a list of universally valuable capabilities as a theory of justice. This study applies the capabilities approach, rather than a specific capabilities theory like Nussbaum’s, as distinguished by Robeyns (2017):

Let us use the term ‘the capability approach’ for the general, open, underspecified approach, and let us employ the term ‘a capability theory’ ... for a specific use of the capability approach, that is, for a use that has a specific goal, such as measuring poverty and deriving some policy prescriptions, ... or developing a theory of social justice. (p. 29)

The general capabilities approach offers a nuanced perspective on education. For one, the CA considers both structural constraints and individual agency in education. From a CA perspective, access to educational opportunities (capabilities) is shaped by social, environmental, and personal factors that permit individuals to ‘convert’ resources into opportunities (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021). Thus, the concept of ‘conversion factors’ accounts for structural factors that shape educational opportunity, such as privilege and marginalization related to class, race, and gender, or the disparate impact of remote learning on low-income and rural learners, and individual variability and agency, such as learning preferences and motivation. Conversion factors are also important to the distinction between capabilities and functionings. Attainment of educational outcomes (functionings) depends on individuals’ socially situated choices to ‘convert’ educational opportunities (capabilities) into learning outcomes (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2020). The CA calls for us to look beyond resources and inputs, such as curricula or instructional approaches, in assessing educational quality and consider how “people differ in their ability to convert means into valuable opportunities (capabilities) or outcomes (functionings)” (Robeyns, 2017, p. 48). The CA’s accounting for both context and agency is important for examining language in education, as researchers need to consider “the link and entangled nature between human agency and its equally important environments in relation to language use and language development” (Chen et al., 2022, p. 24).

Furthermore, the CA “accepts the human capital function (skills and knowledge) of education but subsumes it in a more expansive set of wellbeing outcomes” (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021, p. 461). It is therefore particularly valuable in bridging tensions between the potential human capital and emancipatory purposes of teachers’ work (Buckler, 2016) and language education (Formosinho et al., 2019). Such complexities in language learning and teaching have been described by language development theorists such as Larsen-Freeman through the theoretical lens of Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (Larsen-Freeman, 2017; Werner & Todeva, 2022). This dissertation views the complexities and tensions of language use and purposes in language teacher education through the CA. Levine (2020) argues that, in the context of language education, the combined use of critical pedagogy with a capabilities approach “challenges neoliberal and oppressive forms of educational practice, yet in its formulation offers a way forward for a multiplicity of perspectives, from the individual up through the levels of social groups” (p. 45).

An important critique of the CA is that it places too much emphasis on the individual as the unit of analysis, prescribing a Western/Northern perspective that neglects the importance of relationality and group identities and outcomes in many Global South contexts (Hoffmann & Metz, 2017; Stewart, 2005). The CA does view individuals’ capabilities and functionings as interdependent with the capabilities and functionings of others and as shaped by social structures; however, it evaluates what is good or valuable on the basis of the opportunities and outcomes achieved by each individual in an educational context, rather than those achieved by a collective (Robeyns, 2005, 2017). As a fairly open and adaptable framework (Robeyns, 2017), the CA could potentially be used to study group and relational capabilities (Hoffmann & Metz, 2017; Stewart, 2005). However, in the case of Ecuadorian university-based ELTE, I would argue



that thinking about individual teacher and learner capabilities (provided those are socially situated) is coherent with the context. That is because, in an example of how “white Euro-American values, beliefs, and worldviews, including individualism, meritocracy, progress, and so on, have dominated the rest of the world” (Kubota, 2020, p. 722), Ecuador’s education system operates on a Western model and is evaluated according to individuals’ access and outcomes (Bastidas Redin, 2020; Guayasamin Mogrovejo, 2017).

At the same time, the use of the CA does not imply that individuals’ capabilities are all that matter in education. The CA is insightful as a framework for evaluating opportunities and outcomes but offers no normative guidance on process (Robeyns, 2017); that is to say, it does not include principles, like those of due process in a justice system or inclusion in an education system, that may be considered desirable or just regardless of outcome. Therefore, the CA “may have to be supplemented with other values or principles” (Robeyns, 2017, p. 53)—such as those indicated by this study’s other guiding perspective, decolonial theory.

A CA perspective offers several ways to understand language in education. As the medium of instruction and instructional materials, language is a kind of input or resource. Language proficiency can also be understood simultaneously as a valued capability itself and as an important conversion factor impacting how learners convert educational inputs into knowledge and skills (Tikly & Barrett, 2011). As applied to teachers’ professional capabilities (Buckler, 2016; Tao, 2016), the CA can also describe purposes of ELTE. The skills, knowledge, and ways of being and relating within the educational system that teacher educators aspire for their ELTE students to acquire can be described as valued teacher capabilities. Meanwhile, the CA’s concepts of conversion factors and personal choice illustrate mechanisms by which language ideologies, along with other structural and individual factors, may shape ELTE. This

theoretical perspective helps to root the study's conceptualization of the practices, purposes, and ideologies of Ecuadorian ELTE in the real-world challenges and priorities of local teachers and teacher educators by providing a way of considering the effectiveness of teacher education on participants' own terms while also valuing more abstract notions of justice. The CA potentially bridges several perspectives—such as instrumental and emancipatory motives for language use and teacher education—that coexist uneasily in Latin American ELTE.

### **Conceptual Orientation**

This study brings together the concepts of language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies in light of decolonial theory and the capabilities approach. Before detailing how those three concepts relate, I provide a brief summary of the types of language use, valued teacher capabilities, and ideologies we may encounter in ELTE, which are further explained in the literature review in the next chapter.

#### ***Types of Language Use, Teacher Capabilities, and Ideologies***

**Language Use Practices.** Language use practices in ELT contexts may be characterized as English-only, own-language, or multilingual. *English-only practices* aim to use English as the language of instruction and communication in the classroom; use of other languages may occur but is unintentional or seen as a deviation from good practice. English-only practices are associated with communicative language teaching (CLT), where English is the medium for teaching the English language (Kerr, 2016), content and language integrated learning (CLIL), where both English and other academic content are taught through the language, and English medium instruction (EMI), where English learning is only an intended byproduct of teaching other academic subjects with English as the language of instruction (Richards & Pun, 2021).

*Own-language practices*, also known as ‘native-’, ‘mother tongue-’ or ‘first-’ (L1) language instruction, employ students’ ‘own’ language—not English—as the only or only intended language of communication in the classroom. In EFL contexts, this language is typically both students’ and teachers’ most proficient language. Using students’ and teachers’ own language as the medium of instruction when teaching a foreign language is characteristic of the grammar-translation teaching method, which is widely criticized as ineffective and outdated in the foreign language classroom, though still prevalent in Ecuador and many parts of the world (Calle et al., 2012; Ortega-Auquilla & Minchala-Buri, 2019). On the other hand, own-language instruction is an alternative to CLIL and EMI for academic topics other than foreign language that is increasingly viewed in terms of a right to education and to cultural affirmation (McCarty & Lee, 2014; Tikly, 2016). In the Ecuadorian context, own-language practices could involve Spanish, Kichwa, and other indigenous languages. However, in this study of Ecuadorian ELTE, I focus on Spanish-language use. There are no degree programs on English teaching in the country designed specifically for speakers of Kichwa or other Ecuadorian indigenous languages and 99% of the Ecuadorian population speaks Spanish (INEC, n.d.).

*Multilingual practices* are characterized by the deliberate and valued use of both English and students’ and/or teachers’ own languages. This approach is distinct from teachers’ partial or unsuccessful application of English-only or own-language practices in that use of more than one language is not an occasional deviation from or temporary waystage to a more desirable monolingual approach, but rather a constant and deliberate practice. ‘Translanguaging,’ one pedagogical and philosophical approach to incorporating both English and own languages in ELT, has gained attention over the last decade as a social justice-driven classroom language use practice (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; García & Otheguy, 2020).

‘Plurilingualism’—another asset-based approach that has recently gained prominence, with its own history and body of scholarship—has also been described as affirming diverse social identities and learner agency (Chen et al., 2022; Lau & Van Viegen, 2020; Werner & Todeva, 2022).

**Valued Teacher Capabilities.** ELTE may aim to foster various specific teacher capabilities relevant to the immediate functions of teaching, as well as overarching capabilities intended to improve education-system outcomes. Regarding specific teacher capabilities, ELTE may foster teachers’ *content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and/or teacher identity and cognition*. Different philosophies of education and stances on ELT emphasize different specific teacher capabilities and define them in various ways. English proficiency is understood as essential EFL teacher content knowledge (Richards, 2017), but there is no consensus on what type and level of proficiency teachers should have. Pedagogical knowledge may be understood as a ‘craft’, an ‘applied science’ rooted in theories of language acquisition, or a product of teacher reflection (Barahona, 2015). The reflective approach to pedagogical knowledge aligns with emphasis on fostering teacher identity and cognition as part of an emerging sociocultural perspective on ELTE (Johnson, 2016). In some cases, teacher educators with the aim of fostering EFL teacher identities explicitly engage language ideologies in critical models of ELTE (Abednia, 2012; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; Kumaravadivelu, 2016).

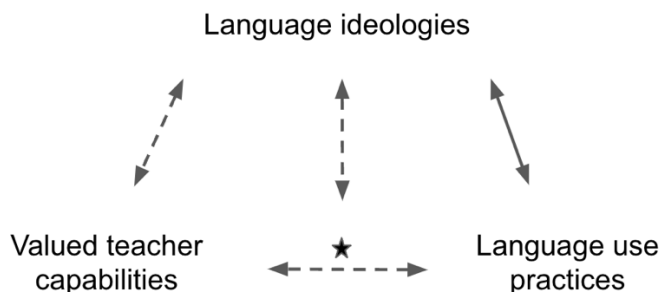
ELTE may also aim to improve educational quality by providing for overarching teacher capabilities. Being *accountable to standards* for English proficiency and for established pedagogical best practices is one such overarching teacher capability. Another is being *empowered to differentiate* instruction with the tools and confidence to respond appropriately to diverse and challenging teaching circumstances according to one’s own judgments. Of course,

ELTE may serve other purposes not directly related to learning, such as providing teachers with credentials or professional development hours (Sadeghi & Richards, 2021), providing institutions with tuition revenue, or legitimizing professionals' and education systems' compliance with global educational norms (Ramirez et al., 2016). Thus, being *recognized and remunerated* can be seen as a third overarching capability.

**Language Ideologies.** Language ideologies are “morally and politically loaded representations of the nature, structure, and use of languages in a social world” (Woolard, 2020, p. 1). Language use practices and valued teacher capabilities are accompanied by various attitudes and beliefs; yet language ideologies represent their own, distinct concept in this study. Unlike more general attitudes and beliefs, the specific language ideologies examined here are recognizable ‘representations’ that are consistently espoused to articulate and justify observable configurations of language and power in society. Relevant to this study are the ideologies of linguistic imperialism, native-speakerism, and multilingualism. Here, *linguistic imperialism* is a representation of the supposed superiority of English and the material and cultural products of the English language over other languages (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Phillipson, 1997). *Native-speakerism* is a representation of the supposed superiority of ‘native’ speakers, especially those considered ‘authentic’ speakers of English, over ‘non-native speakers’ (Holliday, 2006, 2017). This particularly impacts ‘non-native’ EFL teachers, whose professional legitimacy and perceived competence are threatened by this ideology. *Multilingualism* is a representation of the supposed superiority of multilingual language use practices and multilingual speakers over dominant monolingual ideals (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019). This ideology reframes common ideas about what normal and desirable language use looks like by valorizing language practices and identities that have been marginalized.

**Figure 1**

*Links Between Language Use Practices, Valued Teacher Capabilities, and Language Ideologies*



*Note:* Dotted lines indicate the relationship is not clearly established by existing literature, while the solid line indicates an established theoretical link. The star indicates that this relationship is the primary focus of this study.

### ***Linking Language Use, Teacher Capabilities, and Ideologies***

The conceptual framework of this study supposes that in ELTE, language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies are bidirectionally interrelated, such that each influences and is influenced by the others. Figure 1 presents those links visually, with a star indicating that the link between language use practices and valued teacher capabilities is of principal interest in this study. The link between language use practices and ideologies appears as a solid line, as it is clearly described in the literature, while the links between language use practices and valued teacher capabilities and between valued teacher capabilities and ideologies, less specifically established, are represented with dotted lines. I overview the literature suggesting these links in the remainder of this section and discuss it in greater detail in the literature review in the following chapter.

**Language Use Practices and Language Ideologies.** The relationship between language use practices and language ideologies is clearly articulated in the literature. English-only practices manifest and perpetuate ideologies of linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism (Holliday, 2006; Jakubiak, 2020; Zaidan, 2020), though they are often touted for instrumental

purposes (Kerr, 2016). Multilingual practices align with multilingual ideologies that challenge dominant notions of language (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; García & Otheguy, 2020; Robinson et al., 2020). Experiences of language use in teacher education, as well as in earlier language-learning experiences, shape teachers' beliefs about language as well as their language use practices in their own teaching (Dang et al., 2013; Rabbidge, 2019; Rajendram et al., 2023). Nonetheless, ideologies and practices do not align precisely; there are often gaps and tensions between teachers' deep beliefs about language, the approaches teachers espouse, and the practices they actually enact (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Rabbidge, 2019; Robinson et al., 2020).

**Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities.** A connection between language use practices and the various teacher capabilities that ELTE may foster is suggested by the literature, though the nature of that relationship is less clear. Regarding specific teacher capabilities, Morales et al. (2020) find translanguaging useful in a context where pre-service teachers are themselves emergent bilinguals learning English along with pedagogy. Banegas (2020) proposes an English-medium CLIL approach in a course whose goal is to foster knowledge of linguistics. Dávila (2020) advocates learning through English when the goal of instruction is English acquisition. Programs that emphasize English proficiency outcomes tend to use EMI in content and pedagogy courses (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Martin, 2016), yet they may find this approach does not sufficiently support language acquisition (Argudo et al., 2018). When developing teacher identity is a valued learning outcome (Singh & Richards, 2006), language use norms are especially relevant, as “teacher identity is constructed, maintained and negotiated in a community through discourse and social practices” (Barahona, 2015, p. 52). These studies, logically, suggest a connection between language use approaches and the teacher-

learning objectives of a given ELTE course, but there does not seem to be consensus on which practices lend themselves to fostering which capabilities or which valued capabilities imply which language use practices.

Considering divergent views on how ELTE purports to improve education, the relationship of language with overarching teacher capabilities depends on one's perspective. Some authors, in keeping with a decolonial perspective, connect accountability and standardization with a hyper-focus on language proficiency (González Moncada, 2021; Sierra Ospina, 2016). On the other hand, in light of the linguistic insecurities many 'non-native speaker' EFL teachers experience (Faez, 2011; Llurda, 2016), and in keeping with a CA emphasis on what individuals and communities value, prioritizing proficiency to boost teachers' confidence could be empowering (Freeman, 2020). Again, whether prioritizing English proficiency implies English-only or multilingual language use practices in ELTE is unclear. The complexities and inconsistencies in the literature depicting the connection between language use practices and valued teacher capabilities suggest that other forces, such as ideologies, likely intervene in the relationship between these two concepts.

**Language Ideologies and Valued Teacher Capabilities.** Finally, the relationship between language ideologies and valued teacher capabilities is also implied yet not clarified in the literature. In policy literature, teacher education for accountability to standards, with content knowledge as the primary learning outcome, seems to go hand-in-hand with discourses of linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism (Cardona-Escobar et al., 2021; Sierra Ospina, 2016; Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019). When ELTE focuses on pedagogical knowledge, particularly in 'applied science' approaches (Barahona, 2015), neocolonial and native-speakerist values may be present (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). On the other hand, developing local EFL teachers' pedagogical



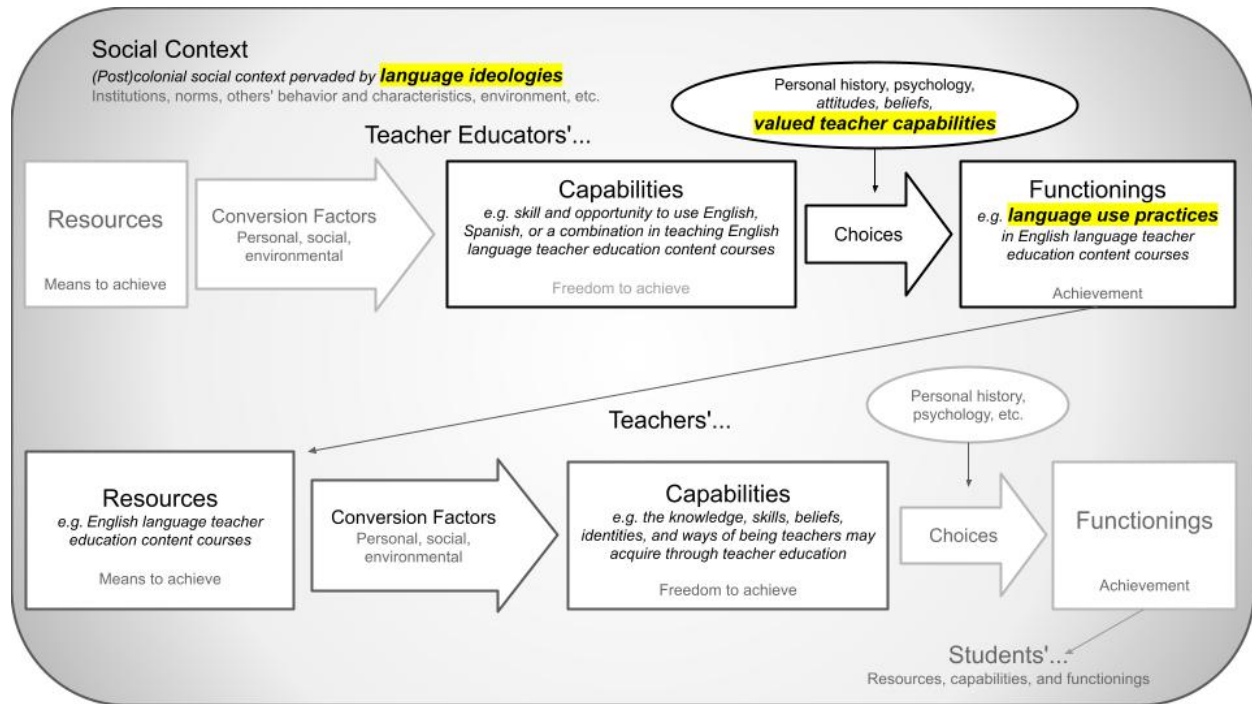
expertise and critical thinking is central to critical approaches that seek to disrupt dominant ideologies (Barahona, 2015; Kumaravadivelu, 2016; Lucero & Castañeda-Londoño, 2021). The extent to which prioritizing teacher empowerment and pedagogical knowledge aligns with multilingual ideology is unclear. Nonetheless, the idea that translanguaging is empowering for emergent bilingual students (García & Otheguy, 2020) may extend to bilingual teachers as well (Morales et al., 2020).

### **Theoretical and Conceptual Framework**

The theoretical and conceptual framework for this study brings together the three core concepts, as suggested by the relationships outlined above and the two orienting theoretical perspectives. That framework is portrayed in Figure 2, using a model of the CA adapted from Robeyns (2017) and integrated with a decolonial perspective on ELT. Robeyns notes that her figure portrays one person's set of resources, capabilities, and functionings but that "capability sets are interdependent; hence choices made from one person's capability set will lead to changes in another person's capability set" (p. 84). This study was concerned with how teacher educators' choices might be informed by their intended impact on their ELTE students' capability sets. Thus, Figure 2 portrays multiple levels of capability sets, where the first row pertains to teacher educators—the participants of this study—and the second row pertains to teachers—the ELTE students of those participants. This study focused entirely on teacher educators' perspectives, so the core concepts of valued teacher capabilities and language use practices appear in that first row. Valued teacher capabilities are one of various factors impacting teacher educators' choice to actually use one or more of the languages they have the skill and opportunity to use. Language use practices are an example of a teacher educator functioning resulting from their choices.

**Figure 2**

*Theoretical and Conceptual Framework Linking Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities in a (Post)Colonial Social Context of Language Ideologies*



*Note:* This figure is adapted from Robeyns (2005) with considerable modifications: Robeyns' representation of the elements of a capabilities approach have been duplicated on multiple levels to represent how teacher educator, teacher, and student capabilities interrelate; descriptions and examples in italics have also been added. The core concepts of this study are highlighted and in bold. Elements that are not immediately relevant to this study appear in gray.

Language ideologies, as part of the social context, impact all the elements of everyone's capability sets and are another factor informing teacher educator choices.

While the study's core concepts appear in the first row pertaining to teacher educators, the second row portraying teachers' capability sets is relevant as a way of describing the anticipated consequences informing teacher educators' choices. It should be emphasized that this study does not focus on *teacher educators'* capabilities. Rather, the valued capabilities addressed here are what *teachers* should be able to do or be. Valued capabilities appear in this study as

*goals or purposes* reported by teacher educators, according to how they envision their ELTE students converting resources (ELTE content courses) into capabilities (potential teacher doings and beings)—*not* as actual doings or beings reported by or directly observed in teachers.

This study supposes that, within ELTE in Ecuador, language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies are intimately connected. By studying them together and with the guidance of decolonial theory and a capability approach, I aimed to further understandings of how language use practices in ELTE may support or hinder accomplishing purposes of ELTE that are valuable to local educators, learners, and society. The supposition that language use practices are linked to valued teacher capabilities and language ideologies rests on existing literature on each concept. I review that literature in the next chapter, providing greater depth of discussion of the core concepts of the study and situating them within Latin American and Ecuadorian ELTE.

### **Chapter III: Literature Review**

This study examines language use practices in English Language Teacher Education (ELTE) in Ecuador and relates those practices to valued teacher capabilities and to language ideologies. This chapter presents relevant literature that establishes the core concepts of the study and frames the issue of language use in Ecuadorian ELTE. First, I introduce the context of Ecuador and its educational system. I then present each of the three core concepts, first explaining current understandings of the topic and then discussing how they have been applied to ELTE globally, regionally, and in Ecuador. By moving from global to Latin American to Ecuadorian research on each of these concepts, I aim to progressively focus in on the specific context of this study while illustrating the relevance of that context to educational phenomena observed elsewhere. In keeping with the decolonial perspective informing this dissertation, the study of ELTE in Latin America and in Ecuador, specifically, should be understood as *part of* global education scholarship, contrary to a colonial epistemological assumption whereby “scholarship from the geographically Global South [is] not regarded as ‘global enough’ or [is] positioned outside of the ‘global context’” (Kubota, 2020, p. 719). I focus particularly on research in contexts where English is considered a foreign language (EFL), as they can be considered to have more in common with each other than with English language learning where English is a majority language (typically described as ESL contexts).

#### **Ecuador and Education**

Ecuador has undergone significant socioeconomic and political transformation over the last 25 years, particularly during the presidency of Rafael Correa (2007 to 2017). At the turn of the century, Ecuador was in a state of economic, political, and social turmoil marked by the collapse of the national currency, replaced by the U.S. dollar in 2000; the removal of a series of

presidents by popular protest; and massive emigration (Guayasamin Mogrovejo, 2017). Correa, a populist politician who enjoyed broad support, implemented economic and social reforms aimed to promote inclusive development (Guayasamin Mogrovejo, 2017; Orellana Barahona, 2017; Schneider et al., 2019). His government largely coincided with the 2005 to 2015 oil boom, which grew the economy, expanded the middle class to 37% of the population, and reduced poverty and inequality—all trends which have reversed since 2015 (Gachet et al., 2017).

Education was central to Correa’s political agenda (Bastidas Redin, 2020; Guayasamin Mogrovejo, 2017; Schneider et al., 2019) and underwent major changes during this period. In the early 2000s, Ecuador’s educational system was notably underperforming compared to the country’s size and wealth, with some of the lowest educational indicators in the region (Guayasamin Mogrovejo, 2017; Schneider et al., 2019) and a public sector whose funding had declined since the 1980s (Bastidas Redin, 2020). The Correa government viewed education as key to “chang[ing] the production matrix of the country from a primary-resource-based economy to a knowledge-production economy” (Bastidas Redin, 2020, p. 52). Under Correa, public spending on education quadrupled by 2014, secondary-school enrollment rates rose dramatically, including increased access among indigenous and Afro-Ecuadorian students, and Ecuador rose in regional rankings on standardized tests (Guayasamin Mogrovejo, 2017; Schneider et al., 2019).

These changes were achieved through increased centralization, which took power away from the teachers’ union and the indigenous movement and created new technocratic agencies and processes (Bastidas Redin, 2020; Schneider et al., 2019). Most notable in this period are a set of laws in 2011 and 2012, the first of which linked teacher hiring and promotion to performance indicators and evaluations while raising salaries, and the second of which established standards for university-based teacher education, closing some existing institutions and opening the

National University of Education (UNAE) (Schneider et al., 2019). Despite Correa’s anti-imperialist and anti-neoliberal rhetoric, educational reforms implemented in this period largely coincide with policy recommendations of international organizations like the World Bank (Schneider et al., 2019), adopting a neoliberal model within the public sector (Fajardo-Dack, 2016). In contrast to the decentralized and decolonial approach of Bolivia’s educational reforms in the same era—often described as part of the same leftist wave—Ecuador favored a top-down “redistributive and modernization-centred model” (Bastidas Redin, 2020, p. 67) based on “universal standards of science” (p. 52).

Despite incontrovertible advances in access, infrastructure, and some educational quality indicators, the Correa-era reforms had limitations. According to critics, the government’s confrontational and top-down approach disempowered and scapegoated teachers (Fajardo-Dack, 2016) and created an educational model lacking in cultural relevance and civil-society participation (Bastidas Redin, 2020). Critics argue that quality standards have been implemented largely for show, instating goals that are unattainable within the socioeconomic realities of much of the country and creating new forms of exclusion (Guayasamin Mogrovejo, 2017). Ecuador is thus seen as adopting a “global educational model... that reproduces social inequity through its principles of excellence and meritocracy within highly diverse and unequal realities”<sup>5</sup> (Guayasamin Mogrovejo, 2017, p. 28).

The educational transformation of the 2010s faces an uncertain future just over ten years later, considering Ecuador’s more recent economic and political situation. The Ecuadorian economy was hard hit by falling oil prices in 2015 and a major earthquake in 2016, and educational spending was already declining under Correa after a peak in 2014 (Guayasamin

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<sup>5</sup> My translation.

Mogrovejo, 2017). Correa's successor broke with some of his policies, despite belonging to the same political party, and somewhat relaxed the government's centralized control of the educational system (Schneider et al., 2019). Under the subsequent administration and during the height of the COVID-19 pandemic, public spending on education declined sharply in 2020 and 2021, though it rose again slightly in 2022 ("Salud y educación," 2023).

Recent statistics show Ecuador's primary- and secondary-school enrollment rates as slightly higher than those of the region as a whole (CEPAL, n.d.). However, the country has somewhat lower-than-average spending on education as a percentage of GDP (3.6% in 2022) and higher-than-average student to teacher ratios (30 secondary-level students per teacher on average, in contrast to 20 students on average in the region) according to the UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (CEPAL, n.d.). The legal infrastructure for educational standards remains in place, but with limited resources for reaching those standards in a context of economic downturn and declining public funds. A 2022 report by the Inter-American Development Bank's educational research organization, SUMMA, notes several types of "incoherence" in the Ecuadorian educational system. Based on a broad qualitative study conducted in collaboration with the Ecuadorian Ministry of Education, the report describes how actors at all levels of the educational system are primarily driven by compliance with bureaucratic processes and fear of legal repercussions rather than actual achievement of educational access or quality; how schools lack the funding and administrative power to enact measures of quality they are mandated to comply with; and how legal recognition of culturally relevant pedagogies for diverse student populations is constrained in practice by top-down administration of standardized curriculum and assessments (SUMMA, 2022).

Reforming teacher education and expanding access to English language teaching was of particular interest to South American progressive governments in the 2010s, including Ecuador's (Díaz Maggioli, 2017). While Ecuador's main industries of oil and agricultural exports create little demand for a highly-educated or English-speaking workforce (Schneider et al., 2019), English became increasingly important for the government's vision of integrating Ecuador into an international knowledge economy (Bastidas Redin, 2020), as well as boosting the tourism industry, a key feature of Ecuador's economic strategy since 2013 (Macias & Villafuerte, 2018). English has also been identified as an area of inequality between the public and private educational sectors (Díaz Maggioli, 2017; Leggett, 2015).

Efforts to strengthen EFL education in Ecuador go back several decades. These began in the 1990s, with a collaboration between the British and Ecuadorian governments to train teachers, create materials, and expand mandatory hours of English instruction (Intriago et al., 2017). However, the most significant reforms in EFL education came with the Correa government's educational restructuring. In higher education, a 2010 reform required universities to ensure that all undergraduates reach a 'proficient' level of English, subsequently defined as a Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) B1 (lower intermediate) level (Cajas, 2017). A 2012 policy established English-language standards for students and teachers and mandatory assessments for teachers (Intriago et al., 2017). 2016 saw the implementation of the current national EFL curriculum and made English mandatory in elementary schools. Around the same time, a collaboration between the Ecuadorian and United States governments sought to standardize and strengthen pre-service EFL teacher education in Ecuadorian universities (Intriago et al., 2017; Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017). This set of reforms closely resembled ELT policies previously adopted in Uruguay and subsequently adopted in Chile, following a trend in



education policy pursued by progressive South American governments (Díaz Maggioli, 2017). That trend borrowed policies from other countries in the region rather than from the Global North but “was not different from... previous neoliberal processes, in that governments yield to the pressure of international standards, which are assumed to promote quality provisions” (Díaz Maggioli, 2017, p. 94).

The Ecuadorian Ministry of Education now requires EFL teachers to demonstrate at least a CEFR B2 (upper immediate) level on a recognized standardized test to qualify for tenure or promotion (Reglamento General a La Ley Orgánica de Educación Intercultural, 2012). However, in the last large-scale assessment of the English language proficiency of EFL teachers in the public K-12 system, conducted in late 2018, only 14% of the 6,168 teachers who took the test reached the required B2 (upper intermediate) level, and 55% were determined to have a basic level (A1 or A2) (Ministerio de Educación, Ecuador, 2019). According to the current EFL curriculum, high school graduates should attain a B1 (lower intermediate) level (Ministerio de Educación, Ecuador, 2016), yet there is no evidence that goal is being met. In fact, EFL teachers often experience a disconnect between official policy and the learning contexts they encounter in their classrooms (Fajardo-Dack, 2016; Sevy-Biloon et al., 2020).

It is within this context that this dissertation examines language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and ideologies in ELTE. The remainder of this chapter addresses the literature on those three topics.

### **Language Use Practices**

Language use practices in English language teaching (ELT) contexts can be broadly categorized as English-only, own-language, and multilingual. In this section, I describe and

briefly contextualize each type of practice within the ELT field and then discuss existing research within teacher education specifically.

### ***English-only Practices***

English-only language use practices, though not dominant in all contexts, are the current global norm in ELT (Lin, 2013; Rabbidge, 2019). The “widespread and seductive” (Kerr, 2016, p. 514) English-only norm arose together with the communicative language teaching (CLT) trend in foreign language education. CLT emerged as “a pedagogical reaction to the grammar-translation method” (Lin, 2013, p. 521), which taught students information about the target language rather than active target language use and relied on translation to and from their own languages. In contrast to grammar-translation, the premise of CLT is that language is learned through its meaningful use. Second language acquisition theories underpinning CLT variously emphasize input, output, or interaction in the target language (Rabbidge, 2019), implying that English teachers and learners should use that language to communicate. This perspective generally conceptualizes languages as discrete entities and language users as ideally monolingual native speakers (Rabbidge, 2019), while learners are flawed speakers whose first language(s) interfere with new language acquisition (Lin, 2013). Use of other languages in the English classroom is therefore discouraged or explicitly prohibited. English-through-English mandates in national foreign language education policies in East Asia are one manifestation of this approach (Kerr, 2016; Lin, 2013; Rabbidge, 2019).

In ESL contexts, CLT dominated as *the* teaching method from the 1980s until the 2000s, when the ‘post-methods era’ brought an end to the authority of any one approach (Galante, 2014). In EFL contexts, language education policies and programs began to adopt CLT and its accompanying ideas with the increasing globalization and emphasis on English of the late 1990s

and early 2000s (Rabidge, 2019), though transformation from grammar-translation has not necessarily been complete. Many local EFL teachers experienced ineffective rote and translation-based EFL instruction as students, which may motivate some to now embrace English-only practices; for instance, Rabidge (2019) found that some Korean EFL teachers maximize English use because of personal negative experiences with grammar-translation in their schooling. The 2000s also brought the rise of ‘English-language voluntourism’ (Jakubiak, 2012, 2020), where English ‘native-speakers’ from the Global North travel to EFL contexts (often in the Global South) with the stated purpose of helping people by teaching them English. These ‘native speaker’ EFL teachers were typically monolingual and without teaching qualifications; their value was premised on and perpetuated the notion that English-only classroom practices were ideal for English language learning.

CLT’s premise of learning language through use has extended into other forms of instruction such as content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and English-medium instruction (EMI), where non-linguistic content learning joins or supersedes English learning as the focus of instruction. Though there is some overlap in terminology, CLIL typically describes programs where both language and content are explicit aims of instruction and assessment, while in EMI, English is simply the instructional language for other subject content in contexts where English is a foreign language for most students (Richards & Pun, 2021).

Content-focused forms of English-only instruction arise from various impetuses. EMI is a direct legacy of British colonization in many postcolonial contexts (Richards & Pun, 2021; Tikly, 2016). It has also become popular worldwide in private schooling from elementary to tertiary levels and has been a vehicle for internationalization of higher education (Richards & Pun, 2021). In a variety of Global South contexts, EMI has increasingly been implemented in

higher education programs in various subject areas with the aim of helping students gain access to an international language (Macaro et al., 2018). Where students are understood to be learning English together with the course content, higher education courses taught in English—such as those at one Ecuadorian educational university—are described as taking a CLIL approach (Ortega-Auquilla et al., 2021). Banegas et al. (2020) describe CLIL as established practice in Latin America since 2008 but mostly restricted to private schools where students tend to have more English-learning opportunities and greater ability to engage with content in English than in public institutions. CLIL is in fact mandated in Ecuadorian public schools by the current EFL curriculum, though its actual implementation seems limited (Barre & Villafuerte-Holguin, 2021). Across these contexts, instruction in English is associated with giving students access to the human and cultural capital of a prestigious lingua franca (Richards & Pun, 2021; Tikly, 2016).

While educational models that promote maximal English use for its instrumental value remain very popular globally, English-only practices have been critiqued by a decolonial stream of ELT literature that associates them with colonial cultural, sociopolitical, and economic hegemonies (Barrantes-Montero, 2017; Lin, 2013; Macedo, 2017). Teaching English through English facilitates sales in the global ELT textbook, professional development, and private language study industries, based in edu-businesses and universities in the Global North (Kerr, 2016; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Meanwhile, excluding local languages from the classroom invalidates part of students' and teachers' identities and encourages a deficit view of 'non-native speakers' (Rabbidge, 2019). From a critical applied linguistics perspective, English-only approaches are also problematic because language learning cannot be separated from the learner's existing linguistic repertoire (May, 2014); therefore, learners do better deliberately

building their cross-linguistic awareness than attempting the “impossible to separate or to silence in our brain one (or more) language(s) when using another” (Piccardo et al., 2022, p. 5).

In educational contexts characterized by English-only language use policies or norms, English is not necessarily the only language spoken, though it is likely used predominantly. Especially in contexts where lower-income students have limited access to outside-of-school English learning, English-only may be a stated ideal that is far from classroom reality (Freeman, 2020; Rabbidge, 2019). Anderson and Lightfoot (2021) describe this phenomenon in India as “‘English medium’, on paper, if not in practice” (p. 1211). Teachers may explain instances of other language use as resulting from their own pedagogical limitations or from imperfect teaching circumstances and try to minimize their occurrence (Macaro, 2001). A common theme in the literature is a sense of guilt that some teachers feel surrounding own-language use, even when they believe it to be beneficial (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Galante et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019). English-only is thus an idealized practice that frames speaking other languages in ELT spaces as transgression against the English-only norm.

### ***Own-language Practices***

Instruction in languages other than English has variously been termed ‘native-’, ‘mother tongue-’ or ‘first-’ (L1) language instruction. Here, I use the term *own language*, which Kerr (2016) and others employ to refer to a language that most local students and teachers know well. The characteristics of and motivations for own-language instruction are quite distinct depending on the educational context and instructional aims, particularly whether students’ own language is used in EFL classes where English learning is the stated aim versus in courses focused on non-linguistic content.

In language-focused courses, own-language use was the norm in ELT before the rise of English-only practices and may be described as a ‘traditional’ method (Ur, 2013). In contemporary language pedagogy discourse, own-language use is linked with both grammar-translation and teacher-centered methods and described as the opposite of both English-through-English and learner-centered pedagogy. With the rise of CLT in the 1980s, grammar-translation was dismissed by scholars and ELTE programs in ESL contexts; however, CLT orthodoxy became globalized only in the 2000s (Rabbidge, 2019) and grammar-translation has persisted in some teachers’ practices worldwide (Calle et al., 2012). In Ecuador, many EFL teachers rely on grammar-translation strategies, especially in low-resource contexts such as public and rural schools (Calle et al., 2012; Ortega-Auquilla & Minchala-Buri, 2019). These teachers’ ‘traditional’ approach is contrasted to the greater English use of teachers who embrace more ‘contemporary’ methods and may be attributed to lack of the knowledge, skill or effort required to implement other approaches.

However, in courses focused on non-linguistic content, own-language instruction has gained new life as an alternative to English-medium instruction for those who are skeptical of the inherent value of teaching content in English. Especially at the primary level, instruction in students’ own language can be understood as a human right, notwithstanding potential instrumental benefits of English acquisition (Tikly, 2016). Own-language instruction is valued as a means to ensure that students can deeply engage with content (Kedzierski, 2016) and as an essential component of cultural affirmation and revitalization, especially for minoritized and indigenous populations (McCarty & Lee, 2014). In a sociolinguistic landscape where English is often valued at the expense of indigenous and minoritized languages (Mackenzie, 2020), EFL and own-language instruction may compete for resources.

Instruction exclusively or primarily through EFL students' and teachers' own languages is not currently considered a viable method of developing English language proficiency, though it may be considered preferable to EMI or CLIL for developing content knowledge in other areas. Multilingual practices, on the other hand, offer an alternative to the English-only approach that integrate some of the benefits of own-language instruction with those of instruction in English.

### ***Multilingual Practices***

Multilingual practices are those in which teachers use and encourage students to use all the languages at their disposal to support communication and learning. This might involve comparing aspects of English and own languages, or moving between languages according to the task, message, and interlocuter, for instance (Galante et al., 2020). Multilingual practices are labeled with various terms that have distinct historical and philosophical origins, though they are not always well-distinguished or used in alignment with their philosophical roots. The most prominent are plurilingualism and translanguaging (Chen et al., 2022).

Plurilingualism is originally a language policy of the Council of Europe, rooted in ideals of pluricultural supranational citizenship (García & Otheguy, 2020; Ortega & Piccardo, 2018). Galante et al. (2020) describe plurilingualism as premised on the idea that “language learners have one single repertoire that can be made up of several languages and dialects” and that own languages support rather than interfere with the learning of new languages (p. 982). Plurilingual practices not only permit the use of students' own languages but employ them for “the development of metalinguistic and cross-cultural awareness” (p. 982).

Translanguaging also has European roots but was first coined in Welsh to describe the way linguistic minority students, in the heart of the English-language empire in the United

Kingdom, used Welsh and English (García & Otheguy, 2020). The term and concept was popularized in the context of ELT by García and colleagues' work with language minority students in the United States (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). While plurilingualism developed as a policy, inspired by Europeans' multilingual experiences and identities, translanguaging emerged as an act of resistance (García & Otheguy, 2020). García explains translanguaging's underlying theory of language as going farther than plurilingualism or codeswitching—another term that, like translanguaging, is used to describe bilingual speakers' practice of mixing or moving between languages.<sup>6</sup> Plurilingualism posits that speakers have a 'repertoire of languages'—plural—while translanguaging envisions a 'unitary linguistic repertoire' that is not separated into the sociopolitical entities of 'named languages' (García & Otheguy, 2020). The distinction between languages is seen as meaningful in the world but not in speakers' cognition. Pedagogical translanguaging "puts students first, not language first" (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 27). As described by García and Otheguy (2020), plurilingualism as a language policy does not challenge the hierarchical position of European languages and has not disrupted racialized marginalization of refugee and migrant students in Europe based on their non-European language backgrounds. On the other hand, Piccardo, a leading scholar of plurilingualism, describes plurilingualism as a broader philosophy that subsumes the educational practice of translanguaging (Ortega & Piccardo, 2018).

Both plurilingualism and translanguaging value drawing on students' and teachers' linguistic resources to contribute to their potential success as English-speaking multilinguals (Galante et al., 2020; García & Otheguy, 2020). They do not prohibit own-language use or

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<sup>6</sup> In recent years, translanguaging has come to replace codeswitching—a linguistic concept applied to the field of education—as a way of conceptualizing how learners and teachers use multiple named languages and dialects (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021).



tolerate it as a necessary evil but engage it as a valuable part of becoming and being multilingual, as a tool for learning, and as part of a legitimate language-speaker identity (García & Otheguy, 2020; Ortega & Piccardo, 2018). While recognizing the distinct epistemologies of these terms, in this study I refer more generally to practices that resemble either plurilingualism or translanguaging as *multilingual*, so as to avoid attributing particular ideological assumptions to the practices. Furthermore, the term multilingual indicates the presence of multiple named languages or dialects but does not necessarily imply a philosophy about the extent to which those are or should be interdependent or separate (Ortega & Piccardo, 2018). In some uses, the prefix *multi* is distinguished from *pluri*, where *multi* refers simply to the “coexistence of different languages” (Piccardo et al., 2022, p. 5) rather than a complex and dynamic interplay. This study similarly examines the use of English, Spanish, and a combination of those languages at that simpler level, without precluding the possibility that they are used in an interdependent way.

Research on multilingual practices has identified various potential benefits to these approaches in ELT. Teachers typically use learners’ own languages for checking comprehension, complex explanations, cross-language comparisons, and interactions unrelated to lesson content, while they encourage students to use own language for managing group work, engaging in meta-cognition, and expressing themselves (Kerr, 2016; Ooi & Aziz, 2021; Rabbidge, 2019). Benefits commonly identified in reviews of the literature appear in three general areas: creating a positive learning environment (e.g., establishing rapport, reducing learner anxiety, building confidence and agency), improving language learning (e.g., developing biliteracy, engaging learners’ prior knowledge, building meta-cognition), and improving content learning (e.g., allowing learners to access complex concepts, develop higher-order thinking, demonstrate deep understanding, and collaborate) (Chen et al., 2022; Kerr, 2016; Ooi & Aziz, 2021; Rabbidge, 2019).

Translanguaging is also described as more generally supporting social justice and decolonization (Prilutskaya, 2021; Robinson et al., 2020; Wei & García, 2022), while plurilingualism is described as fostering intercultural competence and “a positive orientation to language plurality and hybridity” (Chen et al 2022 p. 15). Beyond the ELT field, van der Walt (2013) describes a multilingual approach as a more inclusive model than EMI for the internationalization of higher education and Rajendram et al. (2023) call on universities in English-speaking countries to embrace translanguaging to more fully include students from the Global South.

On the other hand, multilingual approaches have been critiqued for overselling their emancipatory potential, being coopted by neoliberal ELT agendas, and running contrary to the preferences of students and families (Kubota, 2016; Rabbidge, 2019). In some contexts, deconstructing the separation between languages in policy and practice could contribute to the erasure of indigenous and minoritized languages (Meighan, 2023). Furthermore, much of the literature on translanguaging comes from ESL contexts where students are expected to have regular access to English outside of school, which is rarely the case in EFL contexts (Ramadiro, 2022).

Multilingual practices have gained traction over the last decade as an alternative to English-only approaches to ELT (Lin, 2013), in a trend that has been described as the ‘multilingual turn’ (May, 2014). While there has been a boom in publications on translanguaging, in a systematic review of 233 peer-reviewed empirical articles on translanguaging published in English from 2011 to 2021, just 2% studied South American contexts and just 3% studied teacher education contexts (Prilutskaya, 2021). While academia’s acceptance of multilingual approaches—which has not necessarily penetrated policy spheres or the ELT industry—is relatively new, incorporating learners’ own languages has long been a

practice of multilingual teachers in peripheral contexts that has gone unrecognized by the global ELT field (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; May, 2014). For instance, Cruz Arcila (2018) describes how an EFL teacher in a rural Colombian school developed her own practice of using students' own languages and dialects to support their English learning and to include their identities as language speakers, though that teacher does not connect her practice with the global literature on translanguaging.

Various studies over the last decade have attempted to capture teachers' attitudes to multilingual practices in EFL contexts. In a survey of 2,785 English teachers in 111 countries and across institution types and instructional levels, Hall and Cook (2013) found that, while 61% reported trying to limit use of learners' own language and almost all agreed that English should be the main language in the ELT classroom, about 80% reported using some amount of learners' own language. Only a third reported feeling guilty about own-language use and more than half felt it was beneficial in some circumstances. Individual teachers' openness to multilingual practices often seemed to be in tension with norms and expectations, however. Most participants responded that their pre- and in-service teacher education "discouraged own-language use" (p. 21) and that their institutions expected English-only practices, while 59% said their colleagues believed in English-only practices. Anderson and Lightfoot (2021) conducted a similar survey of 169 Indian English teachers. Most participants found students' own languages to be a useful resource in the ELT classroom but expressed an "'English-mainly' belief" (p. 1222), with few "purposefully mak[ing] use of translanguaging practices to facilitate learning" (p. 1225). Teachers working in rural areas of India were more open to and perceived more need for own-language use. In Ecuador, a survey of 17 public-school EFL teachers from various cities showed

that teachers saw benefits to Spanish-English codeswitching especially in lower-level classes, but applied it in a reactive rather than intentional way (Intriago Alcivar & Hidalgo, 2021).

Language use practices are difficult to neatly categorize. Some studies distinguish between ‘spontaneous’ and ‘pedagogical’—deliberate, learning-focused—translanguaging or plurilingual strategies (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021; Prilutskaya, 2021). A multilingual approach may appear similar to the ‘imperfect’ execution of an English-only approach, differing at the level of beliefs and expectations. Overall, Hall and Cook’s (2013) observation that “teachers’ attitudes towards own-language use, and their classroom practices, are more complex than are often acknowledged” (p. 27) seems apt.

The literature discusses distinct categories of English-only, own-language, and multilingual practices, while also recognizing some of the variety and complexity within those categories. I drew on those principal categories to describe language use practices during my data collection and analysis, especially for organizing focus groups with participants who had similar practices. However, the primary quantitative and qualitative analyses in this dissertation describe teacher educators’ language use practices along a continuum from English-only to Spanish-only, rather than as categories. The quantitative component also employed Macaro’s (2001) typology of EFL-teacher language use beliefs, as adapted by Anderson and Lightfoot (2021) in their survey of teachers’ language use practices and attitudes. Anderson and Lightfoot’s (2021) version of that typology describes four positions on language use: the *virtual* position, which holds that English-only is ideal and competent English teachers do not need learners’ own language; the *maximal* position, holding that real-world conditions make it impossible to exclude own-language, though it does not help learning; the *judicious* position, that small amounts of own-language can be helpful but English should always be maximized; and the

*inclusive* position that own-language should be used as a valuable resource along with English. The qualitative component described teacher educators' attitudes according to codes that I created inductively. As suggested by the literature, description of how educators believe they ought to use language together with description of how they *do* use language offers a more complete picture of language use practices.

### ***Language Use Practices in EFL Teacher Education***

Many publications on EFL teacher education, including pieces focused on teachers who are speakers of other languages, do not discuss or even mention language use practices in the teacher education program itself or in teachers' work. For instance, Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (1999) and Abednia (2012) offer early examples of courses incorporating critical reflection on language ideologies and teacher identity to empower 'non-native speaker' English teachers; Borelli et al. (2020) and Castañeda-Peña and Méndez-Rivera (2022) described decolonial pedagogies in ELTE. Yet, none of these papers mention how language use was approached within the courses and pedagogies.

Trends in the ELT field are reflected in the practices adopted by ELTE programs. Dang et al. (2013) note a recent widespread adoption of EMI in university pre-service ELTE in EFL contexts, which they associate with broader EMI trends in higher education and a global race to improve EFL education. Research on multilingual practices in ELTE has begun to emerge (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Robinson et al., 2020; Tian, 2020), though it frames these practices as for the benefit of teachers' students more than teachers-in-formation themselves.

**Latin American ELTE.** In the context of Latin America, some literature points to a prevalent English-only or English-primarily approach in contemporary ELTE. Banegas (2020) uses action research to explore a CLIL approach to teaching linguistics in English to pre-service

Argentinian EFL teachers whose English proficiency was limited. Dávila (2020) takes a phenomenological approach to describe how teacher educators in a Nicaraguan program modeled pedagogical strategies in a course aimed to bolster pre-service teachers' language proficiency. These studies reveal a common premise that ELTE can and should address teachers' language learning and pedagogical knowledge development simultaneously, through instruction in English. They do not indicate to what extent multilingual strategies might be used within CLIL or EMI on these programs.

Until recently, Latin American university-based ELTE was characterized by an emphasis on theoretical pedagogical knowledge over practical applications and a “preoccupation” with future teachers' English attainment (Barahona & Darwin, 2021, p. 2). More practical, practice-based approaches to pedagogical knowledge have become more prevalent recently, but learning English through English remains a primary focus of ELTE programs in the region, though there is a theoretical recognition of the idea that (minimal) own-language use is acceptable (Barahona & Darwin, 2021). According to Barahona (2020), “the integration of L1 and translinguaging is still treated as a taboo in second language teacher education in Latin America” (p. 5).

A few publications discuss language of instruction within in-service EFL-teacher professional development and suggest that English-only practices may be common due to teachers' expectations. González Moncada and Quinchía Ortiz (2003) document the importance of teacher educators' English proficiency to Colombian in-service teachers, while Zaidan (2020) notes an English-only norm in Brazilian ELT events, supported by teachers' attitudes.

One can infer from the literature that Latin American EFL teachers have much in common with their students, who often struggle to access opportunities to learn English and may come to EMI classes with limited proficiency. This is particularly the case in public universities

(Abad et al., 2019; Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Morales et al., 2020). Morales et al. (2020) explore translanguaging in pre-service ELTE at a public university in Mexico that serves many indigenous students from communities where secondary-school ELT is not available. In a participatory action research study with pre-service teachers in an English-language class, the authors find that strategies incorporating Spanish, English, and indigenous languages in instruction and assessment allowed participants to better demonstrate their learning and created a more inclusive environment.

A recent publication by Ubaque-Casallas (2023) employs a decolonial lens similar to the theoretical orientation of this study to relate language teacher identity, translanguaging, and ELT pedagogy in the context of ELTE. He describes how two teacher educators at a Colombian university employ translanguaging in a pedagogy course for EFL teachers. They see their inclusion of Spanish within English-medium instruction as a liberatory local practice that is obscured in mainstream methodologies like CLIL (which they also use and teach). Their multilingual approaches are also in tension with some of their students' expectations and with the university's emphasis on language standards and international methodologies. For Ubaque-Casallas (2023), these teacher educators' approaches are decolonial in that they disrupt "colonial ideologies that consider inferior non-Western/North forms of being and thinking" (p. 6), which are prevalent in ELTE in the region.

**Ecuadorian ELTE.** Publications describing ELTE in Ecuador often do not comment on language use during the teacher education activities in question (Daniel & Burgin, 2019; Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017; Serrano et al., 2015). There are some relevant exceptions, however. Orosz (2018) argues for an approach she calls 'content, language and method integrated teacher training.' This approach, which Orosz describes applying in the pre-service ELTE program

where she teaches at the public National University of Education (UNAE), is similar to CLIL but also involves modeling the method of instruction being taught. Pointing to the shortcomings of pre-service teacher education also described at a regional level by Barahona and Darwin (2021), Orosz proposes this approach to address English proficiency and pedagogy at the same time.

A pair of articles by professors of the University of Cuenca, another public university where students enter the ELTE degree program with limited proficiency, describe language use expectations in their pre-service courses (Abad et al., 2019; Argudo et al., 2018). Though they describe the curriculum slightly differently, both explain that several semesters are dedicated to English language learning, while later courses, most of which are taught in English, address content topics related to linguistics, culture, and teaching methods. Using the same data, which they collected with placement tests and surveys of students in later semesters of the ELTE program, the authors of these articles highlight that 52% of participants demonstrated basic English levels (Pre-A1, A1 or A2) and only 12% had reached the required B2 level (Abad et al., 2019; Argudo et al., 2018). Argudo et al. (2018) analyze the extent to which the program achieves CLIL's dual goals of content and language acquisition. They argue that language is not receiving sufficient support in the EMI content classes for those classes to truly contribute to students' proficiency. They also observe that, even while 94% of participating students said they learned "all" or "almost all the content," 50% also professed to understanding just "half," "little," or "nothing" of classes delivered in English (p. 77-78).

Finally, Cajas et al. (2023) examine curricular variations across eight Ecuadorian universities' undergraduate ELTE programs. One of the variations they observe is in the number of hours dedicated to English language instruction for future EFL teachers. They describe that variation as resulting from varying responses to the constraints of standardized core curriculum



requirements mandated by Ecuador's higher education board (Consejo de Educación Superior) in 2015 for all teacher education programs regardless of content area (Cajas et al., 2023). Many programs reduced the number of English language learning courses to make space for mandated content courses, while programs varied in which content courses they designated for Spanish medium instruction versus EMI. Cajas et al.'s (2023) study thus provides insight into language allocation policies in Ecuadorian ELTE, though it does not speak to how teacher educators and students actually use language in those courses.

### ***Language Use Practices in Summary***

In summary, language use practices in education are difficult to neatly categorize, though they can be generally described as English-only, own-language, and multilingual. These practices involve both what teachers and students do and what they believe is optimal to do with language—which may not align. Furthermore, characterizing language use in educational settings requires some consideration of the aims of instruction in those settings. Given growing interest in language use practices and the impact of learning experiences on teachers' practices in their own classrooms, more attention is needed to how pre- and in-service EFL teachers' own languages, as well as English, are involved in their teacher education. This research study describes the extent to which the teacher educators instructing Ecuadorian EFL teachers employ English-only, own-language, or multilingual approaches, and relates those approaches to teacher educators' instructional goals and the broader aims of Ecuadorian ELTE.

### **Valued Teacher Capabilities**

This study conceptualizes teacher educators' instructional goals and their understandings of the purposes of ELTE with a capabilities perspective. Thus, the second core concept of this study is that of valued teacher capabilities. The knowledge, skills, attitudes, and states of being

that teachers should have the opportunity to attain and act on, both for teachers' own well-being and for their contribution to student learning, can be thought of as teacher capabilities (Buckler, 2016; Tao, 2016). Though several studies have argued for the relevance of capabilities approaches to language learning and language in education (Crosbie, 2014; Formosinho et al., 2019; Imperiale, 2018; Tikly, 2016), EFL teachers' work and professional learning have not been studied from a capabilities perspective. The literature on English language teaching instead refers to 'core teaching practices' (Barahona, 2020), teachers' 'knowledge base' (Freeman, 2020) and 'abilities' (Richards, 2017), 'areas' of professional learning (Buendia & Macías, 2019) and various other terms, all of which I consider here as teacher capabilities.

ELTE aims to foster *specific teacher capabilities* that are essential for effective EFL teaching, though which capabilities are essential is a matter of much discussion in ELTE literature (Barahona, 2015; Richards, 2017). Teacher education is also commonly understood as a vehicle for improving education (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Darling-Hammond et al., 2017; Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019), with different perspectives on educational quality implying distinct *overarching teacher capabilities*. Finally, individuals and institutions may have more instrumental purposes for engaging in teacher education that do not directly relate to teaching or educational quality (Sadeghi & Richards, 2021). This section overviews literature on specific EFL teacher capabilities, overarching capabilities seen as improving the quality of EFL teaching, and other ELTE aims that are not immediately tied to teaching and learning. I then describe how those teacher capabilities appear in the literature on ELTE in Latin America and in Ecuador specifically.

### *Specific Capabilities for EFL Teachers*

**Content Knowledge.** Broadly speaking, teacher professional competency involves knowledge of content and pedagogy, both as ‘declarative’ and as ‘procedural’ knowledge—knowing *about* and knowing *how* (Barahona, 2015; Richards, 2010). There is some debate about what relevant ELT content knowledge encompasses (Barahona, 2015; Richards, 2017). Topics in ELTE degree programs range from applied linguistics and sociolinguistics to literature and culture to research methods (Richards, 2017). However, English proficiency is an incontrovertible part of English teacher content knowledge (Barahona, 2015; Freeman et al., 2015; Richards, 2017).

While English proficiency is one of the most emphasized EFL teacher capabilities (Barahona, 2015; Richards, 2017), it is difficult to pinpoint or measure the relationship between English proficiency and effective teaching of English (Faez et al., 2021; Freeman, 2020). Current accepted theories of language acquisition indicate that significant amounts of input and output in the target language are necessary for language learning to take place (Rabbidge, 2019), suggesting that teachers need to be able to use English in class and support their learners in using it (Barahona & Darwin, 2021; Richards, 2017). One theory holds that teachers need to reach a ‘proficiency threshold’, beyond which non-linguistic factors are more important to effective teaching (Richards, 2010; Tsang, 2017). Abad et al. (2021) studied the relationship between proficiency and observed pedagogical practice of 17 EFL teachers at six private schools in Cuenca, Ecuador. They found no significant relationship between proficiency level and class management or use of activities, while more English-proficient teachers did provide clearer explanations and engage in deeper, less-routine exchanges in the target language. There was no

significant correlation between these students' ratings of their teachers' instructional efficacy and the teachers' proficiency, however (Argudo Serrano et al., 2021).

The aspect of teaching competence that has most clearly been empirically linked to teacher proficiency is teacher efficacy, a measure of teachers' belief in their own professional abilities (Faez et al., 2021). In a quantitative meta-analysis of 20 studies across various national contexts, Faez et al. (2021) found a moderate relationship between proficiency and teacher efficacy, supporting the idea that language ability is one of various factors that influence language teacher effectiveness (Richards, 2010). At the very least, being proficient in English is important to many EFL teachers (Argudo Serrano et al., 2021; Faez et al., 2021; Richards, 2017).

Just as the role of English proficiency in EFL teachers' work is debated, there is no clear consensus on the level and nature of proficiency that is desirable. While 'native-speakers' have long been held as the standard, the idea that good teaching does not require 'perfect' nor 'native-like' mastery of the language is gaining acceptance (Freeman, 2020; Richards, 2017). Teacher proficiency is often measured with mainstream tests (such as the TOEFL) and general scales of language competence (such as the Common European Framework of Reference), suggesting that EFL teachers need broad, general English proficiency (Faez et al., 2021; Freeman, 2020). An alternative position is that ELT requires a specific, reduced set of linguistic knowledge and skills that can be conceptualized as a kind of 'English for specific purposes,' similar to how aviation professionals, for instance, learn the language (Freeman, 2020; Freeman et al., 2015; Richards, 2017).

These divergent positions on the role and nature of teacher English proficiency have different implications for the priorities and approaches of ELTE. If we consider teacher proficiency to be closely related to teacher effectiveness, then ensuring teachers have a high level

of proficiency should be a high priority capability in ELTE programs and considerable instructional time should be dedicated to English learning and English use. The importance of dedicating instructional time to the English language increases if the goal is to ensure a high level of *general* English proficiency, which takes more time to acquire than English for specific purposes. In that scenario, given that instructional time is limited, taking an English-only approach in courses covering non-linguistic content knowledge or pedagogical knowledge may be valuable for maximizing English language exposure—though we should be cautious of the assumption that an English-only approach is optimal for English learning. On the other hand, if teachers only need to master a reduced set of English skills for the purpose of teaching, that capability might be attained through targeted ‘English for English teachers’ courses while other courses might prioritize non-linguistic teacher capabilities. In that scenario, own-language or multilingual practices may be more valuable in non-linguistic courses, as those approaches support mastery of non-linguistic content. Similarly, if we consider English language proficiency to be just one component—and perhaps even a relatively minor component—of teacher effectiveness, then fostering other specific teacher capabilities such as pedagogical knowledge gains priority over ensuring English proficiency.

**Pedagogical Knowledge.** Pedagogical knowledge involves knowing about and knowing how to apply teaching strategies, methods, and approaches that are appropriate to the learners and the context (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019). This includes planning and executing learning activities, managing the learning environment, communicating with students, assessing learning, and responding to problems (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Richards, 2010).

There are several prevalent approaches to pedagogical competence, which Barahona (2015) characterizes as ‘craft,’ ‘applied-science,’ and ‘reflective’ models. The craft model sees

expert teachers' practice as the source of pedagogical knowledge, while the applied-science model looks to theories of second language acquisition and other research-based theories of learning. Both view imparting a certain set of techniques, via apprenticeship or via the application of theory, as the main purpose of teacher education. The reflective model, on the other hand, considers good pedagogy to be situational and to involve many unforeseeable possibilities. Participants in teacher education are themselves the source of good practice, which they learn by doing, and the purpose of teacher education is to foster the skills and opportunities through which practitioners can experience and reflect on teaching. ELTE programs generally adopt a mix of these models (Barahona, 2015), though government EFL policies tend to be most heavily influenced by the applied-science view of ELT (Rabbidge, 2019).

Less common in institutionalized ELTE are critical models of teacher education that view identifying and addressing issues of power and social justice in the ELT classroom and field as an essential part of pedagogy (Barahona, 2015). These include Kumaravadivelu's (2012, 2016) advocacy for transformative teacher education that positions teachers as knowledge producers and disrupts dominant views of universally applicable theory. Critical perspectives on pedagogical knowledge align with a growing interest in teacher identity and cognition in ELTE.

**Teacher Identity and Cognition.** Over the last twenty years, teacher identity has emerged as a significant area of research in teacher education (Barkhuizen, 2019). This arises from a broader 'sociocultural turn' (Johnson, 2016) where teaching and learning to teach are:

No longer viewed as a matter of simply translating theories of linguistics and/or second language acquisition (SLA) into effective instructional practices but as a dialogic process of co-constructing knowledge that is situated in and emerges out of participation in particular socio-cultural practices and contexts. (p. 122)

Teacher identity has been broadly defined as teachers' "understandings of themselves and their activity" in relation to their professional contexts (Reis, 2011, p. 143). Various dimensions of language teacher identity include teacher roles, beliefs, emotions, and experiences (Barkhuizen, 2019). These dimensions, along with other aspects of identity such as nationality, gender, race, socioeconomic status, and own-language, all deeply impact the way that EFL teachers engage with teacher education and their work (Johnson, 2016). From the sociocultural perspective, "the extent to which teacher education leads to positive changes is believed to be largely determined by the identities teachers bring to courses and how they are reconstructed during teacher education" (Abednia, 2012, p. 707). Decolonial perspectives on ELTE fall within this sociocultural outlook (though sociocultural perspectives are not necessarily decolonial) and the capabilities approach also takes sociocultural dimensions of education into account through the concept of conversion factors.

Given the impact of identities, ELTE programs may aim to "socialise teachers into particular ways of conceptualising themselves as teachers, carrying out their teaching practices and supporting student learning" (Johnson, 2016, p. 127). This socialization occurs through inculcating participants with the professional discourse of the field, comprised of "ways of acting and interacting...; appropriate cultural practices in the course room" and cannon ideas such as learner-centeredness and CLT, which "enact" teacher identity and group membership (Singh & Richards, 2006, p. 158). The focus of ELTE thus shifts from developing knowledge and skills to developing behaviors and beliefs (Singh & Richards, 2006). For example, in a call to rethink language teacher education in an increasingly multilingual world, Gao and Yang (2023) identify key teacher capabilities that include being able to "recognize and value the linguistic and cultural resources of language learners," "take control of their own professional learning and

development,” “find ways to maintain their wellbeing and become the kinds of teachers they would like to be,” and “be empowered to engage with social justice and equity issues in teaching” (p. 4).

Teacher identity is an outcome of particular interest in the literature on ELTE for ‘non-native’ English-speaker teachers (NNESTs). It is well-documented that “non-native teachers have suffered from a lack of self-confidence and a feeling of illegitimacy within the profession,” (Llurda, 2016, p. 58), which are reinforced by “the process of marginalization and the practice of self-marginalization” (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 22). In the context of ELTE, issues of confidence and legitimacy, in addition to being distressing for ‘NNESTs’, may interfere with teacher learning and complicate teachers’ development as critical, reflective practitioners co-constructing pedagogical knowledge. Some ELTE courses have made developing legitimate ‘NNEST’ identities a core aim, employing critical (Abednia, 2012; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999) and decolonial (Borelli et al., 2020; Castañeda-Peña & Méndez-Rivera, 2022) models of teacher education. Such courses employ reflective assignments that engage critical texts and participants’ own experiences and identities within a Freirean methodology.

To summarize, there are three main types of specific teacher capabilities that ELTE may aim to foster: content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and identity and cognition. Which outcomes are most highly valued, and how those outcomes are understood—such as the ‘applied science’ versus ‘reflective’ approaches to pedagogical learning—again hold implications for how teachers are taught. Language use practices in teacher education likely impact EFL teachers’ behavior, beliefs, and sense of self as ELT professionals, as well as their acquisition and implementation of teaching strategies through reflection, theory application, or apprenticeship models. It is likely more difficult to engage in deep reflection or consider complexities of



language acquisition theory with an English-only approach than with an own-language or multilingual approach when students are still in the process of acquiring English proficiency and do not have an advanced level. Struggling to learn how to plan and carry out learning activities, manage the classroom environment, assess learning, etc., without the support of one's most proficient language could potentially contribute to the lack of professional confidence that hampers many 'non-native' EFL teachers (Llurda, 2016). On the other hand, English-only or primarily English language use practices in ELTE might help EFL teachers "enact" teacher identity and group membership (Singh & Richards, 2006) as part of a cadre of teachers who have the skills and drive to implement contemporary best practices in their teaching (and perhaps define what those best practices are)—a valuable capability from the sociocultural perspective. Based on the literature, it is unclear what role language use practices may play in developing various types of pedagogical knowledge, professional identity, and critical thinking. This study addresses that gap by examining the relationships between valued specific teacher capabilities and language use approaches in teacher educators' practices.

The varying emphasis on content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and teacher identity and cognition within ELTE programs implies not only different conceptualizations of how teachers learn to teach, but also divergent broader philosophies of educational improvement. We must therefore also consider overarching teacher capabilities associated with improving the quality of English language education.

### ***Overarching Capabilities for EFL Teachers***

Teachers and teaching practice are central to educational quality. An important purpose of teacher education is to contribute to the quality of education available in a society, as "the success and effectiveness of any educational system rests on the shoulders of those institutions

and programs devoted to educating teachers” (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019, p. 195). Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) consider professional development effective if it “results in changes to teacher knowledge and practices, and improvements in student learning outcomes” (p. 2). While EFL instruction has become mandatory in many national education systems, student learning outcomes rarely match stated objectives and there is a “general sense of failure of efforts to reform and improve ELT around the world” (Freeman et al., 2015, p. 129). Differing visions of how teacher education can improve ELT reveal fundamental tensions in the field, and in education more broadly.

One stance on educational improvement values standards and accountability, which have become increasingly prevalent in a globalized educational culture (Ramirez et al., 2016). From this perspective, EFL teachers’ ability to teach in English and implement established best practices is the problem to be addressed. Thus, ELTE needs to prioritize teachers being accountable to standards for content and pedagogical knowledge. Attempts to improve ELT from this stance are characterized by mandatory national curriculum, standardized testing for students and teachers, and teacher education in international best practices, as observed, for instance, with Colombia’s *Plan Nacional Bilingüe* (Cardona-Escobar et al., 2021; Sierra Ospina, 2016). National governments have focused on raising EFL-teachers’ general language proficiency in response to documented and perceived limitations of ELT in their countries (Freeman, 2020; Freeman et al., 2015). This contributes to a “deficit view of knowledge and practices, focusing on what the vast majority of the global ELT teaching community don’t know and can’t do” (Freeman, 2020, p. 12). Valuing the overarching teacher capability of being accountable is also associated with prioritizing EFL education for instrumental economic purposes (Cardona-Escobar et al., 2021).

An alternate stance values differentiation and contextualization and aims to improve education by empowering teachers as decision makers. Equity in ELT—rather than equality and standardization—requires the ability to respond in varied ways to the needs of particular learners and learning circumstances (Cardona-Escobar et al., 2021). From this perspective, the central problem of global ELT initiatives is a disconnect between local teaching circumstances and the practices promoted by national policy and ELTE, particularly in low-resource EFL contexts (Kuchah et al., 2019). Thus, ELTE needs to prioritize teachers being empowered to adapt and contextualize instruction, as teachers’ “own pragmatic responses to classroom realities” (Kuchah et al., 2019, p. 353) are more likely to contribute to educational quality than techniques promoted by mainstream ELT. In such contexts, “constructivist approaches which reinforce teacher agency and collaboration are more likely to support teacher professional development than existing top-down mandated training models favoured by [Ministries of Education]” (Kuchah et al., 2019, p. 360). Beyond these pragmatic reasons, approaches that empower local EFL teachers are valued for the broader purpose of decolonizing education and knowledge construction (Castañeda-Londoño, 2021; Kumaravadivelu, 2016). Valuing the overarching teacher capability of being empowered is associated with the educational goal of contributing to social justice in the face of unjust structures and ideologies (Robinson et al., 2020).

While focus on English proficiency is associated with teachers being accountable, it is less obvious how valuing English proficiency relates to the overarching capability of being empowered. According to Sierra Ospina (2016), excessive focus on English proficiency in ELTE conflicts with a sociocultural approach to teacher learning that allows for teacher reflection and empowerment. On the other hand, Freeman (2020) argues that ELTE that centers teacher agency can also prioritize English proficiency but shifts the focus from the language to the teachers.

Thus, “outcomes in English language teacher education can be portrayed in terms of teachers’ confidence in using that language or those skills in practice” rather than on proficiency indicators (Freeman, 2020, p. 14).

Despite the tensions between some of the capabilities discussed so far, all are closely related to teaching practices. However, teacher capabilities also include conditions of the profession related to income and status, such as “being adequately remunerated” and “being able to feel respect and recognition” (Tao, 2010, p. 12). For pre- or in-service teachers, ELTE often serves the purpose of providing a necessary credential for employment or complying with professional development mandates. While such aims are certainly not incompatible with valuing other teacher capabilities, in some cases access to employment, job security, or higher pay may be the real goal in ELTE. In a qualitative study of Iranian EFL teachers, Sadeghi and Richards (2021) found that—perhaps due to local economic circumstances and low status of the profession, which most participants stated was not their preferred career path—they had almost exclusively instrumental motives for engaging in professional development. In many Global South contexts, there is a shortage of EFL teachers (Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019) and teaching is an underpaid and often not first-choice profession (Kuchah et al., 2019). Thus, valuing the economic and social value of teaching degrees or certificates is another possible overarching perspective on ELTE.

Teacher education programs may also have economic and social value for institutions. ELTE may be designed under the influence of powerful global actors and norms, rather than to optimize teacher and student learning. Ball (2012) points to the global influence of for-profit and non-profit non-governmental organizations that benefit from the spread of the teacher-training methods, materials, and policies that they provide. Ramirez et al. (2016) describe how

“consensual educational virtues in contemporary world society” (p. 58), which include values of both emancipatory participation and standardized accountability, shape education systems worldwide. Barahona and Darwin (2021) observe that South American ELTE programs “have generally attempted to develop context-responsive pedagogies that value local social practices and...support students’ learning of English” (p. 4-6). Yet, they also describe how ELTE models popularized globally but “particularly in North American contexts” have become more common in the region (p. 3). ELTE programs may serve to legitimize the practice of ELT in their locations or to cater to economic interests.

In summary, there are several possible goals of ELTE that are broader than the specific teacher learning outcomes discussed in the previous section. ELTE may hold teachers accountable to widely established quality standards; it may empower teachers to differentiate their instruction according to the context; it may grant teachers and universities access to greater recognition or prestige and income or revenue. I initially conceptualized these three general goals of ELTE as ‘broad purposes,’ which informed the wording of the data collection instruments and led me to mention teachers’ *and* universities access to economic and social benefits of ELTE in the relevant survey item for the quantitative component of this study. However, in the qualitative and subsequent integrated analyses, I re-conceptualized these goals as ‘overarching teacher capabilities,’ a term which better fit both the qualitative data and the study’s theoretical and conceptual framework. Thus, in the quantitative portion of this study I refer to ‘prestige and income,’ in keeping with the wording on the survey, and in the qualitative and integrated components I refer to the more general theme of ‘recognition and remuneration.’

### *EFL Teacher Capabilities Valued in Latin America and Ecuador*

Tensions between various teacher-learning outcomes and philosophies of educational improvement are common threads in Latin American and Ecuadorian ELTE.

**Latin American ELTE.** Policy-oriented literature on ELT in Latin America emphasizes the linguistic and pedagogical shortcomings of EFL teachers and teacher education programs in the region, recommending that ELTE should hold teachers accountable to standards (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019). For instance, Cronquist and Fiszbein (2017) evaluate whether Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Peru, and Uruguay have met “indicators of progress” (p. 4) in implementing standards and proficiency assessments for EFL students and teachers. They assert that “the quality of [teacher] training is varied and overall poor... There is also wide variability in the use of entrance or exit requirements for teacher education programs with few countries having a standardized approach” (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017, p. 6). In a subsequent report, Stanton and Fiszbein (2019) point to the challenge created by “the lack of adequately credentialed English teachers and the inability of existing training programs to effectively prepare teachers, coupled with the growing demand for English language instruction” (p. 7). They again call for language-proficiency certification requirements for EFL teachers, employment consequences for teachers who do not meet benchmarks, and greater standardization with more rigorous criteria for pre-service ELTE programs.

This deficit and accountability-driven approach to ELTE has characterized language policy in the region. González Moncada (2021) examines her own professional trajectory to critique national approaches to EFL-teacher education in Colombia that have historically espoused the view that “teachers required intervention to ‘fix’ their limitations, mainly in English

proficiency and ELT methodologies” (p. 141). In a qualitative study employing document analysis, questionnaires and interviews in Antioquia, Colombia, Sierra Ospina (2016) found that teachers’ primary interaction with the *Plan Nacional Bilingüe* was being summoned to take proficiency tests. One-size-fits-all approaches to educational improvement view teachers as instruments for the implementation of standardized methods and content that they are not involved in creating, eschewing the sociocultural understanding of teaching and learning (Sierra Ospina, 2016). Barahona and Darwin (2021) observe that persistent concerns about student learning outcomes across Latin America, even with these policies in place, have in turn redoubled “broad questions as to the quality of teacher preparation and persistent calls for curriculum reform” in ELTE programs (p. 6).

The idea that teacher education should be contextualized and responsive is becoming somewhat more accepted in the region (Barahona, 2020), in part due to the idea that “the theory and practice divide” (Barahona & Darwin, 2021, p. 6) impedes teachers’ implementing what they learn in ELTE. This reflects the limitations of decontextualized teacher training, which has long been decried by critical South American ELT scholars (Buendia & Macías, 2019; González Moncada, 2007). It also aligns with the view of some North American ELT scholars that “questions of what it means to teach ‘well’ are often caught in tensions between global definitions of ELT professionalism and the day-to-day practices of ELT which are profoundly local” (Freeman, 2020, p. 10).

Though far from mainstream, some approaches to ELTE in South America prioritize critical study aimed at developing teacher identities and beliefs as rooted in particular social, cultural, and political contexts. These are most visible in ELT literature from Colombia, where programs at the Universidad de Antioquia (González Moncada, 2021) and the Universidad

Distrital Francisco José de Caldas (Méndez Rivera et al., 2020), for instance, have produced notable research on EFL-teacher knowledge, identity and education from critical and decolonial perspectives. Borelli et al. (2020), as participants in a network of critical language teacher educators in Brazil, describe decolonial practices they have developed for local knowledge and EFL-teacher identity construction in ELTE. While similar approaches have been called for in various Latin American contexts, dominant ideas about EFL teachers' professional competence and deficiencies prevail. Mendes and Finardi's (2018) call for change in Brazil is evocative of the situation in the region:

EFL teacher education is required to develop pre-service teachers' ability to critically reflect on their experience in order to question and reconstruct [hegemonic] beliefs [about language and their profession]. However, it seems that EFL pre-service teacher education in Brazil is more focused on discussions on what and how to do in class rather than on why teachers do what they do. (p. 56)

Pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge thus tend to outweigh identity and beliefs as valued specific teacher capabilities in Latin American ELTE.

Tension between developing linguistic and non-linguistic capabilities is a central concern. Barahona (2015) describes this as the challenge "for pre-service teachers to appropriate pedagogical knowledge and language proficiency concurrently" (p. 39). Banegas and Martínez Argudo (2019) describe the difficulty of balancing future teachers' "English language proficiency and the development of higher-thinking skills to take control of their own teaching development" (p. 198). Dávila (2018) worries that preparation for standardized international English exams "could take time and place from other important pedagogical aspects" (p. 231).



Due to both teacher shortages and concerns for equity in a context where public-school graduates, particularly those from rural areas, are unlikely to have gained intermediate proficiency in high school, many undergraduate ELTE programs accept students at any level of English proficiency and then contend with mixed language levels within a cohort-based curriculum typically taught in English (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019).

Among these concerns, English language capabilities tend to dominate (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Barahona, 2015; A. Dávila, 2018; Martin, 2016). In a descriptive study of pre-service ELTE at 16 Chilean universities, Martin (2016) found that Chilean EFL teacher education programs heavily emphasize learning English, take an ‘applied science’ approach to pedagogical knowledge, and do little to connect their curriculum to local teaching realities. A teacher educator in Martin’s study commented that it would be better to introduce methodology courses earlier in the program, but that students do not have sufficient English proficiency for it at that point—revealing the assumption that such courses must be taught in English. Banegas and Martínez Argudo (2019) note similar emphasis on English in Chilean and Ecuadorian university-based ELTE and observe that Colombian programs seem to put more emphasis on pedagogy and teacher decision-making than their Chilean and Ecuadorian counterparts, based on their review of literature from the three countries. Meanwhile, in a reflective piece examining external forces that impact teacher educators’ identity construction in Colombian ELTE, Dávila (2018) highlights the impact of discourses and policies that make the achievement of international certifications of English proficiency central to EFL teacher identity. He considers that the emphasis on standard CEFR levels leads teacher educators to “give more relevance to formal aspects of the language rather than the social, political, cultural and pedagogical aspects of the process of education” (p. 229).

**Ecuadorian ELTE.** Ecuadorian ELT literature identifies both English proficiency and pedagogical skill as essential teacher capabilities that ELTE needs to better address. Since the Ministry of Education first applied a standardized assessment of public-school EFL teachers' proficiency in 2012, at which point just 1% of those who took the test achieved the desired CEFR B2 level (Ureña, 2014), policymakers and the media have decried the inadequacy of most Ecuadorian teachers' mastery of their subject (González Moncada & Llurda, 2016). Describing a collaboration between the U.S. Embassy and Ecuadorian universities from 2011 to 2015 to standardize university-based ELTE, Serrano et al. (2015) declare that "the majority of English teachers in Ecuador have neither the language proficiency nor the methodologies to teach English effectively in the schools" (p. 109). In 2014, 2% of evaluated teachers were diagnosed at B2 (Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017). The most recent official national evaluation of Ministry of Education EFL teachers was conducted in 2018. On that test, 14% of the 6,168 evaluated teachers attained the B2 level, with the majority diagnosed at a basic level (A1 or A2) (Ministerio de Educación, Ecuador, 2019). This suggests an improvement since previous evaluations, but clearly indicates that many teachers' general English proficiency is limited.

In some local publications, EFL teachers' pedagogical difficulties beyond English proficiency are identified as the root of disappointing student outcomes. A rare study documenting classroom practices at scale, including observation of 92 public-school EFL teachers in the city of Cuenca, pointed to "the use of traditional teaching strategies, the teacher-centered approach, the lack of interaction with and among students in the target language, and the confusion of teachers when applying different communicative strategies" (Calle et al., 2012). In a survey-based study of university-level EFL teachers, Acosta and Cajas (2018) note that while attempting to implement communicative methods, teachers may over-rely on worksheets

and textbooks that in fact discourage communication and hold little relevance to the Ecuadorian context. Burgin and Daniel (2017) observe teacher-centered and transmission-based rather than participatory methods among nine public high-school EFL teachers in the Highlands region, though they note that these teachers were skillful at managing activities and engaging learners. Similarly, Ortega-Auquilla and Minchala-Buri (2019) observed eight EFL teachers in rural schools during an academic school year and found that the grammar-translation method was predominant. They observe that “learning spaces where there is... meaningful communicative interaction in English between the teacher and the student and between students are almost non-existent” (p. 66), contrary to the ostensible use of CLT and CLIL in the current national curriculum.

Teachers themselves voice a variety of concerns regarding the quality of ELT in Ecuador. As part of a larger research project at the UNAE, Sevy-Biloon et al. (2020) held round-table discussions with 40 experienced public-school EFL teachers from central Ecuador who had demonstrated a B2 level of English, during which they discussed findings from classroom observations that the university’s researchers had conducted with 15 of these teachers. Salient topics in these discussions were the difficulty of planning with the mandated national curriculum, large class size, lack of training in supporting students with special needs, and low prioritization of English within the school system. Participants were divided on whether the use of Spanish in Ecuadorian EFL classrooms helps or hinders students’ learning, though many described it as necessary. In another publication emerging from a later stage of the same research project, Orosz et al. (2021) document findings from in-depth interviews with 10 of the teachers from the round-table discussions. These interviews suggested that, from teachers’ perspectives, the major challenges to Ecuadorian ELT are “lack of motivation, insufficient number of English classes,

and the fact that for indigenous students English is not the first, but the second additional language” (p. 241). These teachers were also frustrated by lack of access to in-service teacher education, which the authors note has dwindled since government budget cuts in 2018. These studies evoke “the theory and practice divide” (Barahona & Darwin, 2021, p. 6) observed elsewhere in the region.

The UNAE study exemplifies recent growth in Ecuadorian ELT research that illuminates what local teachers and students want EFL-teacher education to accomplish. Preliminary data from another UNAE-led research project indicates public-school EFL teachers’ professional development interests based on a nationwide survey with 3,813 respondents (LEARN, 2021). Ninety-four percent were interested in reflection-based teacher training, 57% wished to improve their methodological knowledge, and 46% wanted to better incorporate technology in their teaching. For respondents, one of the most important characteristics of ELTE was that it be applicable to their students’ needs. The importance of training in English proficiency was more controversial, as “teachers with a B2 level of English tend to agree that proficiency plays a fundamental role in ELT, whereas teachers with a level lower than B2 think the opposite” (LEARN, 2021, p. 6). Studies of student opinion echo this mixed perception of the importance of teachers’ English proficiency. In a survey of 89 EFL students from two Ecuadorian universities, Sevy-Biloon (2019) finds that “effective teaching qualities are much more important than language fluency for students” (p. 8), though knowledge of English language—but not necessarily communication skills—was their first priority. Carrillo-Patarón et al. (2022) surveyed 322 beginner EFL students at a public university in the Coast region and found that teachers’ effective communication in English and effective lesson planning were equally important to students, though fostering motivation and confidence were slightly more important qualities than

either proficiency or planning. Neither study revealed a strong preference for ‘native-speaker’ teachers.

Literature on university-based ELTE in Ecuador echoes some of the valued teacher capabilities and tensions seen in other EFL contexts. The challenge of balancing English language learning with pedagogical objectives, especially when student-teachers’ proficiency levels are low, is conspicuous in the Ecuadorian context (Abad et al., 2019; Argudo et al., 2018). Cajas et al. (2023) quote a program coordinator who participated in their study of ELTE curricula:

According to the Ministry of Education, when students finish their secondary school, they need to have a B2 level of English. We all know that it is not the case. Some students finish with an A2 level and, in some cases, they even have an A1 level. These are the type of students who come to the university pursuing a career in English language teaching. Regrettably, we cannot deviate much from the standardized curriculum requirements and increase the number of English proficiency teaching hours to improve language proficiency among our students. (p. 26).

Argudo et al. (2018) note that at the University of Cuenca, most students enter the undergraduate ELTE program with a basic level and, despite several semesters of language instruction, “students have issues when learning content courses taught in English” (p. 82). They observe that “according to the students’ perceptions, it seems they are acquiring the necessary subject knowledge; nevertheless, language is being relegated to second position, and it is not being developed with content, simultaneously” (p. 82). This perceived tension between these teacher capabilities is interesting given that, according to the authors:

The main objective of the Pre-Service EFL Teaching program is for students to achieve an adequate oral and written use of the target language at a B2 level, with relevant knowledge about English linguistics, as well as its literary and cultural manifestations. (Argudo et al., 2018, p. 72)

As in Chile, content knowledge and particularly language proficiency seems to be prioritized over other teacher capabilities in some Ecuadorian programs, while others may dedicate more time to non-linguistic goals.

Developing teacher identity and beliefs are not notable goals of Ecuadorian ELTE according to the literature, though the growing interest in connecting teacher education to local teachers' and students' experiences shows the influence of a sociocultural understanding of education that takes context into account. It is possible that ELTE educators and programs value these teacher capabilities in ways that are not yet broadly documented in the literature. One sign of this is a review of the literature on "personal traits that [English language teachers] should empower themselves with" (Heredia-Arboleda et al., 2021, p. 1526) conducted by a group of professors of the National University of Chimborazo as part of a preliminary study for the development of a Master's program in ELTE.

At a national policy level, the idea that ELTE improves education by 'fixing' EFL teachers' failings is evident in Ecuador. Like other countries in the region, Ecuador has moved towards standardization and accountability in ELT over the last decade in an attempt to improve learner outcomes (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; Fajardo-Dack, 2016). In 2011, the Ministry of Education in collaboration with the U.S. Embassy and inspired by previous work on standards in Uruguay, undertook a standards project "focused almost entirely on the English language proficiency of teachers" (Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017, p. 352) but also addressing the "apparent

incapacity of Ecuadorian universities to produce professionals that could meet the new challenges” of ELT (p. 353). This led to a collaboration between universities offering ELTE to adopt common elements of study across their programs to align with the Ministry’s new standards (Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017). (During this period, the Ecuadorian board of higher education also created a set of standardized requirements for teacher education across content areas [Cajas et al., 2023]). While this process involved consultation with various local stakeholders, it appears to align with an ‘applied science’ approach to ELTE and value the overarching capability of being accountable. In a theoretical analysis and critique of Ecuador’s education reforms from 2009 to 2015, Fajardo-Dack (2016) argues that the standardized approach has disempowered teachers. She notes that rigid standards for tenure and pay scale raises have saved the State money while contributing to the precarity of the teacher workforce, while at the same time “there is a sense of powerlessness among teachers because they have been labeled as lazy, unprepared and unprofessional” (p. 85).

Value placed on teachers being empowered is much less visible in Ecuadorian ELTE than value placed on teachers being accountable. Nevertheless, several universities are emphasizing teacher action research and communities of practice in ELT (Fajardo Dack, 2017; Martínez Molina et al., 2018; Soto, 2020), approaches associated with the empowerment purposes of ELTE. A qualitative study by Calle et al. (2019) contrasting two programs for in-service EFL teachers notes a need for more bottom-up teacher professional development that promotes “the empowerment and agency of teachers” (p. 150). Drawing in part on literature from Colombia on critical ELTE, Calle et al. (2019) describe empowering teacher professional development as based on assessment of teacher needs and contexts rather than predetermined technical skills.

### *Valued Teacher Capabilities in Summary*

In summary, specific teacher capabilities relate to content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and teacher identity and beliefs. ELTE programs vary in the time and resources they dedicate to those capabilities. Overarching teacher capabilities of being empowered to critically adapt to socioculturally situated contexts, being accountable to widely-recognized and perhaps empirically-established standards, and being recognized and remunerated may also be valued. The value placed on these various capabilities shape the policy and practice of educating EFL teachers, though ELTE may also serve purposes unrelated to teacher capabilities.

This discussion of valued teacher capabilities illuminates an essential concept for exploring the language use practices of Ecuadorian teacher educators, as language use practices must be considered in relation to educational aims. By better understanding what teacher educators are trying to accomplish through their instruction, we can consider how language use practices may support or detract from reaching those goals. At present, it is unclear how specific practices relate to valued and valuable capabilities. Furthermore, it is important to consider that teacher educators prioritize and link their language use and valued teacher capabilities within a sociocultural context (Johnson, 2016; Singh & Richards, 2006) permeated by language ideologies.

### **Language Ideologies**

The previous sections touched on teachers' and teacher educators' attitudes, values, and beliefs about language in relation to specific teaching and teacher-learning activities. Often implicit in those actions and rationales are recognizable sets of broader attitudes, values and beliefs regarding language and society—language ideologies. These ideologies represent value-laden sets of ideas about language in society (Woolard, 2020) that inform our understandings of



language use and language teacher education. Here, I focus on three language ideologies that are prominent in ELT literature and relevant to the language practices and teacher capabilities discussed so far: linguistic imperialism, native-speakerism, and multilingualism.<sup>7</sup>

### ***Linguistic Imperialism***

Linguistic imperialism refers to the hegemonic role occupied by certain languages, particularly English in our contemporary period. The concept was introduced to the field of ELT in 1992 by Phillipson, who describes it as “a multitude of activities, ideologies and structural relationships... within an overarching structure of asymmetrical North/South relations, where language interlocks with other dimensions, cultural (particularly in education, science and the media), economic and political” (Phillipson, 1997, p. 239). The English language, together with products and activities associated with English and with English-speaking countries, is valorized above other languages. As an ideology, linguistic imperialism refers to the assumptions and beliefs that undergird this hegemonic role of English and products, people, and places associated with it. Phillipson’s critique of linguistic imperialism in ELT shares common concerns with Latin American decolonial scholars’ critique of coloniality (Barrantes-Montero, 2017).

The perception of English as inordinately valuable is not only a product of historical colonialism and contemporary coloniality of North/South relations, but also a driver of those unequal relations. Kumaravadivelu (2006) argues that “language takes on colonial coloration when it is used as a tool to serve the cause of empire” (p. 12) and points to the role of globalized English in dismissing local knowledges in favor of Western knowledge, fostering identification with Western values and norms, and producing profits for an ELT industry based in English-

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<sup>7</sup> Here, I refer to the ideology of multilingualism as one of several “morally and politically loaded representations” (Woolard, 2020, p. 1) of language in society. Though related, the ideology of *multilingualism* is a distinct concept from *multilingual language use practices*, which designate an approach to using language in instruction.

speaking countries of the Global North. According to Mackenzie (2021), one aspect of linguistic imperialism is “an uncritical assumption [that] persists that English linguistic capital fosters socio-economic progress by increasing competitiveness” (p. 5), an assumption with little empirical backing that serves to perpetuate hegemonic relations.

The dynamics of linguistic imperialism are evident in ELTE in the Global South and manifest in the types of content and pedagogical knowledge valued and the sources and processes of teacher education employed. For instance, González Moncada (2021) describes how, in Colombia, local teacher expertise has typically been dismissed while “the [professional development] of English teachers and teacher education became a profitable business that has benefited foreign agencies, publishing, and testing companies” (p. 143). This ideology can also manifest in English use at ELT events, particularly in “the meaning ascribed to our language practices (in this case, that it is okay to use only English even when people around us may not have access to it)” (Zaidan, 2020, p. 96). Linguistic imperialism ascribes an inherent value to that which is in English and/or from the English-speaking world, overriding other considerations.

While a critique of linguistic imperialism implies questioning the value of ELT itself, some critical scholars note that the demand for English is well-established and suggest it is more pertinent to question coloniality within ELT. Kumaravadivelu (2006) holds that:

The issue is not whether non-English speakers should learn English or not. .... The issue, in my view, is one of difficulty and discrimination encountered by non-native speakers of English as well as the power and privilege enjoyed by native speakers of English. (p. 16)

Thus, a key aspect of linguistic imperialism is the related ideology of native-speakerism.

### *Native-speakerism*

Native-speakerism assumes a dichotomy between ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ speakers of a language and the superiority of the ‘native speaker’ as both a linguistic and pedagogical model (Holliday, 2017). As Llurda (2016) describes, “behind the apparently innocent term ‘native speaker’ lurks a stigmatisation of individuals who do not fit the socially established pattern of the ‘ideal native speaker’” (p. 54). In ELT, this ideology attaches ‘ideal native speaker’ imagery specifically to White people (Kamhi-Stein, 2016) from English-speaking ‘Inner Circle’ countries like the United States and the United Kingdom (Kachru & Nelson, 2006). Native-speakerism can be understood as a neoracist ideology, which masks race-based discrimination in a discourse of rational decision-making based on presumed cultural and linguistic difference (Holliday, 2017). The perceived importance of ‘native-ness’ can be attributed to “the unwritten norm that modern nations must have only one language in order to establish a unified national identity” (Llurda, 2016, p. 52) and is therefore closely associated with nationalism and monolingualism.

A central assumption of the ideology of native-speakerism is that ‘native speakers’ are the standard to which all speakers of the language should be compared. Thus, even when ‘non-native speaker’ English teachers are accepted, these teachers are often valued because they are sufficiently ‘native-like’—or *despite* being ‘non-native’—perpetuating native-speakerist ideology (González Moncada, 2021). The ‘native speaker’ ideal is implicit in some applied science approaches to ELTE based in theories of language acquisition, which often take the process of learning a first language as the model for language learning in EFL contexts (González Moncada, 2021; Rabbidge, 2019). From the perspective of native-speakerism, ELTE ought to make teachers, and eventually students, into close approximations of ‘native speakers’, though the goal is ultimately unattainable (Llurda, 2016).

Reverence for the idealized ‘native speaker’ encompasses the pedagogical as well as the linguistic. ‘Native speakers’ are attributed “innumerable qualities and values that give them the aura of being the ‘ideal language teacher’” (Llurda, 2016, p. 53). In Global South contexts where these ideologies are particularly entrenched, “teachers and teacher educators look up to native speakers for inspiration thinking that they have ready-made answers to all the recurrent problems of classroom teaching” (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 22). While linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism are described as hegemonic ideologies in the field, ELTE may also be shaped by a competing set of ideas that value multilingualism.

### ***Multilingualism***

Multilingualism can be understood in contrast to a monolingual norm. Monolingualism—speaking one language, or using the one language considered appropriate in a given setting—is associated with dominant language ideologies that view ‘native-speakers’ as ideal or even ‘normal’ language users (Llurda, 2016). Multilingual ideology is implicit in deliberate multilingual language use practices and posits an alternative to monolingualism as a way of conceptualizing and valuing language use and language speakers. Various terms describing multilingual language use, such as translanguaging, plurilingualism, and codeswitching, share the common ideological assumption that being multilingual is an asset, not a deficit (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019). The way many multilingual people speak—which rarely resembles the idealized “double monolingual” who speaks two languages ‘perfectly’ and separately—is repositioned as normal and valuable (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 20). The increased popularity of “asset-based orientations toward multilingualism” (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019, p. 216), at least in the academic wing of the ELT field in North America, has contributed to a shift in terminology away from

calling students ‘English language learners (ELLs)’ to ‘emergent bilinguals’ (Rabbidge, 2019, p. 8).

Translanguaging, as the multilingual approach that most radically challenges prevalent ideas about language (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; García & Otheguy, 2020), is particularly illustrative of multilingualism as an ideology. Translanguaging represents a theory of language, a pedagogical approach, and an ideological ‘stance’ (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; García & Otheguy, 2020). García and colleagues argue that translanguaging depends on teachers’ ‘stance’: “the philosophical, ideological, or belief system that teachers can draw from to develop their pedagogical framework” (García et al., 2017, p. 27). This stance is inherently political, recognizing and fostering bilingual “ways of knowing” and “bilingual identities” (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 27) and thus “disrupting the hierarchies of named languages and the ideologies of language purity” (p. 25). Multilingual ideology manifests in ELTE when teachers’ and students’ full language repertoires are valued and when questioning dominant language ideologies is part of the curriculum (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Tian, 2020). When multilingual practices are accompanied by these deeper beliefs and values, they may be understood as decolonial (Wei & García, 2022). The idea of multilingualism as an ideology rather than merely a practice is important given that colonial and monolingual ideologies often remain entrenched in language education even when multiple languages or dialects are allowed in classrooms (Meighan, 2023).

### ***Language Ideologies in ELTE***

While much of the literature reviewed so far discusses the implications of language ideologies for teacher education, there has been little empirical study of language ideologies within ELTE. Some recent studies examine how dominant ideologies impact uptake of

translanguaging and how ELTE impacts teachers' ideologies. Deroo and Ponzio (2019) qualitatively analyze the discourse of in-service ESL teachers in an online graduate course in the U.S. Midwest to illustrate how "teacher preparation and development can provide opportunities for educators to examine and uproot their language ideologies" (p. 216). They note tensions between teachers' uptake of some precepts of multilingualism, on the one hand, and monolingual ideologies that participants recognized in their schools and communities and sometimes espoused themselves. Robinson et al.'s (2020) action-research case study examined whether learning about translanguaging in an undergraduate ELTE course at a Canadian university prepared pre-service ESL teachers to use translanguaging for justice. Participants adopted multilingual strategies as a pedagogical tool but did not deeply adopt it as an ideological stance.

Less observed is the way that language ideologies may shape ELTE activities themselves. Robinson et al. (2020) note that their course did not actually employ a translanguaging approach, even though it took place in a diverse university in Toronto where 12 of the 19 undergraduate participants in the study were multilingual. Thus, they observe that "it is unrealistic for us to expect participants to implement translanguaging in transformative ways when it has not been modeled for them. ... We need to recognize the injustices we perpetuate by teaching in English-only" (p 158). Another publication by one of the same authors documents the challenges and benefits Robinson encountered in attempting to implement translanguaging in a subsequent course, noting that "there are few studies that examine how teacher education faculty engage with translanguaging as a new approach to their own teaching" (Tian, 2020, p. 216).

Research on Latin American ELT has used language ideologies such as linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism as analytical lenses, often to critique language policies (González Moncada, 2021; Mackenzie, 2021). Less common are studies that seek to empirically

examine the prevalence and role of language ideologies in practices and among practitioners. One of these is Perez Andrade's (2019) qualitative multiple case study of dominant ideologies privileging 'native speakers' and 'standard English' within three Chilean ELTE programs. He found that Chilean teacher educators often reproduced these ideologies but also increasingly questioned native-speakerism. Perez Andrade (2019) therefore recommends that ELTE programs "examine the tensions among their teacher educators' belief systems – and the goals of teacher education that are implicitly and explicitly promoted in their curricula" (p. 208).

Though not directly related to ELTE, Zaidan's (2020) qualitative case study of native-speakerism among Brazilian EFL teachers provides insight into trends that are relevant for Latin American ELTE. Zaidan's study involved an open-ended questionnaire with 52 EFL-teacher and student-teacher respondents, interviews with three respondents, and observations of curriculum meetings at a public university in southeastern Brazil. Zaidan adopts a cultural reproduction lens to explain how Brazilian teachers participate in perpetuating native-speakerism and idealization of 'authentic' English, which is also reinforced by standardized exams, textbooks, and institutional policies that are not necessarily of these teachers' choosing. For instance, many respondents described their language abilities as 'native,' 'native-like,' or 'almost like a native' in the open-ended survey, suggesting that "the figure of the 'native-speaker' seems to hover around as an unquestionable ontological given, even when teachers challenge it" (p. 91). Zaidan concludes that, "although they are in many ways resisted and challenged by teachers, these mechanisms, ingrained practices and beliefs constitute the native speakerist habitus through which pedagogical action is performed" (p. 96).

Language ideologies appear in Latin American ELTE literature in indirect ways, as well. In an analysis of media discourse on ELT in Chile, Colombia, Ecuador and Mexico, González

Moncada and Llurda (2016) find that “non-native instructors are considered responsible for the failure of English education policies, whereas native speakers are presented as the ideal solution to the problem of low proficiency in English” (Llurda, 2016, p. 56). This perspective is reflected in programs that tout their ‘*formadores nativos extranjeros*’ [foreign native-speaker trainers] (González Moncada, 2021, p. 144) and in recommendations for improving Latin American ELTE with ‘native-speaker’ teacher educators, found in both policy and academic literature (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019).

### ***Language Ideologies in Summary***

Linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism are powerful ideologies in the ELT field, while multilingualism offers an increasingly visible alternative representation of languages in society. These ideologies hold important implications for language use practices and valued teacher capabilities in Ecuadorian ELTE. This discussion of linguistic imperialism suggests that teacher educators may engage in English-only practices because of implicit assumptions—their own, or of their students or institutions—that instruction in English is more valuable simply because it is in English, regardless of how it may relate to instructional aims. It also suggests the possibility that applied-science approaches to pedagogy and accountability-driven models of ELTE, originating in the theories and standards of the English-speaking Global North, may hold sway over critically reflective and empowerment-driven models, in part due to the power of this ideology. In the case of native-speakerist ideology, we can see the pressures that most Ecuadorian EFL teachers and teacher educators face to prove their professional competence and legitimacy, and the ways that language use and pedagogical effectiveness are associated by imaginations of the ideal English teacher in ways that are supported by colonial and neoracist hegemonies more than empirical evidence. Viewing multilingualism as an ideology, on the other



hand, suggests that multilingual practices may be accompanied by a fundamental reconceptualization of what it means to speak and to teach English well—though multilingual language use does not necessarily imply fully ascribing to multilingual ideology. Where teacher educators embrace multilingualism at the ideological level, however, we can expect to see multilingual practices and prioritization of critical reflection as a specific teacher capability and teacher empowerment as an overarching capability. These considerations are essential for contextualizing and potentially explaining the ways that teacher educators link their language use practices and the teacher capabilities that they value in ELTE.

## **Conclusion**

The literature on Latin American ELTE reveals a sense of frustration surrounding its effectiveness and responsiveness to local challenges, often linked to tensions between teacher capabilities that compete for time and resources in ELTE. That is not to suggest that the institutions and teacher educators providing ELTE in the region are helpless or hopeless, as some literature has implied. Notable scholarship emerging from Latin American and Ecuadorian universities seeks to understand the processes and desirable outcomes of local ELT and ELTE, challenging the deficit framing of local teachers while also seeking educational improvement. The extent to which dominant language ideologies are acknowledged or challenged in that research varies, and language use practices are not widely documented or discussed.

Common themes in the literature on language use practices, teacher capabilities, and ideologies in ELTE are 1) the link between language and power relationships and 2) the importance of identifying EFL educators' and education systems' needs. Global ELT literature shows that language use practices are central to what and how people learn, impacting acquisition of content and language as well as identity development and beliefs about self and

others as language speakers in society. While this scholarship has highlighted the importance of language ideologies and language use practices over the last two decades, publications on how these practices and associated ideologies operate within ELTE are still rare, even more so in EFL and Global South contexts.

This dissertation addresses that gap by examining language use practices in Ecuadorian ELTE as they are linked to valued teacher capabilities in contexts that include language ideologies. This work contributes to understanding how language use practices may be employed to address some of the challenges of English language teacher education in a Latin American context and support the well-being and educational success of EFL teachers and students. As can be seen in this chapter, the language use practices of Ecuadorian teacher educators are largely unknown, as are the relationships of those practices with valued teacher capabilities and the meanings they hold for teacher educators. In the next chapter, I explain how this convergent mixed methods study generated both breadth and depth of findings to address those gaps.

## **Chapter IV: Research Methodology**

This study addresses the relationship between language use practices and valued teacher capabilities, as contextualized by language ideologies in English language teacher education (ELTE). This chapter explains the study's mixed methods research methodology and design. First, I introduce the methodology, the rationale for a convergent mixed methods approach that integrates quantitative and qualitative methodologies, and an overview of my research design. Next, I detail procedures and considerations for the quantitative and qualitative components of the study, respectively. I then explain how I integrated the quantitative and qualitative components. Finally, I address the ethics and limitations of the study as a whole.

### **Research Methodology**

This study employed a convergent mixed methods design to examine language use practices, valued capabilities, and language ideologies in the case of university-based English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teacher education in Ecuador, drawing on a pragmatist worldview informed by decolonial theory and the capabilities approach. In this section, I explain each element of that methodological approach: the pragmatist worldview, mixed methods research, case study, and convergent design. I then provide a graphic overview of the elements of this study's design.

### ***Pragmatist Worldview***

I approached the topic of language use practices and valued capabilities in ELTE with a pragmatist worldview that underpinned my choice of methodology. Articulating one's worldview serves to "clarify and organize the thinking about the research" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 9). Pragmatism emphasizes research problems with practical applications and embraces multiple perspectives (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Falling into neither a

purely postpositivist nor a purely constructivist position (which hold, respectively, that a single reality exists or that reality is constructed by multiple perspectives), pragmatist research “views reality as both singular...and multiple” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 37). In this case, I posited that the relationships between language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies were describable as observable patterns within Ecuadorian ELTE and were also constructed in multiple ways by teacher educators in their unique contexts. A philosophy of pragmatism is often associated with mixed methods research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) and can incorporate social justice-oriented theoretical lenses for addressing practical problems (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Within a pragmatic worldview, I drew on decolonial theory and the capabilities approach to address the link between language use and valued capabilities as a problem of practice.

### ***Mixed Methods Research***

Mixed methods are appropriate where neither quantitative nor qualitative methodology alone is apt to provide a full response to the research problem (Cohen et al., 2018; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Mixed methods research, according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), offers a distinct methodology that goes beyond simply using both qualitative and quantitative data within the same study. This methodology deliberately integrates qualitative and quantitative components for the purpose of addressing research questions that call for multiple forms of data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Furthermore, mixed methods research articulates and follows a logical process for connecting the quantitative and qualitative components at one or more points in the study in a manner that aligns with the theory and philosophy underpinning the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). From a pragmatic perspective that views the reality of ELTE as “both singular...and multiple” (Creswell & Plano

Clark, 2018, p. 37), explaining how language use, valued capabilities and ideologies are linked in ELTE calls for an integrated quantitative *and* qualitative approach employing both numeric measures and descriptions in educators' own words.

The research problem driving this study called for quantitative methodology to describe broad patterns in language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and prevalent ideologies in Ecuadorian ELTE. As evidenced by the review of the literature in the previous chapter, we lack information on what language practices EFL teacher educators use and what teacher capabilities they value and aim to foster. Quantitative methodology, based on numeric data typically from large numbers of participants, can describe the prevalence of characteristics or practices in a population and explore relationships between variables (Whatley, 2022). Studies of language use practices in English language teaching (ELT) often employ quantitative analysis of survey data (ie., Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Hall & Cook, 2013) to describe such trends. Similarly, a survey-based approach can be found in prior studies of learning outcomes (Argudo et al., 2018) and priorities (Carrillo-Patarón et al., 2022; LEARN, 2021) in ELTE.

This research problem focusing on language use in teacher education also called for qualitative methodology to describe how EFL teacher educators related language use and the capabilities they valued in their work, within a field permeated by powerful ideologies. The literature discussed in the previous chapter illustrates a need for understanding the meanings and importance that teacher educators' attribute to their language use practices. Qualitative methodology is based on 'thick descriptions' and often word-based data, typically from small numbers of participants (Cohen et al., 2018). Such data offers "an in-depth, intricate and detailed understanding of meanings, actions, ... phenomena, attitudes, intentions and behaviors" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 288). These characteristics of qualitative research are well-suited to explaining the

complexity of what teacher educators think, feel, and believe about language use and teacher education as professionals in particular social contexts. Much of the literature addressing language use and teacher capabilities in ELTE employs qualitative methodology to describe how EFL teachers learn within specific ELTE programs (Banegas, 2020; Barahona, 2015; Dang et al., 2013; A. M. Dávila, 2020; González Moncada & Quinchía Ortiz, 2003; Sierra Ospina, 2016). Qualitative methodology is also common in studies of translanguaging (Galante et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019; Ubaque-Casallas, 2023)—when teachers employ a combination of languages in instruction—and how teachers learn about translanguaging (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Robinson et al., 2020; Tian, 2020). Studies that explore language ideologies in ELT (González Moncada, 2021; Jakubiak, 2020) and connect language ideologies with language use practices (Bettney, 2022; Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Zaidan, 2020) typically employ qualitative descriptions of experiences and meanings.

Both methodologies have inherent limitations. Quantitative methodology makes it possible to study larger populations but does not explain how observed phenomena are constructed and experienced in the lives of individuals (Cohen et al., 2018; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The qualitative approach offers the opportunity to explore nuanced connections and “get closer to the actor’s perspective” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013, p. 19), but findings are limited to a small number of individuals in their specific contexts. Where both aspects are of interest, mixed methods provide an approach where “the limitations of one method can be offset by the strengths of the other, and the combination of quantitative and qualitative data provides a more complete understanding of the research problem than either approach by itself” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 8). Other researchers have thus combined qualitative and quantitative data to study language use practices and attitudes (Intriago Alcivar & Hidalgo, 2021; Macaro,

2001; Morales et al., 2020) and ELTE purposes and outcomes (Barahona & Darwin, 2021; Martin, 2016; Sevy-Biloon, 2019). Most commonly, researchers apply a combination of surveys and interviews (Barahona & Darwin, 2021; Intriago Alcivar & Hidalgo, 2021; Martin, 2016; Sevy-Biloon, 2019), while others combine interviews with class observations (Macaro, 2001) or with assessment results and ethnographic participant observation (Morales et al., 2020). These studies illustrate the value of integrating qualitative and quantitative data to understand various cases of ELTE.

### ***Case Study Approach***

This study examined language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies by studying the case of university-based EFL teacher educators in Ecuador. Case study “provides a unique example of real people in real situations” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 376) and thus grounds research in a particular context. Furthermore, case study draws on multiple methods of data collection to provide a robust picture of the case at hand. I understand the ‘case’ as constituted by a set of individuals engaged in similar

processes of sense-making as they develop over time, in various settings, in relation to systems of power and inequality, and in increasingly interconnected conversation with actors who do not reside within the “culture” or “community” boundary drawn around the traditional case. (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2018, p. 3)

Thus, rather than focusing on a specific program or university, I focused on the broadly defined case of Ecuadorian university-based ELTE educators.

University degree programs are the most extensive and most recognized form of teacher education in which EFL teachers may participate, and therefore provide a logical context for studying language use practices and purposes in ELTE. These programs are illustrative of the

teacher education that EFL teachers in Ecuador receive, as 89% of English teachers in the public elementary and secondary system have at least a relevant undergraduate degree, with 10% of them holding a Master's (Dirección Nacional de Formación Continua del Ministerio de Educación, personal communication, January 16, 2021).

Within the context of Ecuadorian university-based ELTE, I also chose to focus on what teacher educators do and value rather than on institutional language policies and curricular objectives and language allocation. That focus is in keeping with my theoretical framework oriented by the capabilities approach, as a perspective that describes how individuals have agency to act within social structures and contexts (Robeyns, 2017). It also aligns with decolonial theory's interest in how educational actors may reinforce or resist colonial structures and ideologies through their daily practice (Borelli et al., 2020; Ubaque-Casallas, 2023).

A nuanced understanding of context is essential to both decolonial and capabilities perspectives. Here, the Ecuadorian context is key to understanding the meaning and importance of language use practices and their relationship to valued teacher capabilities and ideologies. At the same time, Ecuadorian ELT and ELTE share common characteristics and challenges with many countries in Latin America and elsewhere, such as tensions between language and content goals for teacher learning (Argudo et al., 2018; Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019), tensions between accountability and empowerment as overarching teacher capabilities (Barahona & Darwin, 2021; González Moncada, 2021; Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019), and issues of language use and power (Rabbidge, 2019; Zaidan, 2020). These commonalities suggest the potential theoretical relevance of this case to other contexts.



### ***Convergent Mixed Methods Design***

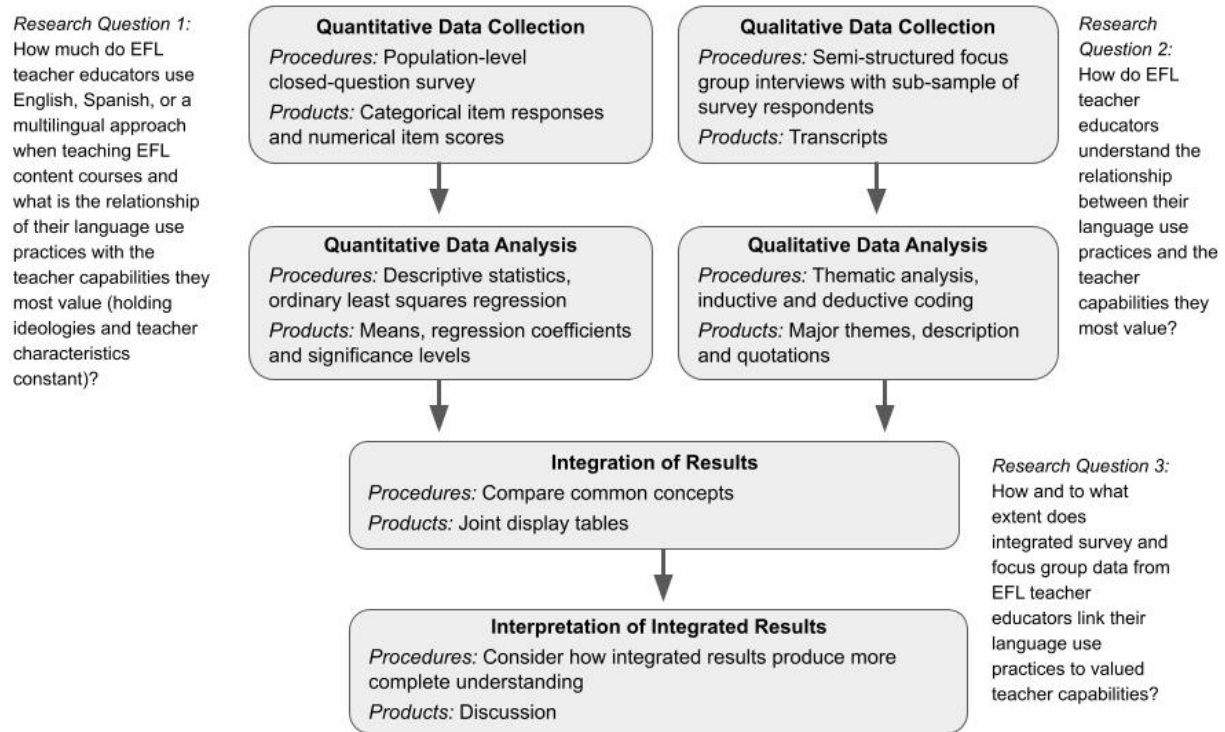
This study used a convergent mixed methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) to examine the link between language use and valued teacher capabilities, as informed by language ideologies in Ecuadorian ELTE. Convergent design is a type of mixed methods design where the researcher collects two sets of data, quantitative and qualitative, analyzes them separately using the respective methods of each approach, and then integrates the findings of each and analyzes the combined data set (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The eventual aim of integrating the qualitative and quantitative data informs all phases of the study; however integration occurs after both types of data have been collected and analyzed and serves the purpose of “obtaining a more complete understanding of a problem, to validate one set of findings with the other, or to determine if participants respond in a similar way” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 65).

Results from a closed-question survey described how much teacher educators in Ecuador used English, Spanish, or a multilingual approach in university-based ELTE programs. The quantitative data also served to explore the relationship between those language use practices and the capabilities teacher educators most highly valued, while holding language ideologies and teacher educator characteristics constant. Qualitative data collected from focus-group interviews with a subset of survey respondents described how teacher educators at Ecuadorian universities understood their language use practices to relate to the teacher capabilities that they valued. The integrated findings expanded on the quantitative and qualitative findings and described the extent to which valued teacher capabilities explained teacher educators’ language use. Figure 3 summarizes that convergent design.

The reason for employing both survey data and focus group data was to corroborate the findings of each and provide depth and breadth of evidence on a little-understood topic. As

**Figure 3**

*Overview of the Convergent Mixed Methods Study Design*



discussed in Chapter 2, while the literature suggests that language use, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies are likely to be interrelated in ELTE, it does not provide clear insight into what the nature of those relationships may be, nor any consistent prediction of what language use practices align with which capabilities. Furthermore, it would be difficult to interpret the meaning or importance of such relationships without contextualizing them in data on what language use practices and valued purposes exist in Ecuadorian university-based ELTE—information that has not yet been established in academic literature. Considering the lack of prior study on this topic, it was particularly valuable that this study provide a multi-faceted and corroborated picture of language use, valued teacher capabilities, and language

ideologies in the Ecuadorian context. Convergent mixed methods design was best suited to that purpose (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

### **Quantitative Component: Closed-Question Survey**

The quantitative portion of the study addressed my first research question: *How much do EFL teacher educators use English, Spanish, or a multilingual approach when teaching EFL content courses and what is the relationship of their language use practices with the teacher capabilities they most value (holding ideologies and teacher characteristics constant)?* In this section, I explain the participant selection and data collection strategy for the quantitative portion of the study and describe how I constructed and analyzed variables from that data to answer the quantitative research question. I also describe how I addressed the potential impacts of my perspective and biases on this component of the study.

### ***Participant Selection Procedure***

This study examined the case of Ecuadorian ELTE, specifically in the context of university-based programs for current and future EFL teachers. The population of interest consisted of university professors who taught in undergraduate- or graduate-level degree programs at Ecuadorian universities related to teaching English. At many universities, this type of degree program is called *Pedagogía de los Idiomas Nacionales y Extranjeros (PINE)*—Pedagogy of National and Foreign Languages—though curricula focus largely or entirely on English teaching. Undergraduate programs may include classes dedicated to learning the English language itself; however, this study pertained specifically to professors who taught other topics in these programs' curricula, which commonly include pedagogical methods, linguistics, research methods, a teaching practicum, educational policy or philosophy, educational psychology, and sociology or history of education.

According to the website of the Consejo de Educación Superior (CES), which accredits Ecuadorian universities, as of September 2022 there were 63 accredited universities in Ecuador, 29 private and 34 public (CES, n.d.). By reviewing the websites of those universities, I determined that 24 offered degree programs related to English language teaching; eight offered only undergraduate programs, four offered only master's programs, and 12 offered both. Based on the information available on a few university websites and personal communications with individuals at the universities, I ascertained an approximate number of professors that fell within my population of interest at each university, ranging from three to 50 with an average of 17. In total, the numbers I obtained suggested that the total population was comprised of approximately 396 individuals, though this may have been an overestimate as some of the same individuals may have had part-time roles at multiple universities. I was unable to obtain information on the number of ELTE professors at one university and therefore used the average of 17 as an estimate for that institution.<sup>8</sup>

Rather than selecting a sample of the population, this study aimed to conduct a population-level survey in which all teacher educators teaching non-language-related courses in university-based programs for EFL teaching could participate. I requested permission from each university through either the coordinator of the program or a higher authority responsible for research, depending on university procedure as communicated to me by contacts at each university. With that permission, I then asked each program coordinator to share a survey and request for participation with the email list-serve and WhatsApp group or similar communication

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<sup>8</sup> While public information on the total number of professors and students at each university is available, based on the 24 universities for which I had information on the number of ELTE professors, there was no predictable relationship between the overall number and the number of ELTE professors. Presumably this was because the size of ELTE programs to relative to overall enrollment varied considerably. I therefore used the average to estimate the missing value.

network used by the professors in their program. All the individuals in the population who taught at universities that authorized my study had the opportunity to be part of data collection. Program coordinators informed me of the number of professors they distributed the survey to so that I could calculate the response rate.

### ***Generalizability***

Because this study aimed to collect population-level data, I attempted to gain access to administer the survey to professors of all the university-based ELTE programs in the country. However, given that I did not obtain research authorizations from all 24 universities offering ELTE in Ecuador, it is important to consider the extent to which the professors of the included universities were representative of the population as a whole. I obtained permission to conduct my study with professors of 22 of the 24 universities, giving me access to invite 354 of an estimated total of 396 teacher educators in the population (89%) to participate in the survey. The universities where I obtained authorization were located in a variety of geographical areas around the country, with 11 in the Highlands region and 11 in the Coast region. They included 16 public and six private universities; eight offered only undergraduate degrees in English teaching, four offered only master's degrees, and ten offered both. In comparison, the 24 universities as a whole have a similar proportion of public to private institutions (16 public and eight private) but a slightly lower proportion of master's programs (8 offer only undergraduate programs, 4 offer only master's programs, and 12 offer both). According to publicly available data from 2019 (SENESCYT, n.d.) the included universities employ 1,510 professors on average across their programs, while the full set of 24 universities employs 1,528 professors on average, and the number of professors employed ranges from low hundreds to over 3,000 for both the included and the total sets of universities. Considering the number of English teacher educators

specifically, the average number and range in number of ELTE professors is nearly identical for the universities granting me access and the overall set, according to personal communications and information from the universities' websites. While the lack of access to the full population and the overrepresentation of master's programs was not ideal, it was reasonable to expect that the teacher educators invited to the study were sufficiently similar to the overall population to consider the results generalizable to Ecuadorian university-based ELTE.

It should be noted that the quantitative findings are not generalizable to teacher education outside of university contexts or in other countries, though they provide insights that are relevant to teacher educators in other contexts. This study describes the language use practices and valued teacher capabilities found among teacher educators in the case of Ecuadorian university-based ELTE, specifically. The nature of the relationships between those practices and capabilities, suggested by the quantitative data and explored in the qualitative component of the study, may be theoretically generalizable (Cohen et al., 2018), however.

### ***Data Collection Method***

The data collection instrument was a closed-question online survey. The survey was descriptive (Mertens, 2020) and exploratory (Cohen et al., 2018), as the relationships between language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, ideologies, and teacher educator characteristics were explored without predicting the nature of those relationships in advance.

Mertens (2020) recommends considering alternatives to the survey that may better suit a study's purpose before settling on this method of data collection. One drawback of survey data is that it is self-reported (Cohen et al., 2018; Mertens, 2020), making it potentially less accurate in capturing teacher educators' language use practices than observational data would have been. I nonetheless considered a survey best-suited to this study's aim of relating language use practices

to valued teacher capabilities in the context of language ideologies, the latter two being constructs that cannot be directly observed. Collecting data by survey also suited my goal of providing a broad picture of language use practices in Ecuadorian ELTE, as it would not have been feasible as a single researcher to collect data of a similar scope through class observations. Online surveys, on the other hand, allow the researcher to collect data from a relatively large number of people in a short period of time (Cohen et al., 2018; Mertens, 2020). Survey-based data “has credibility with many people in the social science community and with the public at large” and can offer breadth without sacrificing diversity and complexity if integrated with participants’ own voices in a mixed-methods approach (Mertens, 2020, p. 195).

The survey used in this study was developed following steps outlined by Cohen et al. (2018) and Mertens (2020). Those steps led me to identify “subsidiary topics” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 336), based on my quantitative research question and the literature on the three core concepts of the study:

1. Language use practices
  - a. language use in practice
  - b. reasons for language use
  - c. attitudes towards language use
2. Teacher capabilities
  - a. specific capabilities
  - b. overarching capabilities
3. Language ideologies
  - a. teacher educators’ beliefs
  - b. colleagues’ beliefs

- c. students' beliefs
- 4. Teacher educator characteristics
  - a. demographic information
  - b. professional context

Mertens (2020) recommends reviewing the literature for existing instruments on the topics of the study before designing one's own. However, I was unable to find any instruments that addressed the specific constructs of interest in a similar context, and therefore developed an instrument specific to this study. In these cases, Mertens (2020) notes that researchers may use "focus groups, an expert panel, and existing instruments to generate items" (p. 200). I drew on existing surveys on own-language use in ELT (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Hall & Cook, 2013), results of exploratory focus-group interviews I conducted in the summer of 2021 with 12 teacher educators who deliver EFL professional development in Ecuador, and the literature presented in Chapter 3 to generate the items in this survey. In some ways, the process of developing items for the survey (especially those related to teacher capabilities) resembled the process of creating a list of valuable capabilities based on relevant literature and public discussion (Robeyns, 2005).

I developed the items in both English and Spanish, with the first question allowing participants the option of selecting which language they preferred to take the survey in. As English is my first language, I had the Spanish-language version reviewed by an Ecuadorian Spanish speaker who works in the ELT field. I then piloted the survey, an essential step in survey development (Cohen et al., 2018; Mertens, 2020). Nine individuals took part in the pilot, with six choosing the Spanish version of the survey and three choosing the English version. The pilot participants were teacher educators working in non-university-based professional development in



Ecuador (several of whom also teach language courses in university-based ELTE), and one teacher educator working in a university-based EFL teacher education program in Peru. Seven were Ecuadorian, one was North American, and one was Peruvian. As individuals similar to the target population but not future participants in the study, these educators were well-positioned to provide “feedback on the validity of the questionnaire items, the operationalization of the constructs and the purposes of the research” and allow me to “identify commonly misunderstood or non-completed items” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 497). I administered the pilot through Microsoft Forms, just as I planned to administer the final version, and asked pilot participants to share feedback directly with me about specific items and about the survey overall. The pilot respondents found the questions and overall topic relevant to ELTE according to their experiences. Based on their comments, I made minor adjustments to the wording of several questions to improve clarity and revised the options describing respondents’ university employment position type. The pilot responses also allowed me to observe that individual responses appeared consistent and logical across questions and that the questions captured a variety of attitudes and experiences across individuals.

The complete final version of the survey is included in Appendix A (English version) and Appendix B (Spanish version). Questions related to language use practices included: description of current language use practices (for example, “When you teach non-language courses, how much do you use each language? Consider how much time during a typical class: never, little [less than half], some [about half], a lot [more than half], always [the whole time]”); ranking of motivating factors (“for students to feel comfortable, for students to understand me, to be a credible professional, to express myself clearly, to follow policies or expectations..., to help students meet linguistic goals, to help students meet pedagogical goals”); and opinions on ideal

language use. Regarding valued teacher capabilities, respondents were asked first to give their opinions on a 5-point Likert scale about each of a set of learning objectives (“EFL teacher education must ensure that EFL teachers: become critical thinkers...; conduct educational research; develop a professional identity...; understand theories of language acquisition; master teaching methods...; have a high level of English proficiency”) and then to rank the importance of those objectives.<sup>9</sup> Regarding ideologies, participants were asked to report on a 5-point Likert-scale their perceptions of certain beliefs personally and among their students and colleagues; (for example: “The majority of my students believe that: in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use English only; ... knowing other languages, such as Spanish, is valuable to students and teachers of English; native speakers are the ideal model in English language teaching...”). Participants were also asked to provide some demographic information and information about the university programs where they taught. Finally, they could optionally provide contact information if they were willing to participate in focus groups.

The survey was administered between mid-February and late April 2023. Given that the topic was not time-sensitive, slightly more than two months were allowed for data collection due to differing semester schedules at the various universities where I collected data. Additionally, for two of the 22 universities I received permission to collect data partway through the data collection period. After program coordinators had initially distributed the survey to teacher educators in their ELTE programs, I asked them to send a follow-up reminder. At least one professor from 21 of the 22 universities responded.

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<sup>9</sup> I did not expect the term ‘capabilities’ to be widely understood. In the survey and in communications with participants and program coordinators, I instead referred to objectives, goals, and purposes.

## *Variables*

The survey data was used to create variables related to three concepts—language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, language ideologies—and a fourth area of teacher educator characteristics. Table 1 summarizes the variables, organized by concept and divided into continuous variables—representing numerical quantities—and categorical variables—representing descriptive categories.

**Language Use Variables.** The primary variables for analysis were continuous variables representing teacher educators’ English use, Spanish use, and multilingual use. For each, responses on a scale from “never” to “always” were transformed to numerical values of 1 to 5 and the values for teacher educators’ own reported use of the language and encouragement of students’ use of the language were averaged.

Categorical variables on two subsidiary topics of language use were used descriptively. The subsidiary topic *language use reason* had seven binary categorical variables. The variables were constructed based on responses to the question “Choose the three (3) reasons that MOST influence your choice of language when you teach.” For each reason, a binary categorical variable represented whether this was one of the respondent’s top three reasons. The other subsidiary language use topic was *language use attitude*. On the survey, respondents select which of four statements best represented their attitude towards the use of English and Spanish in ELTE, with each statement corresponding to one of the attitudes theorized by Macaro (2001), as adapted by Anderson and Lightfoot’s (2021) survey of EFL teachers. The statement “allowing Spanish in EFL teacher education does not help learning; an EFL teacher education program should be like an English-speaking country; skilled teacher educators can exclude Spanish” represented the virtual position. “Allowing Spanish in EFL teacher education does not

**Table 1***Summary of Variables*

Concept	Categorical Variables	Continuous Variables
Language use practices	<i>Reasons</i> Linguistic goals Pedagogical goals Policies or expectations Student understanding Student comfort Clarity of expression Credibility  Language use attitude	English use Spanish use Multilingual use
Valued teacher capabilities	<i>Specific capabilities</i> English proficiency Critical thinking Pedagogical skill Professional identity Theoretical knowledge Research skill  <i>Overarching capabilities</i> Accountability Empowerment Prestige and income	<i>Specific capabilities</i> English proficiency Critical thinking Pedagogical skill Professional identity Theoretical knowledge Research skill  <i>Overarching capabilities</i> Accountability Empowerment Prestige and income
Language ideologies		Imperialism prevalence Native-speakerism prevalence Multilingualism prevalence
Teacher educator characteristics	Gender Race or ethnicity Origin First language Degree Program type University type Employment type Subject(s) taught Response language	English level Spanish level Years teaching

help learning; however, perfect conditions for EFL teacher education do not exist and so sometimes we have to make a little use of Spanish” represented the maximal position, while “allowing Spanish in EFL teacher education can improve learning; but we should keep it to a minimum and maximize English language usage” represented the judicious position. The inclusive position was represented by the statement “allowing Spanish in EFL teacher education can improve learning significantly; we should make use of Spanish.” The categorical variable for language use attitude indicated which of the four attitudes was selected (virtual, maximal, judicious, inclusive).

**Valued Teacher Capabilities Variables.** Variables representing valued teacher capabilities related to two topic areas: specific teacher capabilities and overarching teacher capabilities. Regarding specific capabilities, the survey asked respondents to consider six specific capabilities based on the literature, such as ensuring EFL teachers “master teaching methods and classroom skills” or “have a high level of English proficiency.” Participants rated their agreement with the statement that ELTE must ensure EFL teachers attain each outcome, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). They also ranked the importance of those outcomes. For each outcome, a categorical variable represented whether this was the respondent’s top prioritized specific teacher capability. A continuous variable represented the participant’s rating of their agreement that ELTE must ensure this outcome, converted to a value from 1 to 5.

Three overarching capabilities were considered on the survey, based on the literature: *accountability*, *empowerment*, and *prestige and income*. Participants were asked to rate their agreement with the statements that ELTE should hold teachers accountable to standards, should empower teachers to teach according to context, and should enhance teachers’ and universities’

prestige and income; and then to rank the importance of these three purposes of teacher education. A categorical variable represented whether each was the respondent's highest priority. An equivalent continuous variable represented the participant's rating of their agreement that ELTE must ensure this overarching capability (1 to 5).

**Language Ideology Variables.** Three language ideologies were considered in this study, with a continuous variable representing the prevalence of each: *linguistic imperialism prevalence*, *native-speakerism prevalence*, and *multilingualism prevalence*. Survey respondents rated their agreement with a series of statements, with two statements representing each of the ideologies. The statements "the best methods and resources for English language teaching come from English-speaking countries" and "in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use English only" represented linguistic imperialism, the statements "native speakers are the ideal model in English language teaching" and "the goal of learning English is to become as similar as possible to a native-speaker" represented native-speakerism, and the statements "knowing other languages, such as Spanish, is valuable to students and teachers of English" and "in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use Spanish, or other languages participants know, as a resource" represented multilingualism. Teacher educators also rated their colleagues' and their students' agreement with each statement, as they perceived it. These ratings were converted to values from 1 (strong disagreement) to 5 (strong agreement) and the six responses related to each ideology (self, colleagues, students, for two statements each) were averaged to create the continuous variable for each ideology.

**Teacher Characteristic Variables.** The following categorical variables were considered: *gender*, *race or ethnicity*, *origin* (Ecuador, South or Central America outside Ecuador, Africa, Asia, Europe, Oceania, North America), *first language* (English, Spanish, both, other), *highest*

*degree, type of program taught* (undergraduate, graduate, both), *type of university employment* (public, private), *type of position* (full-time, half-time, part-time), *type of employment* (tenured, contract), and *subject(s) taught* (pedagogical methods, research methods, teaching practicum, linguistics, educational policy or philosophy, educational psychology, sociology or history of education, other). Continuous variables for teacher characteristics were *English level* (1 to 6, self-assessed with common descriptors), *Spanish level* (1 to 6, self-assessed with common descriptors), and *years teaching*. Finally, a binary categorical variable for *response language* indicated whether the participant elected to complete the survey in English or in Spanish. These variables were chosen because decolonial ELT literature suggests that teacher educators' practices, values, and experiences are inherently enmeshed with their gender, race, ethnicity, origin, and language identities; while the capabilities approach suggests that those demographic characteristics, language proficiency, institutional characteristics, and employment conditions may be conversion factors that impact individuals' capabilities and functionings.

### ***Data Management and Analysis***

Before beginning the analysis, I prepared the data in the following manner. The survey responses, collected through Microsoft Forms, were exported to Excel and saved to my institutional OneDrive account in two separate Excel files. Identifying contact information offered by those who volunteered for the focus groups was saved in a document separate from responses to the survey items, though each response remained associated with a specific response number.<sup>10</sup> Within the file containing survey responses, I replaced the specific names of respondents' universities, collected in order to calculate response rates, with letters (i.e. University A, B, C, etc.). I also took the initial step of merging responses to the equivalent

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<sup>10</sup> By separating this information, I aimed to reduce the risk of an accidental breach of confidentiality.

Spanish-language and English-language items into the same column of data, adding an additional column indicating whether the survey was conducted in English or Spanish. I then imported the survey response data to Stata, where I constructed the variables described previously.

The first step of the analysis was to calculate and report descriptive statistics (Whatley, 2022). I then used ordinary least squares (OLS) regression to relate the language use variables representing English use, Spanish use, and multilingual use to valued teacher capabilities, language ideologies, and teacher educator characteristics. OLS regression is appropriate for analyzing a linear relationship between predictor variables and a continuous outcome variable (Whatley, 2022). The analysis is further detailed, together with the results, in Chapter 5.

### ***Perspective and Bias***

I approached this topic with some prior suppositions regarding teacher educators' language use practices and the relationship of those practices to purposes and ideologies in ELTE. I expected that, while a truly English-only approach would be rare, primarily-English practices would be common. I also expected that language use practices emphasizing English would be associated with English proficiency being highly valued as a specific teacher capability, with prioritization of accountability, and with greater prevalence of ideologies of linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism. Conversely, I anticipated that teacher educators who used more multilingual approaches would value other specific teacher capabilities more highly—though I was uncertain as to which—along with empowerment as an overarching capability and might report greater prevalence of multilingual beliefs in their contexts. Though I believed primarily-Spanish practices were likely to be similar to multilingual practices in their associated capabilities and ideologies, I was less confident of what the views and beliefs of educators with a primarily-Spanish approach might be. Finally, I anticipated that there might be



significant differences in language use by teacher educators' origin, first language, and race or ethnicity, given that those factors make some educators particularly vulnerable to pressures associated with native-speakerism (Holliday, 2017; Kamhi-Stein, 2016).

Those predictions were informed by the literature on language use, ideologies, and teacher capabilities, but were also deeply influenced by my own professional experience as a teacher educator in Ecuador. I have taught pedagogy for EFL teachers in master's programs at three different Ecuadorian universities (in different parts of the country, two private and one public) on various occasions over the last years. I held a full-time position at an Ecuadorian non-profit organization from 2016 to 2023, where my work focused largely on teaching, designing, and administering professional development programs for Ecuadorian public-school EFL teachers. My assumption that language use has a meaningful relationship with the purposes of ELTE and that both are influenced by language ideologies, and my expectations regarding how they relate, were rooted in anecdotal evidence from my own practice and from informal observation and conversation with colleagues. Given that I held my own views on the topic, it was especially important that I be vigilant for patterns in the data that did not align with my expectations. My approach to the quantitative data analysis was therefore descriptive and exploratory.

The data collected and analyzed in this study was itself shaped by language use. Survey participants had the opportunity to respond to the same questions in either English or Spanish; however, the way the questions are expressed in different languages, the way that individual respondents understood the items in a given language, or factors influencing a respondent's choice of language, could have impacted responses. Variation associated with the language of

response may have been provoked by the data collection process rather than representing characteristics of the participants.

Other potential sources of bias in survey-based study are problems of coverage and non-response (Mertens, 2020). Teacher educators from some university-based ELTE programs were not invited to partake in the survey due to lack of permission from the institution. Others could have been excluded as a result of my failure to identify a program as part of the population, or an oversight in the distribution of the survey through program coordinators. If the teacher educators who were not invited, or those who were invited but choose not to respond to the survey, were meaningfully different from individuals who did respond then responses may not represent the population well. One way in which this type of bias seems likely is that teacher educators who taught in ELTE programs but were based in other departments and teacher educators who taught primarily in Spanish—often the same individuals—may have been less likely to be invited or to respond. I therefore made special effort to include such teacher educators in the qualitative component of this study.

While the design of this study was parallel and convergent rather than sequential (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), the quantitative data collection preceded the qualitative data collection for logistical reasons. In the next section, I detail the qualitative component of this study.

### **Qualitative Component: Focus Group Interviews**

The qualitative portion of the study addressed my second research question: *How do EFL teacher educators understand the relationship between their language use practices and the teacher capabilities they most value?* In this section, I present the approach to sampling and data collection used in the qualitative component of the study. I discuss my positionality as a

qualitative researcher and the validity of the qualitative data. Finally, I describe my approach to data management and analysis in this phase of the study.

### ***Participant Sampling***

For the qualitative component of this study, I employed purposive sampling whereby I deliberately selected participants so the sample would be suited to the study's design (Cohen et al., 2018). Given that I planned to collect data through focus groups within a convergent mixed-methods design, I selected a nested sample aiming for maximum variation across qualitative participants as a whole, and homogenous sampling within each focus group (Cohen et al., 2018).

As in the quantitative portion of the study, the population of interest was university professors who taught in undergraduate- or graduate-level degree programs related to ELT at Ecuadorian universities. To suit the aim of comparing and corroborating findings across data types in convergent design, it is helpful for both phases to collect data from the same participants (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Given that qualitative study is strengthened by an in-depth focus on a few individuals, while rigorous quantitative study requires many participants, I used a 'nested sample' (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007, as cited in Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 183) where the qualitative participants were a small number of the individuals who also partook in quantitative data collection.

Convergent mixed methods studies collect and analyze two sets of data in parallel and then integrate the results so as to answer a mixed methods research question (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Parallel construction does not necessarily require that quantitative and qualitative data be gathered simultaneously, as "in many convergent designs, researchers typically collect one form of data (e.g., surveys) before the other form (e.g., focus groups) simply for logistical reasons" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 190). Such was the case in this study. To select the

nested sample, I included a question in the quantitative survey asking if respondents were willing to participate in an approximately one-hour focus group on the topic.

To organize the focus groups, I followed a principle of homogenous sampling within groups, while also seeking representation of the range of language use approaches observed in the survey data. In focus group interviews, homogenous sampling within groups is conducive to creating safe spaces for participants to discuss shared experiences (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013; Madriz, 1998). To form groups that were homogenous in characteristics most relevant to the research topic, I first considered participants' origin and first language. Grouping participants according to origin and first language was important because of the likelihood that language ideologies, which set the context for both language use practices and valued capabilities in teacher education according to this study's conceptual framework, impact teacher educators differently based on those aspects of their identities. All of the focus group volunteers identified themselves as either from Ecuador or elsewhere in Latin America with a first language of Spanish or as from Asia, Europe, or North America with a first language of English or another language. Given that only nine volunteers fell in the latter category, all were invited to participate in the same focus group session.

I then further distinguished between Ecuadorian teacher educators according to their reported language use approaches with the aim of fostering discussion among like-minded educators. Based on the variables constructed from the survey representing English, Spanish, and multilingual language use (values from 1 to 5), I categorized participants into one of five distinct overall language use approaches. Those with English use of 5 and Spanish and multilingual use of 1 were categorized as having an *English-only* approach, while the remainder with English use of 4 or greater and Spanish and multilingual use below 3 were categorized as having a *primarily*

*English* approach. Participants with multilingual use of 3 or greater were considered to have one of three possible multilingual approaches, categorized distinctly given the diversity of responses among this group: those with higher values for English use than Spanish use (difference  $\geq 1.5$ ) were categorized as having an *English-dominant multilingual* approach; those with higher values for Spanish use than English use (difference  $\geq 1.5$ ) were categorized as having a *Spanish-dominant multilingual* approach; and those with similar values for English and Spanish use were categorized as having a *balanced multilingual* approach. Respondents with Spanish use of 4 or greater and English and multilingual use below 3 were categorized as having a *primarily Spanish* approach and no one reported using Spanish exclusively.

Volunteers were then invited to participate in a focus group session for either a) those with English-only approaches; b) those with primarily English approaches; or c) those with multilingual or primarily Spanish approaches. While I initially attempted to differentiate between types of multilingual approaches, the smaller number of participants with multilingual or primarily Spanish approaches—combined with the difficulty of finding shared times when participants were available—made it necessary to combine those categories into the same focus group sessions. I put particular effort into recruiting participants with balanced multilingual, Spanish-dominant multilingual, and primarily Spanish approaches so that those approaches—which were the least common—would be represented in the data.

The focus group interviews were conducted between mid-April and early June 2023 and are summarized in Table 2. I aimed to hold six to nine focus group interview sessions, based on the principle of saturation, which suggests an ideal sample is “large enough to generate ‘thick descriptions’ (Geertz, 1973) and rich data, though not so large as to prevent this from happening due to data overload” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 224). According to Krueger et al. (2001), reaching

**Table 2***Summary of Focus Groups*

Group	Origin	First Language(s)	Language Use Approach(es)	Number of Participants
1	Ecuador	Spanish	English only	4
2	Ecuador	Spanish	Primarily English	4
3	Europe North America	English Other	English only Primarily English English-dominant multilingual	5
4	Ecuador	Spanish	English-dominant multilingual Balanced multilingual	6
5	Ecuador	Spanish	English-dominant multilingual Primarily Spanish	3
6	Ecuador	Spanish	Primarily English	4
7	Ecuador	Spanish	Balanced multilingual Primarily Spanish	2*
8	Ecuador	Spanish	English Only	4
9	Ecuador	Spanish	English-dominant multilingual Spanish-dominant multilingual	5

*Note:* \*The third participant expected in this group arrived but had such persistent problems with the internet connection that he did not actually participate, leaving two remaining participants, which I would not ordinarily have considered sufficient participation.

saturation with focus group data typically requires identifying the main types of participants and conducting three to four interviews with each type of participant group.

I first organized Groups 1 to 4, which included an English only group, a primarily English group, a multilingual group, and a group of non-Ecuadorian educators with various language use approaches. Hoping to include participants with Spanish-dominant multilingual or primarily Spanish approaches, I then held another session (Group 5) with educators with those or multilingual approaches. Subsequently, I invited educators who had expressed interest in the first groups but been unable to attend to another set of sessions (Groups 6 to 8): another English only

group, another primarily English group, and another multilingual or primarily Spanish group. Finally, I attempted once more to include additional educators with primarily Spanish or Spanish-dominant approaches in another session for multilingual and primarily Spanish approaches. I ultimately conducted nine focus group interviews with 37 participants in total: one group of non-Ecuadorian teacher educators with various language use approaches (5 participants); two groups of Ecuadorian educators with English-only approaches (8 participants total), two groups with primarily English approaches (9 participants total), and four groups with multilingual or primarily Spanish approaches (9 participants total with English-dominant multilingual approaches, 4 total with balanced multilingual approaches, 1 with a Spanish-dominant multilingual approach, and 2 with primarily Spanish approaches).

Volunteer sampling can be problematic when volunteers differ from the overall population (Cohen et al., 2018). In this case, the focus group participants seemed to be similar to the overall population. Selected characteristics of qualitative participants' teaching circumstances are presented in Table 3 and selected demographic characteristics are listed in Table 4.

Approximately half of the 24 universities in Ecuador offering ELTE are located in the Highlands region, with the other half in the Coast region; about two-thirds are public institutions and most offer undergraduate ELTE programs, with only four offering only graduate-level ELTE.

Similarly, nearly equal numbers of focus group participants taught at Highlands and Coast universities. Thirty-two of 37 taught at public universities, which are often larger than private ones, and 35 of 37 taught undergraduates (with just two teaching exclusively at the graduate level).

While no demographic information for the overall ELTE educator population is available, focus group participants were very similar to the overall group of survey respondents in

**Table 3***Selected Characteristics of Qualitative Participants' Teaching Circumstances (n = 37)*

Pseudonym	University Region	University Type	Program Level(s) Taught	Employment Type
Alexandra	Coast	Private	Undergraduate	Tenure
Alice	Highlands	Private	Graduate	Contract
Blanca	Highlands	Public	Both	Contract
Daniel	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Darwin	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Diana	Coast	Public	Both	Contract
Edison	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Félix	Coast	Public	Both	Contract
Fernando	Highlands	Private	Graduate	Contract
Franklin	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Gloria	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Jaime	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Janet	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Johanna	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Julia	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Laura	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Lindsay	Highlands	Private	Both	Tenure
Luz	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Mariana	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Mario	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Mark	Coast	Private	Both	Contract
Mayra	Coast	Public	Both	Contract
Mercedes	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Miguel	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Milton	Coast	Public	Both	Tenure
Nancy	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Olga	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Pedro	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Ricardo	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Contract
Robert	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Rosa	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Sonia	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Teresa	Coast	Public	Both	Tenure
Verónica	Coast	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure
Walter	Highlands	Public	Both	Tenure



Yolanda	Highlands	Public	Both	Tenure
Zoila	Highlands	Public	Undergraduate	Tenure

demographic characteristics, as well as reported language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and teaching contexts (see Chapter 6). Similarly to the Ecuadorian population overall, most qualitative participants identified as mestizo. It is notable that, while about 7% of Ecuadorians identify as indigenous, 7% as Montubio (an ethnic identity specific to part of the Coast region), 5% as Afro-Ecuadorian, and as 2% white (INEC, n.d.) and there were five Montubio and three white focus group participants, only one qualitative participant identified as Afro-Ecuadorian and no participants in this study identified as indigenous.

### ***Method of Data Collection***

I deemed focus groups the most appropriate method of qualitative data collection for this study for several reasons. In convergent design, where the aim is to corroborate and complement findings through two types of data, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) recommend using “two independent sources [of data] to ensure each separate database is rigorous and stands on its own” (p. 189). Conducting focus groups in addition to a closed-question survey follows this logic, while supplementing the closed questions with qualitative open-ended questions within the same questionnaire, for example, would not. Observations could have captured teacher educators’ language use practices but would not have illuminated how they understood those practices to be related to the teacher capabilities that they valued. My qualitative research question called for a method of data collection that would allow participants to articulate the relationship between their practices and values in their own words and in depth, as in interviews (Cohen et al., 2018).

Focus group interviews were better suited to the aims of this study than individual interviews because of the collective format, which “allow[s] people to speak in both collective

**Table 4***Selected Demographic Characteristics of Qualitative Participants (n = 37)*

Pseudonym	Origin	First Language	Gender	Race or Ethnicity	Degree
Alexandra	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Alice	North America	English	Female	Other	Masters
Blanca	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Daniel	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Masters
Darwin	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Doctorate
Diana	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Edison	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Doctorate
Félix	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Masters
Fernando	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Masters
Franklin	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Masters
Gloria	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Jaime	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Masters
Janet	North America	English	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Johanna	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Julia	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Laura	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Lindsay	North America	English	Female	White	Masters
Luz	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Montubio	Masters
Mariana	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Montubio	Masters
Mario	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Doctorate
Mark	Europe	English	Male	White	Masters
Mayra	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Doctorate
Mercedes	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Miguel	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Montubio	Masters
Milton	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Montubio	Masters
Nancy	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Olga	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Afro-Ecuadorian	Masters
Pedro	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Masters
Ricardo	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Masters
Robert	Europe	Other	Male	White	Doctorate
Rosa	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Masters
Sonia	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Doctorate
Teresa	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Doctorate
Verónica	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Montubio	Masters
Walter	Ecuador	Spanish	Male	Mestizo	Masters

Yolanda	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Doctorate
Zoila	Ecuador	Spanish	Female	Mestizo	Doctorate

and individual voices” (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013, p. 325). The group dynamic posed several advantages for addressing the qualitative research question of my study, which did not intend to portray specific educators’ unique experiences so much as to explore collective understandings of language use and valued teacher capabilities in Ecuadorian ELTE. For one, the dominant ideologies of native-speakerism and linguistic imperialism foster the assumption that English should be used in ELT spaces (Zaidan, 2020) and the idealization of ‘native-speaker’ professionals (Holliday, 2006), creating a power imbalance between myself as a North-American researcher and Ecuadorian teacher educators. Group interviews placed me, the researcher, in the linguistic minority in most groups, which may have gone some way towards counter-balancing that power differential. The potential to make participants feel at ease among peers when they may have felt uncomfortable with or mistrustful of the researcher alone is one advantage of the focus group method of data collection (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013).

The group dynamic facilitated by data collection through focus groups was key to both the theoretical perspectives orienting this study. The capabilities perspective encourages discussion among stakeholders about which capabilities are valuable in a given context (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021; Sen, 2004). A decolonial approach to ELTE also encourages collaboration and dialogue in spaces that allow teacher educators to co-construct local viewpoints and practices, thus enacting decolonial values of “collectiveness, plurality, and locality” (Borelli et al., 2020, p. 319). At least some teacher educators who participated in this study seemed to have experienced the focus groups as spaces for collective local knowledge construction, as reflected in comments praising “what we are doing right now” (Daniel), “this

space that Adeline has created” (Franklin), and the idea that “we can do research, like yours, to improve the quality of education, independently of whatever country it is” (Jaime). Thus, focus groups created space for synergistic exploration of a topic (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013) in a manner aligned with the study’s theoretical framework.

The focus group interviews followed a semi-structured approach based on an interview guide (see Appendix C) and lasted approximately one hour. The guide moved participants through the stages of a focus group recommended by Krueger et al. (2001), beginning with opening and introductory questions, continuing with key questions that addressed the aims of the study, and concluding with questions that closed the group discussion. The topics addressed by the focus group guide paralleled the same topics examined in the quantitative survey. Questions addressed teacher educators’ language use practices (for example, “How much do you use English, how much do you use Spanish, and how much do you use a combination of them in your teaching these courses?”), how those practices related to the purposes they value (for example, “Do you think your use of English or Spanish or both helps to you achieve your goals as an instructor in any way? Or impedes you in achieving those goals in any way? How?”), and ideological beliefs (for example, “Could you share anything more about your beliefs regarding the use of English and Spanish in English teacher education?”). As was the case in the survey, the focus group questions inquired about goals and purposes rather than referring explicitly to ‘valued capabilities,’ as that terminology is not widely recognized, nor are the connotations of the term ‘capability’ necessarily clear across languages (Robeyns, 2017).

Seidman (2019) advises interviewers to elicit “details of [participants’] experience, upon which their opinions may be built” (p. 22) rather than directly asking for opinions. My focus group guide grounded the conversation in concrete experience by first eliciting descriptions of

participants' language use within the specific courses they taught (Question 2). The next questions proceeded to inquire about how those practices related to the aims of their instruction (Questions 3, 4, and 5) and then concluded by asking participants to expand on their beliefs regarding teacher education and language use (Questions 6 and 7). Because "coming at an issue more indirectly could produce a more honest response without causing alarm" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 515), the more complex and sensitive questions related to beliefs were placed at the end. The interviews had a semi-structured format and, while all followed the guide, they did not proceed uniformly across groups. In some groups, participants elaborated more on their purposes and beliefs when initially asked about their language use practices or spoke of how their programs contribute to the quality of education when asked initially about their teaching goals. As it was important to me not to significantly exceed the approximately one-hour promised time commitment, we did not always have time for the later questions, especially when groups were

**Table 5**

*Interview Guide Questions Asked in the Focus Groups, by Type of Group*

Focus Group	Focus Group #	Questions Asked						
		#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7
English only	1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	8	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Primarily English	2	X	X	X	X	X		
	6	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Multilingual & primarily Spanish	4	X	X	X	X			
	5	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	7	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	9	X	X	X	X			
Non-Ecuadorian, various approaches	3	X	X	X	X	X		

larger and more talkative with the earlier questions. Table 5 summarizes which questions were asked in each group, by group type. Groups 2 and 3 were not asked Questions 6 or 7 and Groups 4 and 9 were not asked Questions 5, 6 or 7. I therefore used an Excel spreadsheet to compile a basic summary profile of each participant's contribution in the focus groups, with a column for each core concept of the study. I used that spreadsheet to verify that I had collected data on each participant's teaching context, language use practices, valued purposes (including valued teacher capabilities), and beliefs about language in ELTE. Despite the fact that not all groups were asked the final questions intended to probe deeper into purposes and beliefs regarding ELTE and language, all the participants had expressed ideas about those topics.

I used the Zoom videoconferencing platform to conduct and record the focus group interviews. That made it possible to create the type of homogenous groups that are ideal for focus group interviews (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013; Madriz, 1998) regardless of geography. Given that the population of interest was distributed throughout Ecuador, in-person focus groups would have restricted the sample to locations feasible for me to visit and would have placed teacher educators of different nationalities and language use preferences within the same interviews based on their location. Online focus groups, on the other hand, permitted the kind of purposive sampling appropriate for qualitative research (Cohen et al., 2018) and for the topic.

Like other methods, online interviewing has both benefits and drawbacks (Cohen et al., 2018). Using videoconferencing for interviews is substantially similar to in-person interviewing "as an instant, face-to-face audio-visual method" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 540). The online modality eliminates geographic constraints and reduces time constraints (Cohen et al., 2018). It also facilitates videorecording. Online data collection is not appropriate for all populations as it

presumes Internet access and technological proficiency. However, given the extensive use of online videoconferencing platforms including Zoom in Ecuadorian higher education during the height of the COVID-19 pandemic, interacting in the Zoom platform was a familiar setting for participants in this study. One drawback of this approach was that the virtual format made it difficult to reduce distractions and ensure participants' full attention (Cohen et al., 2018). To minimize potential distraction, I sought participants' input in selecting the day and time of the focus groups and requested that participants activate their cameras. In a few cases, participants had problems with unstable internet connections. Generally, those problems were brief and resolved by repeating or having the participant repeat a phrase, but occasionally poor connectivity was more disruptive. During Group 5, we took breaks in the interview while participants resolved connectivity problems. One participant in Group 6 disappeared partway through the conversation and later informed me she had lost electricity; I was able to complete missing data for the questions she had missed with a one-on-one follow-up phone call. In Group 7, one expected participant arrived but had such persistent problems with the internet connection that he did not actually participate, leaving two remaining participants, which I would not ordinarily have considered sufficient to conduct a focus group.

### ***Researcher Positionality***

Qualitative methodology acknowledges the inherent influence of “the biographically situated researcher” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013, p. 24) in all aspects of research, necessitating reflection on the researcher's position vis-à-vis her topic and participants. I consider two aspects of my positionality particularly relevant to this study: my identity and my professional background.

My identity as a White, North American ‘native speaker’ of English surely impacted how participants in this study, most of whom were Ecuadorian, interacted with me as a researcher. My identity is idealized and carries privilege in the global field of ELT, where ‘non native-speakers’ are often framed as less competent professionals in contrast to a certain ‘native-speaker’ ideal (Holliday, 2006). Identity is “relational and reflexive, as produced through multiple forms and forces of discourse in relation to distinctive forms of power, and as performed as individuals negotiate multiple identifications across contexts of situated practice” (Hall, 2002, p. 14, as cited in Gardinier, 2017, p. 52). Regardless of whether they believed or rejected ideals of native-speakerism, participants would have consciously or unconsciously reacted to the way they perceived my identity and themselves in relation to me, in the context of dominant language ideologies. My awareness of that dynamic led me to be especially conscious of my language use during data collection. Language use choices do not arise from ‘pure’ personal preferences but are intertwined with identities that are constructed through interaction and may have been influenced by my positionality.

Language use within data collection is important for reasons of ethics—so that participants do not feel disadvantaged or mistreated in the process—and validity—so that participants are able to fully express their ideas in their own words. At the outset of data collection, my approach to language was guided by a principle of following participant choice. When educators volunteered for focus group participation, the survey asked them to indicate their preference for the focus group to be in Spanish or English. All the volunteers whose first language was not Spanish preferred English or had no preference and were to be invited to their own homogenous group in any case. However, educators whose first language was Spanish expressed a variety of preferences. Logistically, I found it was not possible to form homogenous



groups regarding language use practices, respect available schedules, *and* separate volunteers who preferred Spanish from those who preferred English (with Spanish being everyone's first language). For focus groups with Ecuadorian educators, I therefore added to my opening comments that I had prioritized respecting their scheduling availability and, as a result, there might be various language preferences in the group; so, I would begin in Spanish and they could use either Spanish or English as they wished. Because of the implicit power differential between 'native' and 'non-native' speakers highlighted by the decolonial perspective I took in this study, I was concerned that participants might feel pressure to speak in English regardless of my offering both Spanish and English as options. I therefore made those opening remarks and began the interview in Spanish.

My approach to language quickly shifted towards a principle of following participants' first language, upon reflection on several developments in data collection. First and foremost, after conducting the first focus group (with Ecuadorian educators who had reported English-only approaches), I felt that the principle of following participant choice did not support my pursuit of ethical and valid data collection as well as I had hoped. Initially, participants responded in Spanish and directly addressed my first questions. However, as the conversation proceeded, one participant repeatedly switched to English, upon which the rest would switch to English and some comments would become (in my perception) less specific and clearly responsive to my questions. Concerned that English was not the most comfortable language for everyone—including for the person initiating these switches—I first attempted to continue using Spanish to lead the conversation. Some participants followed my language use, but eventually everyone would move back to English. I ultimately followed the group's lead, and the majority of the conversation took place in English. I memoed immediately afterwards: "I feel disrespectful to

keep talking to them in Spanish when they keep responding in English (after the first person switches). But... I have the definite feeling that I would trust this data more if we were speaking Spanish.” I wondered if participants felt the need to prove they were not the one who preferred Spanish. I also noted that my use of Spanish could be condescending or perceived as such. By inviting participants’ choice of language while also attempting to lead a group conversation that I considered inclusive and empirically sound, I had created the conditions for a subtextual linguistic power struggle that was also an enactment of the language beliefs we each held.

At the same time, some indicators from the survey gave me pause. Of the 84 Spanish-first-language focus group volunteers, 40 had selected English as their preferred language for the focus group conversation, 37 had selected ‘no preference’, and just 7 had selected Spanish. That made me wonder whether many respondents truly did not have a preference, or whether some might have felt that expressing a preference for Spanish would be negatively perceived. I was also struck by the fact that only 26% of survey respondents elected to complete the survey in Spanish, while 89% indicated Spanish was their first language and 45% reported having an intermediate or lower English level (CEFR B2 or below). These observations of language preferences both prior to and during the focus groups were clearly influenced by my positionality and approach and exemplify how participants’ reactions to the researcher and the data collection process may reveal “the kinds of pressures and anxieties” that shape participants’ experiences (Gardinier, 2017, p. 49).

Reflecting on these observations, I decided that encouraging participants to use their first language of Spanish was less likely to cause harm than encouraging them to choose either language in a group conversation where a struggle between languages and interests might ensue. I therefore made the following minor adjustment to my opening comments. After noting that

there might be various language preferences in the group, rather than saying that I would begin in Spanish and they could use either language, I said that I would ask the questions in Spanish, but that if there was something they wished to express in English that would be fine. The subsequent focus groups (with the exception of Group 3 with non-Ecuadorian educators) used Spanish with occasional comments in English and without any language-related discomfort that I perceived.

That resolution of my concerns about language did not, of course, remove the influence of language ideologies and of my identity on data collection. Interacting in a professional ELT space might have provoked wariness of being cast as less competent professionals or a desire to demonstrate professional belonging, which may have influenced the ideas that teacher educators expressed regarding their language use and the teacher capabilities they valued. Just as participants' ideas were shaped by their identities and the interaction of those identities with others, my identity also permeates my own beliefs and preferences regarding language use and teacher capabilities in ELTE. My discomfort with the power differential I perceive in my field (which often advantages me) may lead me to minimize the importance of English use as a practice and English proficiency as an outcome of ELTE, making it more difficult for me to recognize why those practices and capabilities are valuable to other educators. After the third focus group, I memoed:

This was the first focus group where I felt like it wasn't hard to keep the conversation on track... I almost felt like I didn't need to ask questions through most of it, because the conversation was naturally moving to each of the next points that I had planned. ... Could it have something to do with being the 'foreigners' group and my being part of that

identity myself, that maybe they had similar experiences as mine that led to thinking about the topic in the way I have been?

While I did my best to step out of my own perspective and thoughtfully portray the perspectives of the participants in this study, most of whom were Ecuadorian teacher educators, this research cannot be separated from who I am as a researcher.

Even while my identity differentiated me from many participants, I am also a member of the group I studied: a teacher educator working in Ecuadorian university-based ELTE. That professional experience, along with local knowledge accumulated through more than a decade of living and working in Ecuador, provided me extensive context for understanding participants' perspectives in light of my own understanding of Ecuadorian ELTE. My experience guided my belief that the way teacher educators relate their language use practices to the purposes of their instruction is complex and merited close exploration to address a real-world problem of practice.

### ***Validity***

Throughout the qualitative component of this study, I strove to capture “an accurate reflection of reality (or at least, participants’ constructions of reality)” (Cho & Trent, 2006, p. 322) through several strategies for gaining validity in qualitative research.

First and foremost, I engaged in what Cho and Trent (2006) call “validity as a process” that involves “‘thinking out loud’ about researcher concerns, safeguards, and contradictions continually” (p. 327). To support this ‘thinking out loud,’ I maintained a journal on my research process in which I not only documented my choices, but also reflected on how my “attitudes, opinions and expectations” were shaping my decision-making during data collection and interpretation (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 272). An important first step in that process was examining my positionality and seeking strategies to mitigate the “potential differentiation of power brought

about by the characteristics of the interviewer” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 519), as discussed above regarding language in the focus groups. During data analysis, I sought regular feedback from my advisors, peers, and colleagues, as peer debriefing can help uncover researcher assumptions and biases (Cohen et al., 2018). For instance, a conversation with a peer called my attention to the way that categorizing participants by most valued teacher capability involved quite a bit of my own judgment where participants expressed several priorities. That led me to represent both valued teacher capabilities and language use practices as continua on an XY plane for the primary qualitative analysis (see Chapter 7).

Representation of the data along continua was one of several ways I sought to enhance the validity of the qualitative component through rich data vividly depicting participants’ perspectives on a complex topic, including potential contradictions or tensions. That kind of “thick description” (Geertz, 1973, as cited in Cho & Trent, 2006) led me to dedicate a full chapter (Chapter 6) to how the participants describe their teaching contexts, language use practices, and valued teacher capabilities before addressing how they saw language use and valued capabilities as related (Chapter 7).

Additionally, I sought a qualitative sample of teacher educators that would support the validity of the qualitative findings. Given that the quantitative sample drew from 22 of the 24 universities offering ELTE in Ecuador and had a 34% response rate, the quantitative data could be considered representative of the population of university-based ELTE educators. I was therefore able to compare the focus group participants to the quantitative descriptive statistics to enhance the representativeness of the qualitative sample. All respondents who volunteered for the focus groups ultimately received an invitation, but during the recruitment process I reviewed the breakdown of demographic and teaching circumstance characteristics and prioritized inviting

and reminding educators who were so-far underrepresented. I thus secured the participation of 37 qualitative participants, from 18 different universities, with the same range of relevant characteristics as the larger quantitative sample. I also attempted to seek a “boosted sample” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 219) of teacher educators with Spanish-dominant multilingual or primarily Spanish approaches to ensure the full range of practices would be included. Attention to the representativeness of the sample supports validity by improving the theoretical generalizability of qualitative research and providing greater opportunity for “assessing rival explanations” during data analysis (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 250).

The qualitative data was corroborated by the survey data collected one or two months prior, offering both time triangulation and instrument triangulation (Cohen et al., 2018). I compared participants’ focus group comments on how much they used English, Spanish, or a combination in their instruction with their reporting on the survey of using these languages “never,” “little,” “some,” “a lot,” or “always.” Just three of the 37 participants described language use practices in the focus groups that I considered notably different from the way they had been categorized based on the survey data. For instance, based on the survey, I thought Janet had a primarily English approach, but based on her focus group comments I described her as using a multilingual approach. These discrepancies did not arise from contradictory data, but rather from the imprecision of reporting one’s typical practices on a survey and the ambiguity of establishing ‘cut off’ points between categories. Finding similar patterns through triangulation strengthened my confidence in the qualitative data I collected and interpreted, just as the focus group findings lent validity to the quantitative data (see Chapter 8).

Finally, I employed member-checking, a crucial strategy for seeking a valid representation of participants’ reality in qualitative data (Cho & Trent, 2006). By inviting

feedback from participants, researchers can make their compilations and interpretations of participants' words and actions more faithful to the participants' perspectives and reduce the potential for misunderstanding. During the data collection process, I reached out to two focus group participants via WhatsApp when I noticed an apparent contradiction between the language use attitudes they had selected on the survey and their comments in the focus groups. One explained how both stances were true for her, while the other said the focus group comments better represented her position. I was thus able to proceed to the analysis more confident of my understanding of their attitudes.

I sought feedback from all the qualitative participants on the initial findings and interpretations I generated from the focus groups. While some advocate for beginning member-checking at the transcription stage (Seidman, 2019), I considered that sharing focus group transcripts with multiple group members would have compromised the confidentiality of individuals' comments—already difficult to protect in the group setting—and eliciting feedback on such transcripts would also have been unduly burdensome on participants' uncompensated time. I initially planned to share preliminary findings by participant group type but found that the findings were more coherent as a whole. I therefore emailed a draft of the complete qualitative findings to all the focus group participants, with an invitation to send me any comments, concerns, or feedback within six weeks. I also sent WhatsApp reminders immediately following the initial email and two weeks before the deadline. The email attached summaries of the qualitative findings and discussion in both Spanish and English, as well as the full draft in English of what became Chapters 6 and 7. I suggested they search it for mentions of their pseudonyms to review their quotations and mentions. Because many had provided institutional email addresses that are not necessarily private, I invited participants to send me a private

message from the email address or phone number where they would like to be informed of their assigned pseudonym.

Twenty-six participants acknowledged receipt of the invitation for member checking and nine sent comments on the findings. One participant was not comfortable with the way I had characterized a comment that participant had made, feeling that it was my personal opinion rather than an interpretation of the data. (This participant did not dispute the quotation and offered positive comments on the draft in general.) I removed the specific phrase that had caused concern and informed the participant I was doing so and was open to further conversation. One participant noted an orthographic error, another sent background information about English in Ecuador, and the remaining six commented generally that the findings were interesting or offered congratulations on the draft.

### ***Data Management and Analysis***

With participants' consent, I recorded the focus group interviews in Zoom and then transcribed them with the support of Trint, in the original languages (English and Spanish). I assigned a pseudonym to each participant by selecting at random from online lists of the most common names from participants' places of origin (mainly, lists of the most common names for women and men in Ecuador), avoiding similar names or participants' real names. I maintained a record of pseudonyms by participant in an Excel file saved on my password-protected university OneDrive account and used pseudonyms directly in transcription. The recordings and transcripts were also saved in that OneDrive account and deleted from Zoom and Trint platforms. I maintained another Excel file with a record of the date and time, group type, and participants involved for each focus group and saved the files associated with each (recordings, transcripts) with file names noting the date and group type (Lareau, 2021).



To prepare the data for analysis, I first reduced the text for analysis to the sections of each focus group with potential bearing on my research questions (Seidman, 2019), setting aside logistical and social comments at the beginning and end of each transcript. I uploaded the transcript of each focus group as a file in the software NVivo, tagged each participants' comments within the file as an individual case, and associated the cases with relevant attributes based on data I had previously collected through the survey. This permitted me to explore patterns associated with individuals and groups, avoiding the danger of divorcing themes from specific people's characteristics and experiences (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Cohen et al., 2018; Seidman, 2019). The participant summary profiles I had compiled during data collection also helped me to keep in mind the integrity and coherence of each persons' individual comments during the next stages (Seidman, 2019).

My principal analytical strategy was a thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) that involved coding the focus group transcripts following the guidance of Saldaña (2021). In a first round of coding, I used a combination of descriptive and in-vivo codes (Saldaña, 2021) to inductively code information on participants' teaching contexts, language use practices (separated into 'approaches' and 'reasons'), goals or purposes, and attitudes or beliefs about language. In a second round of coding, I organized these codes into categories using a combination of inductive and deductive approaches (Saldaña, 2021). Saldaña (2021) notes that "induction and deduction are actually dialectical rather than mutually exclusive research procedures" and employing both permits researchers to learn something unexpected from the data and also build on prior knowledge (p. 41).

Thus, I drew on patterns in the codes generated in the first round and also categories offered by the literature and by the capabilities approach. For example, I initially coded

comments as pertaining to teacher educators' valued purposes or goals, as they were responding to questions I had framed in that way. As I analyzed the data through the lens of my theoretical and conceptual framework, I saw that those purposes and goals referred to what they aspired for their ELTE students to be able to be and do—in other words, teacher capabilities. Thus, under the topic of 'valued purposes', I created a category of 'specific teacher capabilities' with subcategories labeled by types of specific teacher capabilities identified in the literature review, as these comprehensively categorized the inductive codes. Thus, I categorized the in-vivo codes '*amar su profesión*' ('love their profession') and '*seres humanos*' ('human beings') in the 'teacher identity & cognition' subcategory of 'specific teacher capabilities.' I also created the category of 'conversion factors,' with subcategories for personal (those that pertain to ELTE students, versus those that pertain to teacher educators), social, and environmental factors. There, for instance, I categorized the code 'student language level'—originally descriptively labeled as a 'language use reason'—as a conversion factor that pertained to ELTE students and was 'personal,' while 'prior ELT access' was 'social.'

Approaching the data both inductively and deductively allowed me to answer the qualitative research question seeking teacher educators' own understandings, while also maintaining parallel construction in analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). That supported the convergent design of the study, facilitating subsequent integration of the qualitative and quantitative data according to the intent of convergent design to corroborate findings across the datasets (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The use of deductive coding also helped me to conceptualize the data through the terminology of my theoretical framework.

I proceeded in an iterative process of “recording and recategorizing” (Saldaña, 2021, p. 15) aimed at consolidating “the most frequent or significant codes to develop the most salient categories in the data corpus” (p. 303). This stage also aimed to identify latent themes to “examine the underlying ideas, assumptions, and conceptualizations—and ideologies” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 84). For instance, I consolidated the codes ‘student expression & participation,’ ‘student level,’ and ‘student understanding’ into the code ‘student language proficiency.’ I also coded for monolingual and multilingual preferences and for examples of linguistic imperialism, native-speakerism, and multilingualism at this point. Finally, I used charts and figures summarizing participants’ language use approach types, most valued teacher capability types, and perceived conversion factors to explore the ways that they linked language use practices and valued teacher capabilities. This led to my grouping participants with common elements and theorizing ways that language use and valued teacher capabilities may align.

To remain as close as possible to the participants’ own words, I maintained the original language of the data throughout the data analysis process and translated quotations that were originally expressed in Spanish only at the moment of reporting them in this dissertation. I included the original Spanish in a footnote wherever I felt that my translation required a greater degree of interpretation than usual because of a lack of a direct equivalent in English. After both the quantitative and qualitative analyses were complete, I moved to the final stage of the study, integrating the qualitative and quantitative data and analyzing them jointly.

### **Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Components**

In mixed methods research, integration is “the point in the research procedures where qualitative research interfaces with quantitative research” and as such is the “centerpiece” of a mixed methods study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 220). In this convergent mixed methods

study, the intent to integrate data informed the design and execution of the quantitative and qualitative stages but integration occurred in the final stage of data analysis. That analysis addressed my third research question: *How and to what extent does integrated quantitative and qualitative data from EFL teacher educators link their language use practices to valued teacher capabilities?* The purpose of using a combination of quantitative and qualitative data to answer this question was to “develop results and interpretations that expand understanding, are comprehensive, and are validated and confirmed” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 221). In this section, I describe how integration informed the design of the quantitative and qualitative components, how I approached analysis and interpretation of the converged data, and how this supported the validity of the integrated findings.

### ***Study Design***

Integration is only possible to the extent the qualitative and quantitative findings are in fact comparable. In a convergent design, parallel construction of the two phases of the study is needed at several levels (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). This study’s conceptual framework tied together the components by establishing language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies as bidirectionally interrelated within a theoretical perspective informed by postcolonial thought and the capabilities approach. That framework provided the foundation for the research questions and analytic approaches used in both components of the study. While the quantitative research question led to a statistical analysis of the relationships between language use practices and valued teacher capabilities (while holding constant language ideologies and teacher educator demographics), the qualitative research question led to nuanced description of how those practices and capabilities related from participants’ points of view and in their specific contexts. The two methodological approaches thus explored relationships arising from the same

conceptual framework according to the respective affordances of qualitative and quantitative methodologies.

The parallel design of this study was also evident in data collection methods that supported integration. First, I employed “parallel questions” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 189) across the two data collection instruments. The survey and the focus group interview guide addressed the same “subsidiary topics” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 336) that I identified based on literature on the three core concepts of the conceptual framework. Second, sampling a subset of the individuals who participated in the quantitative survey for the qualitative data collection further supported the subsequent comparability of data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

### ***Data Analysis and Interpretation***

My approach to integrated data analysis was guided by Creswell and Plano Clark’s (2018) manual on mixed methods research. First, I assembled a joint display table in Excel that summarized the qualitative and quantitative results in one document organized by “common concepts” (p. 224)—namely, language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, language beliefs, and teacher educators’ characteristics. Next, I examined the data on each concept to determine “in what ways they confirm, disconfirm, or expand on each other” (p. 224). In doing so, I created a series of more detailed concept-by-concept joint displays that are included in Chapters 6 and 7. Where results from the two datasets appeared to diverge, I reexamined the quantitative and qualitative data in search of interpretations that might explain that divergence. For example, the overarching capability of being empowered was significant in the quantitative results but was not a salient theme in considering the qualitative data alone. At the integration stage, I examined overarching teacher capabilities in the focus group data and offered an explanation for discrepancies with the equivalent survey results. Based on the evidence from

joint display tables juxtaposing both types of findings, I then discussed the extent to which valued teacher capabilities or other factors—namely, language ideologies, teacher educator characteristics, or context—appeared to shape language use in Ecuadorian ELTE.

The structure of this dissertation reflects the study’s convergent design. Chapters 5, 6 and 7 present and discuss the quantitative and qualitative findings separately, addressing the first and second research questions. Chapters 8 and 9 then answer the third research question using both types of data, such that “the discussion becomes the vehicle for merging the results” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 226).

### ***Validity***

In addition to attending to the validity of the qualitative and quantitative portions of their research, researchers who use mixed methods must address validity threats that are specific to integrating data with a particular mixed methods intent (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) identify the major threats to convergent design studies: lack of parallel concepts that would permit integration of the two databases, different sample sizes preventing the merging of participant-level data, lack of integration of results, and lack of attention to disconfirming findings between the datasets (p. 251). I addressed those threats by employing parallel questions in my two data collection instruments; explaining the different types of results sought through with a population-level survey versus a small qualitative sample, and employing caution in participant-level comparison across datasets; addressing the integrated results in two chapters dedicated to my mixed-methods research question; and returning to the data for further analysis, and explicitly describing that analysis, when faced with apparently contradictory results. In that way, I sought to both ensure the validity of the integrated findings and to enhance the respective validity of the quantitative and qualitative findings through

corroboration between the two datasets. In addition to the parallel design of the quantitative and qualitative components, and the integration at the final stage of analysis, all stages of this study were united by a consistent approach to ethics of research.

### **Ethics of Research**

Ethically undertaking research with human subjects requires “treating people as ends in themselves” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), beyond their potential contribution to knowledge production and problem-solving through research. For the researcher, this means to “do no harm...; do good...; be honest; be sincere; be grateful” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 112), which I strove to do throughout this study. For instance, when interacting with participants in the focus groups, I sought to create a safe space for discussion and be sensitive to participants’ feelings so as to “leave [each] respondent feeling better than, or at least no worse than, she or he felt at the start of the interview” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 518).

A key element of ethical research is the practice of seeking participants’ voluntary participation and informed consent. A researcher has the informed consent of her participants when they agree to take part under circumstances of “competence, voluntarism, full information, and comprehension” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 112). There were two key moments when I obtained participants’ informed consent in this study: when they completed the online survey and upon participation in the focus groups. While I requested the support of university program coordinators in disseminating the survey to their staff, participation was in no way tied to their professional obligations. The second survey question, after asking participants to choose whether to continue in Spanish or English, provided information about the study and asked for participants’ consent to participate. Those who volunteered for a focus group received an information sheet in advance of the meeting that clearly stated in both English and Spanish that

participation was voluntary and that participants could withdraw their participation before or during the focus group. I reviewed that information at the start of each focus group, provided opportunity for questions, and elicited verbal confirmation of participants' consent. I sought verbal consent so as to avoid placing an undue burden on participants and given that data collection occurred online rather than in person.

I had an ethical obligation to maintain participant confidentiality and to responsibly handle participants' data and potentially identifying information. Confidential information in this study is information that could identify participants or their universities. For participants who opted to only complete the survey without volunteering for the focus group, no identifying information was collected. If participants chose to volunteer for the focus groups, their survey responses could be identified. As mentioned in the section on quantitative data management, I assigned each response a specific number and removed any identifying contact information from the main data file. The identifying information was saved in a separate password-protected Excel file by response number, to be accessed only by myself and for the purpose of inviting participants to the focus groups and conducting subsequent member checks. Furthermore, information on participants' place of work was collected purely to assess how complete the survey data was. In the main data file, I replaced the specific names of participants' universities with letters (i.e. University A, B, C, etc.). A key identifying the universities was saved in a separate password-protected file.

In the case of the focus groups, I acknowledged in the information sheet and consent process that I could not ensure confidentiality given the multiple participants in the room. However, I emphasized the value of all participants respecting the privacy of others and not sharing details of our conversation outside of the group and took steps to protect the participant



data I collected. As mentioned in the section on qualitative data analysis, I saved all recordings and transcripts in my university OneDrive account and deleted them from the Zoom and Trint platforms used for recording and transcription. Upon transcription, I replaced all participant names with pseudonyms and a key identifying the focus group participants was saved in a separate password-protected file.

In reporting the results of this research study, I included aggregate information about participants' gender, race or ethnicity, country or continent of origin, first language, highest degree, type of program taught, type of university employer, type of position, type of employment, self-reported English level and Spanish level, and number of years teaching. I also reported some of this information at an individual level, but avoided detailing sets of characteristics for individual participants that might be specific enough as to be identifying. At no point will I report results associated with specific universities nor will I share university-specific information with institutions or program coordinators.

Finally, I subscribe to Beresniova's (2017) position that an ethical stance means acting in support of the aims and needs of one's research participants when possible. When contacting universities to enquire about including their professors in this study, I expressed my openness to sharing results or engaging in other academic activities with the universities' ELTE professors and students. Throughout the process, I have taken time to discuss other issues in ELTE and share information and contacts I have access to with program coordinators and focus group participants when asked. I see the connections I initiated in conducting this research as ongoing professional relationships that I will continue to respect in the future.

## **Limitations**

This study relates teacher educators' language use practices to the teacher capabilities that they value, with the hope of illuminating whether and how language use practices support valuable purposes of teacher education. However, the empirical findings are limited to the context of Ecuadorian university-based ELTE and cannot be used to describe other teacher education contexts. Nonetheless, the theoretical insights into how language use, ideology, and valued teacher capabilities interrelate in EFL teacher educators' professional experiences provide greater understanding of these concepts that may be conceptually applicable to other contexts.

Within the context of university-based ELTE in Ecuador, this study was limited to the perspectives of teacher educators. In aiming for a comprehensive view of this teacher educator population while maintaining the feasibility of the study, I elected to focus on teacher educators' self-reported practices, values, and beliefs. The self-reported data, collected by survey and in focus group interviews, may or may not accurately reflect participants' actual classroom practices and priorities. Furthermore, the perspectives of students—current and future EFL teachers partaking in teacher education—are beyond the scope of this study, as are the views of program administrators. As such, the results of this study must be understood as arising specifically from the viewpoints of teacher educators and how those educators chose to portray themselves and should be corroborated or contextualized in the future by observational studies and studies with other stakeholders.

Another limitation of this study was the lack of preexisting and validated quantitative instruments measuring language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and language ideologies in ELTE. The survey was of my own design and, though piloted, had not previously been administered at scale or undergone a validation process. The use of a convergent mixed

methods design went some way towards corroborating the quantitative findings by comparing them with qualitative data. However, readers should consider the construct validity of the quantitative variables with some caution and form their own opinions as to how well they captured language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and prevalent ideologies.

Qualitatively, the sample was selected on a volunteer basis. While I attempted to ensure focus group representation of a wide variety of the characteristics and opinions observed in the overall population, volunteers were likely different from the population in ways that were difficult to account for (Cohen et al., 2018). For instance, teacher educators might have volunteered for the focus groups because they wished to advocate for certain practices or priorities and may have given greater thought to their language use practices and aims or held stronger beliefs on language than was typical for the population. The qualitative findings served to illuminate how language use practices and valued teacher capabilities related from the perspectives of the teacher educators sampled but did not comprehensively describe the views of that population as a whole.

Finally, lack of access to all 24 universities offering ELTE programs was a limitation. While the majority of teacher educators in Ecuadorian university-based ELTE were invited to participate (354 or 89% of the estimated total population), approximately 42 teacher educators did not have the opportunity to partake because I did not have authorization to administer the survey at their universities. While the included universities were very similar to the complete set of 24 universities in terms of the range of geographic locations, sizes, funding types, and program offerings, every university context is unique. It is possible that this study did not capture some teacher educator experiences found at the universities where I did not have access.

## **Chapter V: The Relationship Between Language Use Practices and Valued Capabilities**

This chapter presents the results of the quantitative component of this convergent mixed-methods study of English language teacher education (ELTE). The quantitative portion of this dissertation research employs survey data to respond to the research question: *How much do English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher educators use English, Spanish, or a multilingual approach when teaching content courses and what is the relationship of their language use practices with the teacher capabilities they most value (holding language ideologies and educator characteristics constant)?* The chapter begins with descriptive statistics and then reports results of the analysis using regression models. I then discuss what these results tell us about teacher educators' language use practices and their relationship with valued teacher capabilities, language ideologies, and teacher educator characteristics. I conclude with limitations of these quantitative findings and considerations for the integration of these results with qualitative data.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

One hundred and nineteen professors teaching content courses (those not dedicated to English learning) in undergraduate and graduate EFL teacher education programs at 21 Ecuadorian universities responded to the survey (response rate=34% [119/354]). Four responses were eliminated because they had been completed in under five minutes, suggesting lack of attention to the survey questions, for a total of 115 valid survey responses. 74% of respondents chose to respond to the English version of the survey and 26% chose the Spanish version.

### ***Teacher Educator Characteristics***

Table 6 presents a full summary of characteristics of the teacher educators who participated. The majority identified as female (63%), mestizo (77%) and Ecuadorian (90%),

**Table 6***Characteristics of Participating Teacher Educators (n = 115)*

Characteristic	Number	Percent
<i>Gender</i>		
Female	73	63%
Male	42	37%
<i>Race or ethnicity</i>		
Mestizo	89	77%
White	12	10%
Montubio	10	9%
Afro-Ecuadorian or Black	2	2%
Other	2	2%
<i>Origin</i>		
Ecuador	104	90%
Other	11	10%
<i>First language(s)</i>		
Spanish	102	89%
English	6	5%
Other	4	3%
Both Spanish and English	3	3%
<i>English proficiency</i>		
Academic (CEFR C2)	21	18%
Advanced (CEFR C1)	42	36%
High Intermediate (CEFR B2)	42	36%
Low Intermediate (CEFR B1) or below	10	9%
<i>Spanish proficiency</i>		
Academic (CEFR C2)	57	50%
Advanced (CEFR C1)	42	36%
High Intermediate (CEFR B2)	14	12%
Low Intermediate (CEFR B1) or below	2	2%
<i>Highest degree</i>		
Master's degree	85	74%
Doctoral degree	30	26%
<i>Years of teaching experience</i>		
30+ years	12	11%
20-29 years	59	51%
10-19 years	33	28%
<10 years	11	10%
<i>Type of university employer</i>		
Public	97	84%

Private	18	16%
<i>Level of program taught</i>		
Undergraduate only	76	66%
Both undergraduate and graduate	30	26%
Graduate only	9	8%
<i>Type of position at university</i>		
Full time	94	82%
Half time or less	21	18%
<i>Type of employment at university</i>		
Tenure	58	50%
Contract	57	50%
<i>Content courses taught (some teach various)</i>		
Core ELTE program courses		
Pedagogical methods	55	48%
Research methods	47	41%
Teaching practicum	41	36%
Linguistics	38	33%
Other courses		
Educational policy or philosophy	13	11%
Educational psychology	11	10%
Sociology or history of education	10	9%
Other	35	30%
At least one core ELTE program course	99	86%
Only other courses	16	14%

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*Note:* Montubio is an ethnicity identified with part of the Coast region of Ecuador.

with a first language of Spanish (89%). A few participants reported English (5%), both English and Spanish (3%), or another language (3%) as their first languages. Most described their English proficiency as high intermediate (36%), equivalent to B2 on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), or advanced (36%), equivalent to CEFR C1. Participants had an average of 20 years teaching experience and mainly taught at public (84%) universities and in undergraduate programs (with only 8% teaching exclusively at the graduate level). They mostly worked full time for their main university employer (82%), with half hired by contract and half holding tenure. They most often taught pedagogical methods, research methods, teaching

practicum, or linguistics, subjects in which almost all ELTE programs in Ecuador offer multiple courses. These can be described as core ELTE courses and 86% of participants taught at least one of them. The remaining 16% taught only foundational education subjects—such as educational policy or psychology—or other courses that may or may not be specific to the field of English teaching but are not found in all ELTE programs.

To limit the number of control variables in the regression analyses, I conducted initial statistical tests to determine which teacher educator characteristics appeared significantly related to any of the outcome variables. Educators' English level was significantly correlated to English use ( $r = 0.59, p < 0.001$ ), Spanish use ( $r = -0.58, p < 0.001$ ), and multilingual use ( $r = -0.29, p < 0.01$ ) and Spanish level was significantly correlated to English use ( $r = -0.21, p < 0.05$ ). *T*-tests comparing means for each language use outcome of those who chose to respond to the survey in Spanish to means of those who chose to respond in English indicated significant differences according to the language of response for all three language use outcomes (English use:  $t = 4.20, df = 113, p < 0.001$ ; Spanish use:  $t = 5.81, df = 113, p < 0.001$ ; multilingual use:  $t = 3.96, df = 113, p < 0.01$ ). *T*-tests also indicated significant differences in mean English use ( $t = 1.99, df = 113, p < 0.05$ ) and mean Spanish use ( $t = 2.91, df = 113, p < 0.01$ ) between those who taught any core ELTE content courses and those who only taught other courses. *T*-tests indicated significant differences in multilingual use between those who identified themselves as mestizo and those who self-identified with another race or ethnicity ( $t = 2.35, df = 113, p < 0.05$ ) and significant differences in English use between those teaching at universities in the Coast region and in the Highlands region ( $t = 1.83, df = 113, p < 0.05$ ). Non-mestizo participants most often identified as White or as Montubio, an ethnicity specific to part of the Coast region of Ecuador, and a chi

square test showed that race/ethnicity and region were significantly related ( $\chi^2 = 5.04$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $n = 115$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ); therefore, only race/ethnicity was included among the control variables.

### ***Language Use Practices***

The survey findings quantify English use, Spanish use, and multilingual use in the form of descriptive statistics on how much professors use and encourage their students to use the various languages at their disposal during content courses. On a scale where 1 represents ‘never’ using the language, 2 represents using it ‘a little’ (less than half of a typical class), 3 represents using it ‘some’ (approximately half of a typical class), 4 represents using it ‘a lot’ (more than half of a typical class), and 5 represents ‘always’ using it, mean use of English was 4.35, mean use of Spanish was 2.04, and mean use of a combination of English and Spanish was 2.09. Reported English use did not vary as widely among participants, with a standard deviation of just 0.84, compared to wider variation in Spanish ( $sd = 1.13$ ) and multilingual use practices ( $sd = 1.12$ ).

Responses suggest that some of the reported Spanish and multilingual use overlaps with reported English use, perhaps indicating primary but not exclusive use of English during some amount of class time—though it is also possible that some respondents simply were not attentive to the scale and the coherence of their responses across language use practices, or that desirability bias (Cohen et al., 2018) especially influenced reported English use. Considering the three language use indicators together, these data show that 23% of participants used only English and 43% primarily used English. 17% of participants reported a mainly multilingual approach with more English use than Spanish use and 7% reported a mainly multilingual approach with approximately the same amounts of English and Spanish use. Another 7% had a



mainly multilingual approach with more Spanish than English, and just 3% reported primarily using Spanish.

**Table 7**

*Teacher Educators' Language Use Reasons and Mean English, Spanish and Multilingual Use by Reasons, for All Participants (n = 115)*

Language Use Reason	Mean Language Use by Reasons		
	Language	Selected	Not Selected
Linguistic goals <i>Selected by 72%</i>	English Use	4.48** (0.67)	4.03** (1.13)
	Spanish Use	1.98 (1.07)	2.19 (1.29)
	Multilingual Use	2.02 (1.11)	2.28 (1.16)
Pedagogical goals <i>Selected by 66%</i>	English Use	4.34 (0.79)	4.38 (0.94)
	Spanish Use	2.05 (1.14)	2.02 (1.13)
	Multilingual Use	2.03 (1.04)	2.20 (1.28)
Policies or expectations <i>Selected by 39%</i>	English Use	4.56* (0.69)	4.22* (0.91)
	Spanish Use	1.83 (0.90)	2.17 (1.25)
	Multilingual Use	1.96 (1.13)	2.18 (1.12)
Student understanding <i>Selected by 34%</i>	English Use	3.94*** (1.06)	4.57*** (0.61)
	Spanish Use	2.49** (1.28)	1.81** (0.98)
	Multilingual Use	2.27 (1.00)	2.00 (1.18)
Student comfort <i>Selected by 30%</i>	English Use	4.14* (0.96)	4.44* (0.77)
	Spanish Use	2.09 (1.19)	2.02 (1.11)
	Multilingual Use	2.09 (1.11)	2.09 (1.14)
Clarity of expression <i>Selected by 18%</i>	English Use	4.05* (1.31)	4.42* (0.69)
	Spanish Use	2.29 (1.46)	1.98 (1.05)
	Multilingual Use	2.26 (1.18)	2.05 (1.11)
Credibility <i>Selected by 14%</i>	English Use	4.75* (0.41)	4.29* (0.88)
	Spanish Use	1.75 (0.87)	2.08 (1.17)
	Multilingual Use	2.16 (1.31)	2.08 (1.10)

*Note:* Participants selected up to three reasons for their language use choices. Language use is reported on a scale of 1 (never) to 5 (always). Standard deviations of mean language use appear in parentheses. Two-sample *t*-tests indicate that differences in mean language use between those who selected the reason and those who did not are significant at \* $p < 0.05$  \*\* $p < 0.01$ .

The survey asked respondents to select the three most important reasons for their language use choices. Table 7 presents these language use reasons and, for each: the percentage of respondents selecting the reason; the mean English, Spanish and multilingual use for those selecting it; and the statistical significance of any differences in average language use between those who did and those who did not select it, based on two-sample *t*-tests. Most teacher educators reported that wanting to help students meet linguistic and pedagogical goals drove their language use (72% and 66%, respectively), though other reasons motivated a minority (14% to 39%) of these professors. Teacher educators who were motivated by linguistic goals, policies or expectations, or professional credibility used more English on average than did the group overall. For each of these reasons, mean English use among educators who selected it as a primary motivation was significantly higher than mean English use of those who did not, *t*-tests showed (linguistic goals:  $t = 2.60$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; policies or expectations:  $t = 2.11$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ; credibility:  $t = 2.06$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

Conversely, educators motivated by ensuring student understanding, making students comfortable, or expressing themselves clearly used significantly *less* English on average than did the group overall—though these lower averages still suggested they used English during more than half of a typical class, more than they used Spanish or a multilingual approach. Again, *t*-tests showed that for each of these reasons, mean English use among educators who selected it as a primary motivation was significantly different from mean English use of those who did not (student understanding:  $t = 4.04$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; student comfort:  $t = 1.78$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ; clarity of expression:  $t = 1.85$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Those motivated by student understanding and clarity of expression also reported higher-than-average Spanish and multilingual use on average as compared to the group overall. However, differences in mean

Spanish and multilingual use by reason did not appear statistically significant, with the exception of a significant difference in Spanish use between those who were motivated by student understanding and those who were not ( $t = 3.15, df = 113, p = 0.001$ ).

Respondents also indicated which of four possible language use attitudes (based on Anderson and Lightfoot's [2021] adaptation of Macaro's [2001] codeswitching positions) they most agreed with: the virtual position, that Spanish can and should be excluded from ELTE; the maximal position, that Spanish is not helpful in ELTE but impossible to exclude entirely; the judicious position, that Spanish can be helpful but should be minimized; and the inclusive position, that Spanish is helpful and should be utilized. The majority held a judicious attitude (55%), with a notable minority taking the maximal position (24%) and the remainder on the extreme ends of the spectrum holding virtual (10%) or inclusive (11%) views.

Language use attitude appeared closely connected—though not equivalent—to reported use of each language. Table 8 presents teacher educators' mean language use grouped by the attitudes they reported, followed by results of one-way ANOVA and post hoc tests of the significance of differences between groups. Teacher educators holding all four attitudes had an average English use of 4 or higher (suggesting use during more than half of a typical class), with no significant variation between them. However, language use attitudes were associated with significant differences in teacher educators' Spanish use ( $F(3, 111) = 3.32, p < 0.05$ ) and multilingual use ( $F(3, 111) = 7.28, p < 0.001$ ). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey-Kramer test (chosen due to varied group sizes) at  $\alpha < 0.05$  indicated that educators with the inclusive attitude used significantly more Spanish ( $\bar{x} = 2.85, sd = 1.07$ ) than those with a virtual ( $\bar{x} = 1.55, sd = 0.91$ ) or maximal ( $\bar{x} = 1.86, sd = 1.03$ ) attitude. Educators with the inclusive attitude were

**Table 8***Teacher Educators' Mean English, Spanish and Multilingual Use by Attitude, for All**Participants (n = 115)*

	Virtual (n = 11)	Maximal (n = 28)	Judicious (n = 63)	Inclusive (n = 13)
Mean English Use ANOVA	4.86 (0.32)	4.29 (1.04)	4.37 (0.74)	4.00 (1.00)
		$F(3, 111) = 2.24$		
Mean Spanish Use ANOVA	1.55 (0.91)	1.86 (1.03)	2.04 (1.16)	2.85 (1.07)
		$F(3, 111) = 3.32^*$		
Tukey-Kramer post hoc Comparison: Virtual	-	1.12	1.94	4.08*
Comparison: Maximal	1.12	-	1.03	3.77*
Comparison: Judicious	1.94	1.03	-	3.40
Comparison: Inclusive	4.08*	3.77*	3.40	-
Mean Multilingual Use ANOVA	1.59 (0.94)	1.77 (0.99)	2.08 (1.04)	3.27 (1.23)
		$F(3, 111) = 7.28^{***}$		
Tukey-Kramer post hoc Comparison: Virtual	-	0.67	2.03	5.56***
Comparison: Maximal	0.67	-	1.86	6.07***
Comparison: Judicious	2.03	1.86	-	5.30**
Comparison: Inclusive	5.56***	6.07***	5.30**	-

*Note:* Language use is reported on a scale of 1 (never) to 5 (always). Standard deviations of mean language use appear in parentheses. One-way ANOVA with reported q-values of Tukey-Kramer post hoc tests indicate that differences in mean language use between groups are significant at \* $p < 0.05$  \*\* $p < 0.01$  \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

also the only attitude group with mean multilingual use close to 3 ( $\bar{x} = 3.27$ ,  $sd = 1.23$ ) suggesting use during approximately half of a typical class. That mean was significantly different from all the other attitude groups (virtual:  $\bar{x} = 1.59$ ,  $sd = 0.94$ ; maximal:  $\bar{x} = 1.77$ ,  $sd = 0.99$ ; judicious:  $\bar{x} = 2.08$ ,  $sd = 1.04$ ) at  $p < 0.01$ , a Tukey-Kramer post hoc test indicated—in fact, the differences between the virtual and maximal groups held true at  $p < 0.001$  as well. In other words, the finding of a positive relationship between multilingual use and holding the inclusive attitude was especially consistent.

### *Valued Teacher Capabilities*

Teacher educators broadly agreed that ELTE should ensure all of the specific and overarching teacher capabilities identified in the literature and mentioned in the survey (see Table 9). Rankings of those capabilities in order of importance helped to distinguish which outcomes Ecuadorian ELTE educators most highly valued. ELTE students' English proficiency appeared as the most valued capability when considering the percentage of participants who ranked a particular capability in first place, with 30% of teacher educators prioritizing language proficiency, followed by critical thinking (26%) and pedagogical skill and professional identity (17% each). Greater consensus appeared when considering the outcomes respondents ranked among the top three most important. In that case, English proficiency, critical thinking, and pedagogical skill were clearly the most highly valued specific teacher capabilities, with pedagogical skill being prioritized by more teacher educators (68%) than critical thinking (63%), English proficiency (61%), or professional identity (50%). Regarding overarching capabilities,

**Table 9**

*Teacher Educators' Valued Teacher Capabilities (n = 115)*

	Mean Agreement (1-5)	Percent Ranking First	Percent Ranking First, Second, or Third
<i>Specific capabilities</i>			
English proficiency	4.54 (0.96)	0.30	0.61
Critical thinking	4.65 (0.93)	0.26	0.63
Pedagogical skill	4.63 (0.93)	0.17	0.68
Professional identity	4.55 (0.91)	0.17	0.50
Theoretical knowledge	4.49 (0.93)	0.05	0.39
Research skill	4.30 (0.97)	0.04	0.18
<i>Overarching capabilities</i>			
Empowerment	4.65 (0.73)	0.48	
Accountability	4.45 (0.82)	0.43	
Prestige and income	4.08 (1.09)	0.09	

*Note:* Means represent level of agreement that EFL teacher education should ensure this capability, on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Standard deviations in parentheses.

**Table 10**

*Teacher Educators' Mean English, Spanish, and Multilingual Use by First-ranked Capability, for All Participants (n = 115)*

Teacher Capabilities	Mean Language Use by First-ranked Capability		
	Language	First-ranked	Not First-ranked
<i>Specific capabilities</i>			
English proficiency	English Use	4.38 (0.76)	4.34 (0.88)
	Spanish Use	2.11 (1.32)	2.01 (1.05)
	Multilingual Use	2.18 (1.20)	2.05 (1.09)
Critical thinking	English Use	4.30 (1.07)	4.37 (0.75)
	Spanish Use	2.05 (1.19)	2.03 (1.12)
	Multilingual Use	2.17 (1.16)	2.06 (1.12)
Pedagogical skill	English Use	4.52 (0.75)	4.31 (0.86)
	Spanish Use	1.60* (0.53)	2.13* (1.20)
	Multilingual Use	1.67* (0.81)	2.18* (1.16)
Professional identity	English Use	4.47 (0.51)	4.33 (0.89)
	Spanish Use	1.95 (0.74)	2.06 (1.20)
	Multilingual Use	2.16 (1.15)	2.08 (1.12)
Theoretical knowledge	English Use	3.92 (1.11)	4.38 (0.82)
	Spanish Use	3.25** (1.57)	1.97** (1.07)
	Multilingual Use	2.42 (1.56)	2.07 (1.10)
Research skill	English Use	3.80 (0.84)	4.38 (0.84)
	Spanish Use	2.10 (1.14)	2.04 (1.14)
	Multilingual Use	2.00 (0.79)	2.09 (1.14)
<i>Overarching Capabilities</i>			
Empowerment	English Use	4.24 (0.94)	4.46 (0.74)
	Spanish Use	2.19 (1.17)	1.90 (1.09)
	Multilingual Use	2.26 (1.16)	1.93 (1.07)
Accountability	English Use	4.41 (0.79)	4.31 (0.89)
	Spanish Use	1.97 (1.16)	2.09 (1.12)
	Multilingual Use	1.97 (1.13)	2.18 (1.12)
Prestige and income	English Use	4.70 (0.35)	4.32 (0.87)
	Spanish Use	1.55 (0.50)	2.08 (1.17)
	Multilingual Use	1.75 (0.79)	2.12 (1.15)

*Note:* Language use is reported on a scale of 1 (never) to 5 (always). Standard deviations in parentheses. Two-sample *t*-tests indicate differences in mean language use between those who ranked this capability first and those who did not are significant at \* $p < 0.05$  \*\* $p < 0.01$ .

almost all participants prioritized teacher empowerment (48%) or accountability to standards (43%) over prestige and income (9%), which elicited less consistent agreement than other options.

Given that participants generally agreed with all the teacher capabilities, variables based on rankings provided more information for analysis. Furthermore, which specific teacher capability a participant prioritized above all others provided more information than whether a capability was among their three most valued choices. I therefore constructed a binary categorical variable for each survey participant corresponding to each specific teacher capability and each overarching capability indicating whether it was ranked first.

Table 10 presents the mean use of English, Spanish, and a multilingual approach among teacher educators who prioritized each capability, as compared to those who did not prioritize it. Two-sample *t*-tests indicated that whether teacher educators first prioritized English proficiency, critical thinking, or professional identity—most of the highly-valued specific capabilities—did not appear to be significantly related to language use. Those who most highly valued pedagogical skill—the other often-prioritized specific capability—did appear to have significantly lower Spanish use ( $t = 1.93, df = 113, p < 0.05$ ) and multilingual use ( $t = 1.84, df = 113, p < 0.05$ ) compared to those for whom pedagogical skill was a lower priority. Ranking theoretical knowledge as the most important ELTE outcome—a rare opinion among participants—was significantly associated with greater Spanish use ( $t = 2.76, df = 113, p < 0.01$ ). Language use practices did not appear to vary significantly by the overarching capability educators most valued, though some non-significant differences could be observed.

## *Language Ideologies*

The three ideologies in question were operationalized through statements I wrote to represent each one, based on relevant literature. For each statement, participants were asked to indicate their personal level of agreement, as well as how much they agreed that most of their colleagues believe the statement, and how much they agreed that most of their students believe the statement. Table 11 presents these statements and mean agreement levels for each. The vast

**Table 11**

*Mean Agreement with Statements Representing Language Ideologies Based on Personal Beliefs, Perception of Colleagues' Beliefs and Perception of Students' Beliefs*

Ideology	Statement	Personal Agreement	Perception of Colleagues' Agreement	Perception of Students' Agreement
Linguistic imperialism	1) In spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use English only.	4.24 (0.91)	3.98 (0.95)	3.82 (1.11)
	2) The best methods and resources for English language teaching come from English-speaking countries.	3.07 (1.29)	3.33 (1.19)	3.69 (1.16)
Multilingualism	1) In spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use Spanish, or other languages participants know, as a resource.	2.97 (1.31)	3.04 (1.23)	3.22 (1.17)
	2) Knowing other languages, such as Spanish, is valuable to students and teachers of English.	4.26 (0.95)	3.89 (0.94)	3.74 (0.96)
Native-speakerism	1) Native speakers are the ideal model in English language teaching.	2.89 (1.21)	3.34 (1.19)	3.72 (1.22)
	2) The goal of learning English is to become as similar as possible to a native-speaker.	2.83 (1.29)	3.51 (1.24)	3.83 (1.14)

*Note:* Means represent level of agreement based on personal beliefs, perception of colleagues' beliefs and perception of students' beliefs, on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Standard deviations in parentheses.



majority of participants (83%) personally agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use English only,” an idea that theoretically exemplifies linguistic imperialism (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Zaidan, 2020).<sup>11</sup> However, only 37% agreed or strongly agreed with the second statement representing linguistic imperialism. Similarly, only 40% of participants agreed or strongly agreed that “in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use Spanish, or other languages participants know, as a resource,” which has been described as a key component of a multilingual ideological stance (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019)<sup>12</sup>, yet 84% agreed with the other statement representing multilingualism. These inconsistencies across statements theoretically indicating the same ideologies raised the possibility that mean values representing the prevalence of each ideology might be misleading. I therefore calculated ‘broad’ and ‘narrow’ versions of the prevalence variables for these two ideologies: the ‘broad’ variables took all the statements into consideration as originally intended, while the ‘narrow’ variables set aside the first statement for each ideology, which directly pertained to language use.

Mean values representing the prevalence of each language ideology were calculated based on level of agreement that the statements represented respondents’ personal beliefs, the majority of their colleagues’ beliefs, and the majority of their students’ beliefs (see Table 12). One-sample *t*-tests indicated the means for linguistic imperialism (broad:  $t = 10.51$ ; narrow:  $t = 4.07$ ), multilingualism (broad:  $t = 8.00$ , narrow:  $t = 13.34$ ), and native-speakerism ( $t = 4.31$ ) were

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<sup>11</sup> Specifically, Kumaravadivelu (2006) critiques imperialism, which marginalizes local knowledge and reifies the knowledge of colonial English-speaking countries, in the way “the knowledge and use of local language(s) were made irrelevant for learning and teaching English” (p. 12) and in “discouraging the use of mother tongue in TESOL education” (p. 22). Zaidan (2020) notes that exclusive use of English in the context of unequal access to English language proficiency and where speakers share another common language reinforces language hegemony.

<sup>12</sup> Specifically, Deroo and Ponzio (2019) draw on the work of García et al. (2017) to explain that multilingual ideology “question[s] the monolingual bias inherent in school-based language practices and position[s] students’ language practices as fundamental resources, rather than as deficits” (p. 216).

**Table 12***Prevalence of Language Ideologies and Correlation with English, Spanish and Multilingual Use*

	Mean Prevalence (1-5)	Correlations		
		English Use	Spanish Use	Multilingual Use
<i>Language ideologies</i>				
Linguistic imperialism (broad)	3.69 (0.70)	0.24*	-0.24*	-0.28**
Linguistic imperialism (narrow)	3.37 (0.96)	0.13	-0.12	-0.20*
Multilingualism (broad)	3.52 (0.70)	-0.22*	0.26**	0.24**
Multilingualism (narrow)	3.96 (0.77)	-0.06	0.07	0.09
Native-speakerism	3.36 (0.88)	0.04	0.00	-0.09

Note: \*  $p < 0.05$  \*\*  $p < 0.01$ . Standard deviations in parentheses. Broad operationalizations of Imperialism and Multilingualism include values for both statements representing these ideologies while the narrow operationalizations exclude the first statement for each ideology, which pertains to language use specifically.

all significantly higher than the neutral position of 3 ( $df = 113, p < 0.001$ ), which suggests that all three ideologies were at least somewhat prevalent. If considering the original broad operationalization of linguistic imperialism and multilingualism, linguistic imperialism was the most prevalent ideology, but if considering the narrow operationalization, multilingualism was the most prevalent. Unsurprisingly, broad linguistic imperialism was significantly positively correlated with English use ( $r = 0.24, p < 0.05$ ) and negatively correlated with Spanish ( $r = -0.24, p < 0.05$ ) and multilingual use ( $r = -0.28, p < 0.01$ ), while broad multilingualism was significantly negatively correlated with English use ( $r = -0.22, p < 0.05$ ) and positively correlated with Spanish ( $r = 0.24, p < 0.01$ ) and multilingual use ( $r = 0.24, p < 0.01$ ). However, with the alternative, narrow operationalization that left out statements related to language use, only linguistic imperialism retained a significant correlation, negatively associated with multilingual use ( $r = -0.20, p < 0.05$ ). Thus, how meaningful these ideologies are likely to be in explaining language use practices depends on whether we accept the conceptual premise that beliefs about the appropriateness or usefulness of languages within spaces related to language teaching are in fact indicative of language ideologies.

The preliminary analyses using correlation and *t*-tests that are mentioned in this section explored relationships between individual control or predictor variables and the outcome variables describing language use practices. Next, I used a series of regression models to examine whether English use, Spanish use, or multilingual use were significantly related to any valued teacher capabilities, language ideologies, and/or teacher educator characteristics, while holding all else constant.

### **Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results**

Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression describes how well a set of predictor and control variables explain variation in a continuous outcome variable (Whatley, 2022), such as the amount of language use represented here as a value between one and five. The predictor variables in the following analyses represented valued teacher capabilities and prevalent language ideologies, while the controls were teacher educator characteristics.

I used effect coding in this analysis to include all the teacher capabilities—six specific capabilities and three overarching capabilities—in the form of categorical variables (whether a capability was ranked first) in the regression analyses. Dummy coding would be a more typical approach to including categorical variables in regression models, but that approach requires researchers to select a category to leave out of the model as a reference group. Effect coding is an alternative that makes it possible to compare each possible value of a categorical variable to the group as a whole, rather than comparing it to one particular category, and to calculate coefficients and significance values for each (Mayhew & Simonoff, 2015).

The three language ideologies were included as continuous variables and I considered the two possible options for accounting for linguistic imperialism and multilingualism in separate models. Only the five control variables with a significant relationship to at least one of the

language use practices were included: English level (1-6), Spanish level (1-6), race or ethnicity (mestizo or non-mestizo), response language (English or Spanish), and course type (at least one core ELTE course, or only other courses).

Table 13 summarizes the regression models used, with A, B and C versions for the three outcome variables (English, Spanish, and multilingual use). I began by including only valued teacher capabilities as predictor variables (models 1A, 1B and 1C), as the relationship of language uses practices to valued teacher capabilities is the least explained in the literature. The

**Table 13**

*Ordinary Least Squares Regression Models for Analysis*

Model	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables (same for models A-C)
1A	English use	6 specific teacher capabilities, 3 overarching capabilities
1B	Spanish use	
1C	Multilingual use	
2A	English use	6 specific teacher capabilities, 3 overarching capabilities; linguistic imperialism (narrow), multilingualism (narrow), native-speakerism
2B	Spanish use	
2C	Multilingual use	
3A	English use	6 specific teacher capabilities, 3 overarching capabilities; linguistic imperialism (broad), multilingualism (broad), native-speakerism
3B	Spanish use	
3C	Multilingual use	
4A	English use	6 specific teacher capabilities, 3 overarching capabilities; linguistic imperialism (narrow), multilingualism (narrow), native-speakerism; English level, Spanish level, race/ethnicity, response language, course type
4B	Spanish use	
4C	Multilingual use	
5A	English use	6 specific teacher capabilities, 3 overarching capabilities; linguistic imperialism (broad), multilingualism (broad), native-speakerism; English level, Spanish level, race/ethnicity, response language, course type
5B	Spanish use	
5C	Multilingual use	

*Note:* The six specific teacher capabilities are: English proficiency, critical thinking, pedagogical skill, professional identity, theoretical knowledge, and research skill. The three overarching capabilities are: empowerment, accountability, prestige and income.

next models added language ideologies—which I conceptualized as both directly influencing language use and setting the context for the relationship between language use and valued capabilities—as predictors in addition to valued capabilities. First, I took the more cautious approach of using the narrow linguistic imperialism and multilingualism variables, calculated excluding statements pertaining to language use (models 2A, 2B, and 2C). Next, I instead used the broad linguistic imperialism and multilingualism variables, which included statements pertaining to language use (models 3A, 3B, and 3C). The final models added control variables representing teacher educator characteristics, in addition to the valued capabilities and ideologies. To consider both possible approaches to the ideologies, models 4A, 4B and 4C use the narrow linguistic imperialism and multilingualism variables, while models 5A, 5B and 5C use the broad linguistic imperialism and multilingualism variables.

Table 14 summarizes the results for English use. No specific teacher capabilities had significant relationships to English use. Valuing empowerment above other overarching capabilities was significantly negatively associated with English use (4A:  $\beta = -0.27, p < 0.05$ ) in four of the five models (all but 3A). Linguistic imperialism was associated positively with English use only when broadly operationalized (5A:  $\beta = 0.33, p < 0.05$ ). Across models, educators' English level had a significant positive relationship to their English use (4A:  $\beta = 0.39; p < 0.001$ ).

Unlike with English use, some specific teacher capabilities were significant predictors of Spanish use (see Table 15). Theoretical knowledge was consistently positively associated with use of Spanish (4B:  $\beta = 0.94, p < 0.05$ ), while pedagogical skill was significantly negatively associated with Spanish use when ideologies were defined broadly (5B:  $\beta = -0.41, p < 0.05$ ) and in all models but 4B. Valuing empowerment above other overarching capabilities was positively

**Table 14**

*Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results Depicting the Relationship Between English Use and Valued Capabilities, Ideologies and Participant Characteristics*

	Model 1A	Model 2A	Model 3A	Model 4A	Model 5A
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.028	0.042	0.125	0.367	0.406
<i>Valued Capabilities</i>					
English proficiency	0.211	0.250	0.139	0.253	0.199
Critical thinking	0.147	0.099	0.095	0.016	0.005
Pedagogical skill	0.330	0.331	0.335	0.130	0.131
Professional identity	0.259	0.288	0.278	0.111	0.120
Theoretical knowledge	-0.446	-0.480	-0.429	-0.192	-0.169
Research skill	-0.502	-0.488	-0.419	-0.318	-0.287
Empowerment	-0.284*	-0.270*	-0.194	-0.273*	-0.217*
Accountability	-0.056	-0.072	-0.113	0.014	-0.020
Prestige and income	0.340	0.342	0.307	0.259	0.237
<i>Ideologies</i>					
Linguistic imperialism	-	0.238	0.430*	0.113	0.335*
Native-speakerism	-	-0.168	-0.187	-0.059	-0.139
Multilingualism	-	-0.072	-0.280*	-0.000	-0.113
<i>Educator characteristics</i>					
English level	-	-	-	0.389***	0.368***
Spanish level	-	-	-	0.150	0.166
Race or ethnicity	-	-	-	0.087	0.107
Response Language	-	-	-	-0.249	-0.203
Course type	-	-	-	0.151	0.136

*Note:* Model 1 includes only valued capabilities. Model 2 includes valued capabilities plus ‘narrow’ ideologies (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated excluding statements pertaining to language use). Model 3 includes valued capabilities plus ‘broad’ ideologies (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated including outlier statements pertaining to language use). Model 4 is the same as Model 2, plus control variables (English level, Spanish level, race/ethnicity, response language, course type). Model 5 is the same as Model 3, plus the same control variables. \* $p < 0.05$  \*\* $p < 0.01$  \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

associated with Spanish use (4B:  $\beta = 0.33$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) in all but model 3B, mirroring the negative association of English with empowerment. In the case of Spanish use, both the ideologies of linguistic imperialism (5B:  $\beta = -0.41$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and of multilingualism (5B:  $\beta = 0.29$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ) were predictive of Spanish use when broadly defined, but not otherwise. Finally, educators’ English level also had a negative relationship to their Spanish use (4B:  $\beta = -0.47$ ,  $p < 0.001$ );

**Table 15**

*Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results Depicting the Relationship Between Spanish Use and Valued Capabilities, Ideologies and Participant Characteristics*

	Model 1B	Model 2B	Model 3B	Model 4B	Model 5B
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.082	0.103	0.240	0.439	0.499
<i>Valued Capabilities</i>					
English proficiency	-0.148	-0.211	-0.032	-0.199	-0.010
Critical thinking	-0.243	-0.189	-0.185	-0.012	-0.018
Pedagogical skill	-0.632*	-0.640**	-0.658**	-0.376	-0.415*
Professional identity	-0.258	-0.297	-0.289	-0.019	-0.053
Theoretical knowledge	1.262**	1.317**	1.250**	0.942**	0.954**
Research skill	0.020	0.020	-0.086	-0.336	-0.369
Empowerment	0.405*	0.390*	0.275	0.333*	0.262*
Accountability	0.105	0.118	0.187	-0.016	0.043
Prestige and income	-0.511*	-0.508*	-0.462*	-0.317	-0.305
<i>Ideologies</i>					
Linguistic imperialism	-	-0.336	-0.650**	-0.117	-0.414*
Native-speakerism	-	0.280	0.321	0.094	0.193
Multilingualism	-	0.116	0.494**	0.003	0.286*
<i>Educator characteristics</i>					
English level	-	-	-	-0.472***	-0.423***
Spanish level	-	-	-	0.100	0.079
Race or ethnicity	-	-	-	0.153	0.115
Response language	-	-	-	0.672**	0.620**
Course type	-	-	-	-0.373	-0.294

*Note:* Model 1 includes only valued capabilities. Model 2 includes valued capabilities plus ‘narrow’ ideologies (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated excluding statements pertaining to language use). Model 3 includes valued capabilities plus ‘broad’ ideologies A (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated including outlier statements pertaining to language use). Model 4 is the same as Model 2, plus control variables (English level, Spanish level, race/ethnicity, response language, course type). Model 5 is the same as Model 3, plus the same control variables. \* $p < 0.05$  \*\* $p < 0.01$  \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

furthermore, participants’ choice of the Spanish version of the survey had a significant positive relationship with Spanish use (4A:  $\beta = 0.67, p < 0.01$ ).

Fewer variables were predictive of multilingual use (see Table 16). Neither specific teacher capabilities nor overarching capabilities, like empowerment, appeared to significantly predict multilingual use. (Though pedagogical skill did have a significant negative relationship to multilingual use in one model [3C:  $\beta = -0.47, p < 0.05$ ].) As with English and Spanish,

**Table 16**

*Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results Depicting the Relationship Between Multilingual Use and Valued Capabilities, Ideologies and Participant Characteristics*

	Model 1C	Model 2C	Model 3C	Model 4C	Model 5C
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.000	0.030	0.139	0.151	0.221
<i>Valued capabilities</i>					
English proficiency	0.025	-0.004	0.157	-0.122	0.004
Critical thinking	-0.017	0.069	0.076	0.195	0.184
Pedagogical skill	-0.469	-0.467	-0.474*	-0.386	0.417
Professional identity	0.040	-0.020	-0.001	0.175	0.161
Theoretical knowledge	0.441	0.487	0.414	0.344	0.325
Research skill	-0.021	-0.066	-0.172	-0.206	-0.258
Empowerment	0.303	0.278	0.168	0.245	0.165
Accountability	-0.020	0.031	0.089	-0.025	0.031
Prestige and income	-0.283	-0.310	-0.256	-0.220	-0.196
<i>Ideologies</i>					
Linguistic imperialism	-	-0.329	-0.619**	-0.216	-0.468*
Native-speakerism	-	0.	0.180	0.043	0.100
Multilingualism	-	0.145	0.447**	0.101	0.357*
<i>Educator characteristics</i>					
English level	-	-	-	-0.185	-0.147
Spanish level	-	-	-	0.028	0.020
Race or ethnicity	-	-	-	0.535*	0.505
Response language	-	-	-	0.570*	0.503*
Course type	-	-	-	-0.036	0.006

*Note:* Model 1 includes only valued capabilities. Model 2 includes valued capabilities plus ‘narrow’ ideologies (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated excluding statements pertaining to language use). Model 3 includes valued capabilities plus ‘broad’ ideologies A (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated including outlier statements pertaining to language use). Model 4 is the same as Model 2, plus control variables (English level, Spanish level, race/ethnicity, response language, course type). Model 5 is the same as Model 3, plus the same control variables. \* $p < 0.05$  \*\* $p < 0.01$  \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

ideologies were significantly associated with multilingual use only in their broad definitions (5C:

imperialism  $\beta = -0.47$ , multilingualism  $\beta = 0.36$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). Teacher educators’ own English

proficiency did not appear significant, but participants’ choice of the Spanish version of the

survey had a significant positive relationship to multilingual use (4C:  $\beta = 0.57$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).



Finally, non-mestizos seemed to have higher multilingual use that just reached significance in one model (4C:  $\beta = 0.53, p = 0.049$ ).

The specific teacher capabilities of highly valuing English proficiency, critical thinking, professional identity, or research skill were not significantly related to language use practices in any model. The language ideology of native-speakerism was not significant in any model, either.

## **Discussion**

### ***Teacher Educators' Language Use in Ecuadorian ELTE***

This study's quantitative findings suggested that English predominates in Ecuadorian university-based ELTE. Most teacher educators indicated they use and encourage their students to use English during more than half of a typical non-linguistic content class and incorporate Spanish or a combination of English and Spanish minimally. While almost a quarter reported always using English, a strictly English-only approach was not the norm. The primary use of English in ELTE content courses is consistent with discussions of language use in Latin American ELTE (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Barahona & Darwin, 2021) and some specific Ecuadorian ELTE programs (Abad et al., 2019; Argudo et al., 2018; Orosz, 2018), but has not been previously documented through quantitative study of language use practices in ELTE at a national scale. The finding that ELTE educators mostly use English but rarely enact a strictly English-only approach is also consistent with survey data from the English teaching field more generally (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Hall & Cook, 2013).

However, multilingual language use in Ecuadorian university-based ELTE seems to go beyond the occasional incorporation of small amounts of Spanish within a primarily English-language approach. Setting aside the small minority of ELTE educators who work *primarily* in Spanish, almost a quarter of participants reported using a multilingual approach during at least

half of a typical content course, a finding that somewhat contradicts the idea that integrating own language is “taboo” in Latin American ELTE (Barahona, 2020, p. 6), at least as practiced in Ecuador. Professors varied quite a bit in how much they reported incorporating Spanish, on its own or in combination with English, but most often educators with a multilingual approach indicated they use and encourage students to use more English than Spanish.<sup>13</sup>

Only 10% of ELTE professors reported teaching primarily in Spanish or with a combination of languages in which Spanish predominates. Use of Spanish as the primary language of instruction likely occurs in foundational classes that are not unique to the English teaching major and core ELTE courses from a small number of universities whose program curricula do not designate the language of instruction for content courses, as undergraduate ELTE programs in Ecuador must comply with national education degree requirements but do not have consistent language of instruction policies (Cajas et al., 2023).

Most teacher educators were motivated in their language use by a desire to support students’ reaching pedagogical goals but did not seem to agree on how much English or Spanish best supports those goals. This finding may reflect differences in their beliefs and priorities or diversity in their teaching contexts. However, professors did seem to use language differently according to the reasons that motivated their language use. Concern for professional credibility was an important driver of English use, even more so than policies and expectations, though those expectations might suppress multilingual use in a way that concern for credibility does not. The fact that less than 40% of respondents indicated that policies or expectations were a primary (one of up to three) reason for their language use choices suggests that most professors either are

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<sup>13</sup> As described in Chapter 3, I use the term *multilingual*, rather than other common terms like *translanguaging* or *plurilingual*, to refer generally to the use of multiple named languages, without assuming any specific ideological stance or a dynamic interplay among those languages.

not subject to firm language policies or are subject to policies that align with their more pressing motivations.

The reason that best explained differences in teacher educators' language use was desire to promote student understanding. This resonates with survey data from one Ecuadorian ELTE program indicating that many undergraduate students did not understand much of their content classes when they were taught in English (Argudo et al., 2018). It also matches the observation that students' language level is a challenge for English medium instruction in Latin American ELTE (Abad et al., 2019; Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Morales et al., 2020). However, only about a third of teacher educators considered student understanding a primary motivator in their language use choices. This finding does not necessarily imply that most professors are indifferent to whether students understand the content in English; it is possible that they had not observed problems with student understanding in their classes, or that they considered student comprehension to be an implicit concern in saying that their choices were driven by linguistic or pedagogical goals.

Given that educators' language use practices do not necessarily align with what they believe is optimal, it is interesting to also consider respondents' attitudes toward language use in ELTE. Here, the finding that most teacher educators took a judicious view on including own language in EFL teacher education is consistent with the finding that most of the same educators tended to incorporate a small amount of Spanish in their instruction. It is noteworthy that the small minority of educators with the inclusive attitude that Spanish is a valuable resource that should be used in ELTE were very likely to approach language quite differently in their content courses than educators who had other attitudes towards language use.

This discussion has described how much EFL teacher educators reported using English, Spanish, or a multilingual approach when teaching content courses. Additionally, their reasons and attitudes offer some initial insight into what may drive language use practices within university-based ELTE. The conceptual premise of this study is that language use is linked to the teacher capabilities that educators value, in the context of language ideologies that permeate their teaching contexts. In the next subsections, I discuss whether these factors, or teacher educator characteristics, were in fact associated with reported English, Spanish, or multilingual use.

### *Linking Language Use Practices with Valued Teacher Capabilities*

Valued teacher capabilities partially explain how much ELTE educators use English and Spanish but do not explain the amount of multilingual use they report. Educators' prioritization of overarching teacher capabilities was consistently associated with both their English and Spanish use, while specific teacher capabilities were also relevant to Spanish use.

**Empowerment.** One of the more consistent findings of the regression analyses in this study was that language use was linked to prioritizing the overarching teacher capability of being empowered to differentiate instruction according to context. Educators who most highly valued empowerment used less English and more Spanish than the group as a whole. The coefficients were not especially large—these educators still tended to use English during most of a typical class, as did the group as a whole—but gained statistical significance when educator characteristics, such as English level, were held constant. It could be that some teacher educators are more open to incorporating Spanish in ELTE along with English because they feel it helps them equip students to be decision-makers and knowledge producers and they prioritize empowering future teachers in this way. It is also possible that these educators teach in circumstances they feel necessitate a less purist approach to English-medium instruction. Perhaps

many schools in their area lack well-trained EFL teachers, meaning that students enter the ELTE program with low proficiency and exit into schools where their own students are not used to being taught in English. Teacher educators in such contexts might therefore tend to highly value being empowered to differentiate their instruction in this way.

The apparent significance of valuing empowerment as a predictor of language use practices may reflect the fact that these educators did *not* prioritize teachers being accountable to standards for language competency and pedagogy. (Nor did they select the third possible option of providing teachers and universities with prestige and increased income or revenue, which likely implies greater use of English—the more prestigious language in this context—and appeared negatively associated with Spanish use in the earlier models.) The explanation that those who value empowerment are farther from an English-only approach because they do not prioritize accountability would align with the thinking of authors like González Moncada (2021) and Sierra Ospina (2016), who link prioritizing accountability to standards with the hyper-focus on language proficiency often found in EFL policy and teacher training.

**Theoretical Knowledge.** No specific teacher capabilities predicted teacher educators' English or multilingual use, but they did explain some amount of Spanish use in ELTE content courses. Prioritizing future teachers' theoretical knowledge was associated with an increase in Spanish use of almost one full point on the one-to-five scale as compared to the group as a whole—the largest predicted change in language use associated with any teacher capability in this study. It seems logical that professors who teach more theoretical subjects (as opposed to EFL teaching methods, for instance) would tend to both use more Spanish and value theoretical knowledge. In this study, professors who taught educational psychology, linguistics, and 'other' courses were the most likely to rank theoretical knowledge as the most important specific teacher

capability. Some courses of these types are in fact planned for Spanish-medium instruction in the curricula of some programs (Cajas et al., 2023). Therefore, the explanatory power of theoretical knowledge as a valued capability can probably be attributed to differences in what professors teach, a situation that could not be fully accounted for in this study's control variables.

**Pedagogical Skill.** Prioritizing the development of future teachers' pedagogical skill was associated with quite large differences in Spanish use (and some multilingual use) before controlling for teacher educator characteristics and was sometimes significant to Spanish use when characteristics were accounted for, depending on the model (that is, depending on how language ideologies were defined). When ideologies as defined more broadly were held constant, prioritizing pedagogical skill was associated with a 0.4-point decrease in Spanish use on the five-point scale as compared to the group overall, though it was not associated with any significant differences in English use.

This result implies that educators who prioritize pedagogical skill tend to adhere more closely to an English-only approach. From a certain perspective, that may be surprising. Pedagogical skill is complex and time-consuming to develop, so teacher educators might be expected to employ some Spanish or a combination of Spanish and English to facilitate that process. On the other hand, professors who are especially concerned with pedagogical methods may be especially conscious of demonstrating methods they consider to be ideal through their own teaching practices. When holding constant beliefs on what type of language use is best in spaces related to English teaching, it would be logical to see educators who believe English is best and believe future teachers' pedagogical skill is crucial to avoid Spanish more than those who also believe English is best but are less concerned with students picking up their pedagogical habits. The apparent negative relationship between pedagogical skill as a valued

capability and Spanish use is evocative of the ‘Content, Language and Method Integrated Teacher Training (CLMITT)’ approach that Orosz (2018) coined to describe her teaching of pedagogy in one Ecuadorian ELTE program.

**English Proficiency.** Surprisingly, whether teacher educators prioritized English language proficiency above other specific teacher capabilities appeared to have no relationship to their language use practices. This finding might be due to lack of consensus among ELTE professors on whether English-only, ‘judicious’ or ‘inclusive’ (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021) multilingual practices best support English language learning.

To better understand how teacher educators’ valued teacher capabilities relate to their language use practices, it might be useful to consider whether certain valued capabilities have significant links with language ideologies. The idea that language ideologies could affect the relationship between valued capability and practice is consistent with the conceptual framework I use in this dissertation. Linguistic imperialism (in the broader definition) did appear to vary significantly in prevalence between groups who valued different overarching capabilities ( $F(2, 112) = 4.19, p < 0.05$ ). However, further exploration of the relationship between valued teacher capabilities and languages ideologies was beyond the scope of this study. I instead focused on how each of these concepts was associated with language use practices.

### ***The Role of Language Ideologies in Language Use Practices***

Are teacher educators’ language use practices linked to the language ideologies that they and their colleagues and students ascribe to? The answer depends on whether we consider beliefs about the value and appropriateness of language in spaces related to English language teaching to be an inherent part of these language ideologies. Prior literature theoretically links linguistic imperialism with a monolingual, English-only ideal and multilingualism to including use of

students' own languages (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Zaidan, 2020). Unsurprisingly, this study found that both ideologies *were* associated with teacher educators' language use when the ideologies were measured partly by statements related to language in the ELT field. However, asking whether ideologies are linked to language use while defining the ideologies in this way presupposes the answer to some extent. In other words, defining an ideology in terms of preferring a particular language and then associating this ideology with language use applies a circular logic that does not extend understanding of how ideology informs teacher educators' choices about language use in their classrooms.

Setting aside beliefs about the value and appropriateness of Spanish and other languages in spaces related to English language teaching, are language ideologies nonetheless related to language use? Probably not, based on the findings of this study. This result is important to consider, given that participants' opinions on the two statements for each ideology—one specific to language use beliefs and one representing another aspect of the ideology—often diverged. For instance, most participants agreed that “knowing other languages, such as Spanish, was valuable to students and teachers of English” but did not agree that “it is best to use Spanish, or other languages participants know, as a resource.” These inconsistencies may point to the complex ambivalence that Deroo and Ponzio (2019) and others have observed where teachers espouse or earnestly hold beliefs about the value of multilingualism while also embodying entrenched monolingual beliefs in their classroom practices. This survey data supports the idea that abstract beliefs about language and specific beliefs about language practice can be quite divergent, which has been implied by studies on teaching ELTE students about translanguaging (Robinson et al., 2020; Tian, 2020). It might therefore be more useful to differentiate conceptually between these aspects of language ideology.



Nonetheless, the idea that beliefs about language use are part of linguistic imperialism and multilingualism can be justified conceptually based on relevant literature, as discussed above. In fact, as indicated in this study's conceptual framework linking language use, valued teacher capabilities, and ideologies, I expected to find a connection between ideology and language use practices and my intent was to examine how important that link might be relative to a potential link between language use and valued capabilities. Focusing on the analyses that do suppose ideology and language use are intertwined, it is possible to see how relevant these ideologies (as measured with the broader approach) were to English, Spanish, and multilingual use when other factors were also accounted for.

**Linguistic Imperialism.** In its broad operationalization, linguistic imperialism consistently predicted teacher educators' language use. Where both imperialism and language use were represented on a five-point scale, an additional point indicating greater prevalence of linguistic imperialism was associated with using about 0.3 more English, 0.4 less Spanish, and 0.5 less multilingual use, as compared to the group as a whole. Linguistic imperialism together with multilingualism, in their broad operationalizations, could explain differences in how much professors used a multilingual approach where valued teacher capabilities could not. It could be interpreted that what teacher educators believe about the inherent value of English influences their language use practices (specifically regarding English and multilingual use) more than ideas about what they hope to accomplish through their instruction. That interpretation is only supported by the broader definition of linguistic imperialism, it should be noted.

**Multilingualism.** Multilingualism in its broad operationalization consistently predicted how much Spanish and multilingual use professors reported, though it was not relevant to English use when controlling for teacher educator characteristics. An additional point indicating

greater prevalence of multilingualism in comparison to the group overall was associated with about 0.3 more Spanish and multilingual use. In the case of multilingual use (where no valued capabilities were significant predictors), it could be that teacher educators with greater use than the group as a whole do not tend to have different priorities than other educators, but rather, they are more likely to believe that Spanish is a valuable resource for fostering whatever teacher capabilities they prioritize.

**Native-speakerism.** This discussion has not yet mentioned native-speakerism because no significant relationships to language use practices appeared in this study. Native-speakerism is likely to impact teacher educators who are perceived as ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ speakers of English differently. It is possible that differences related to native-speakerism were not observable in this data set given that only 5% of this study’s participants (six of 115 participants) reported English as their first language (with another 3% reporting both English and Spanish as first languages).

### *The Role of Teacher Educator Characteristics in Language Use Practices*

This study included teacher educator characteristics to hold those factors constant when examining the role of valued teacher capabilities and ideologies in language use practices. However, some of those characteristics appeared significant themselves.

**Teacher Educators’ English Level.** Teacher educators’ language use practices were strongly related to their own (self-reported) English proficiency. This was one of the most consistent findings of this study and had the lowest *p*-values across models for English and Spanish use. Each level of additional English proficiency (for instance, an advanced or C1 level on the Common European Framework of Reference, rather than a high intermediate or B2 level)

was associated with an almost 0.4-point increase in English use and a close to 0.5-point decrease in Spanish use on the five-point scale.

Notably, this difference was not only attributable to the minority of ELTE professors (9%) who have a low intermediate (CEFR B1) or lower level of English and likely taught Spanish-medium instruction courses. Professors with a high intermediate (CEFR B2) level used significantly less English ( $t = 4.69, df = 103, p < 0.001$ ) and more Spanish ( $t = 4.08, df = 103, p < 0.001$ ) and a combination of languages ( $t = 2.76, df = 103, p < 0.01$ ) than those with an advanced (CEFR C1) or academic (CEFR C2) English level (see Table 17)—though both groups still used English during more than half of a typical class on the whole. This is important given that more than a third (36%) of ELTE educators reported having a high intermediate (B2) English level. This finding suggests that some educators may incorporate more Spanish into their English-medium instruction because they themselves—and not only or not necessarily their students—can better address the nuances of some topics or situations in their own language. Teacher educators’ English level was not significantly associated with their multilingual use when holding all else constant, despite significant differences in amount of multilingual use. It could be that the variation in multilingual use is better explained by choice of survey language.

**Table 17**

*Mean English Use, Spanish Use and Multilingual Use by Teacher Educators’ English Level, for Participants with High Intermediate, Advanced, or Academic English (n = 105)*

	High Intermediate (CEFR B2) (n = 42)	Advanced or Academic (CEFR C1 or C2) (n = 63)
English Use	4.14** (0.80)	4.71** (0.45)
Spanish Use	2.28** (1.13)	1.57** (0.66)
Multilingual Use	2.34* (1.19)	1.76* (0.97)

*Note:* Standard deviations in parentheses. Two-sample *t*-tests indicate that differences in mean language use between the two groups are significant at \* $p < 0.01$  and \*\* $p < 0.001$ .

**Survey Response Language.** Choosing to participate in Spanish was associated with an approximately 0.6-point increase in classroom Spanish use and an approximately 0.5-point increase in classroom multilingual use on the five-point scale, compared to the group overall. Participants' selection of the Spanish version of the survey was correlated with their English level ( $r = -0.41, p < 0.001$ ) but seemed to reflect more than just language ability.<sup>14</sup> When first-language Spanish-speaking professors in Ecuador have the option to fill out a survey about ELTE in Spanish or English and opt for the English version, their sense of professional identity, beliefs about the appropriateness of languages within ELTE contexts, and desire to practice English may all come into play. These factors likely also have some bearing on their language use in content classes and might explain why this control variable had explanatory power in the model for multilingual use in particular (given that multilingual use implies the ability to employ either language but the choice to use more than one).

**Race or Ethnicity.** Non-mestizos seemed more likely to use a multilingual approach than the group overall when ideologies were measured without including statements about language use in spaces related to English teaching. The non-mestizo group was diverse, including participants who identified as White, Montubio (an ethnic group from part of the Ecuadorian Coast region), Afro-Ecuadorian or Black, Asian, and 'other.' Due to geographic differences in demographic composition, non-mestizo participants were more likely to teach at some specific universities. Rather than capturing a meaningful relationship between race or ethnicity and language use, this finding probably indicated university-specific effects on multilingual use.

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<sup>14</sup> As a reminder, only 26% of respondents chose the Spanish version of the survey even though Spanish was the first language of 89%.

## **Limitations**

One limitation of the quantitative portion of this study was the difficulty of controlling for specific teaching circumstances that almost definitely impact teacher educators' language use. Specific characteristics and policies of each university could not be accounted for in a study of this scale, especially given that the data set included one to 14 responses from 21 different universities. Another teaching circumstance that very likely impacts language use but was not held constant in this study is the English proficiency level of the students in teachers' classrooms. In undergraduate programs, which typically include English language learning classes during early semesters (Abad et al., 2019; Cajas et al., 2023), the typical English level of students could be operationalized by asking in which semester professors teach, which this survey neglected to do. However, teacher educators most likely teach and have taught various courses across various semesters, impeding precise categorization. The control for course type in this study suffered from a similar lack of precision because many professors taught more than one type of course.

Additional and perhaps more important limitations of these findings derive from the fact that the survey, though piloted with a small number of teacher educators, had not previously been used at scale and checked for the validity and reliability of its constructs. The main issue that appeared upon applying the survey in this study was that the pairs of statements representing language ideologies did not appear to consistently measure the same constructs. I am not aware of any previous studies that have attempted to measure the prevalence of ideologies of linguistic imperialism, native-speakerism, or multilingualism through survey data and future empirical and quantitative study of these concepts, which have been written about extensively on a theoretical level and in analyzing qualitative data, would be a valuable contribution to the field.

Secondly, the survey questions measuring language use practices seem to have left some room for ambiguity that might have affected the results on multilingual use especially. Not all participants reported their English, Spanish, and multilingual use according to the scale (which has anchors quantifying language use as occurring during none, less than half, about half, more than half, or all of a typical class) in a way that logically added up to the entirety of a typical class. It seemed that some considered each language use response to indicate a discrete amount of class time (as I intended), while others used the scales such that time using English, Spanish or a combination of the two overlaps. If participants understood the scales as potentially overlapping, then multilingual use might have been reported as time on both the English and Spanish scales, as time on the multilingual scale, or as a combination of all three. The regression models in this study explained variation in the amount of educators' multilingual use (highest  $R^2 = 0.22$ ) only about half as well as they explained variation in English use (highest  $R^2 = 0.41$ ) and Spanish use (highest  $R^2 = 0.50$ ). This comparatively low explanatory power could be because multilingual use is contingent on other factors not considered in the regression models, such as holding the inclusive attitude towards own language in ELTE. But, it could also be due to ambiguity in the survey construction that impacted reported multilingual use in particular.

## **Conclusion**

The quantitative component of this mixed-methods study provides generalizable empirical evidence on the language use practices of teacher educators in Ecuadorian university-based EFL teacher education. To my knowledge, it is the first quantitative study of ELTE educators' language use and generally confirms what is suggested in the literature about language use in Latin American ELTE and in English teaching more broadly. The findings showed that English predominates, but a strictly English-only approach is not the norm.

Furthermore, a notable minority uses a multilingual approach that is consistently associated with the inclusive attitude that Spanish is helpful and should be utilized in ELTE.

This quantitative analysis also explored whether and how variation in educators' language use practices could be linked to how they prioritized various teacher capabilities, or to how prevalent they perceived ideologies of linguistic imperialism, native-speakerism, and multilingualism to be in their contexts. The teacher capabilities that teacher educators most highly valued *did* have a significant relationship to language use, but not always in the way I expected. Most surprisingly, prioritizing English proficiency did not significantly explain how much English or Spanish educators used. This might be because, even though top priorities vary, educators broadly agree about which outcomes are important (though they do not always agree on how own language supports those outcomes). However, it is interesting that a fairly intangible difference in stance on the most valuable overarching capabilities—valuing empowerment over accountability—might have some real practical implications in terms of language use. The findings are inconclusive regarding ideologies of linguistic imperialism and multilingualism, which may be importantly influential, or not significant at all, depending on how we conceptualize beliefs about languages and their value. What is certain is that the English proficiency levels of teacher educators themselves play an important role in how they approach language use when teaching ELTE content courses.

The limitations and ambiguities of these findings point to the importance of also examining how teacher educators themselves connect language and their instructional aims, in light of their beliefs and experiences and with their specific teaching contexts. That is the goal of the qualitative component of this dissertation, the findings of which are presented in the next chapters.

## **Chapter VI: Understanding Language Use Practices and Valued Capabilities**

The qualitative component of this convergent mixed-methods study on English language teacher education (ELTE) employed focus group data to respond to the research question: *How do English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teacher educators understand the relationship between their language use practices and the teacher capabilities they most value?* Rather than answering that research question immediately, this chapter uses the focus group data to describe, separately, teacher educators' teaching circumstances, language use practices, and valued teacher capabilities. Seeing what constitutes teacher educators' language use practices and valued teacher capabilities in their own words and in their contexts makes it possible to subsequently understand how they connect. Thus, this chapter describes the key elements of the qualitative research question, prior to directly addressing that question in Chapter 7. This chapter concludes with a brief discussion of the findings presented here and their limitations.

### **Teacher Educator Characteristics and Teaching Circumstances**

Teacher educator characteristics include demographic information about the educators themselves and information about their teaching circumstances. Because the focus group participants were a subset of the teacher educators who took part in the survey that I used to collect quantitative data, demographic information on these participants was available from the survey. Here, I briefly overview that information but focus mainly on findings from the focus group conversations that pertain to teacher educators' teaching circumstances.

Thirty-seven teacher educators from 18 universities participated in focus group interviews. Nine participants reported using only English, 11 primarily English, 10 a multilingual approach with more English than Spanish, five a balanced multilingual approach, and two primarily Spanish. Demographically, they were similar to the larger sample of quantitative



participants. Twenty-two identified as female and 15 as male; 27 identified as Mestizo, with the remainder identifying as Montubio (five), White (three), Afro-Ecuadorian (one), or other (one). Thirty-two were Ecuadorian with a first language of Spanish, with the remaining five from North America or Europe with a first language of English (four) or another language (one). Most taught in public universities—32 of the 37—and in undergraduate programs (with only two teaching exclusively at the graduate level).

Teacher educators' descriptions of their teaching circumstances provide important context for understanding their practices and goals. The idea that the Ecuadorian ELTE context is challenging appeared repeatedly in the focus group conversations, sometimes with tones of frustration and sometimes with determination. Félix (multilingual approach) described learning to be an English teacher at his university as “very complicated... this educational situation.” Luz (Spanish-medium subjects) felt that despite a well-designed ELTE program, educators “don't carry it out completely the way it's intended because the limitations can be more present each day.” Mercedes (almost English-only and multilingual approaches) framed ELTE in her context as “a really big challenge... so it's a struggle, but little by little we'll get there, and we shouldn't be pessimistic, we have to be positive and give it our best...”

Nonetheless, teacher educators often spoke proudly of their programs' and universities' work in preparing Ecuadorian EFL teachers. Jaime (multilingual approach) expressed a sentiment of pride and commitment that was evident in the focus group conversations when, in explaining that he and many other Ecuadorian teacher educators have studied and sometimes worked abroad, he said, “We stay here—because we could be somewhere else, we could be living somewhere else, working somewhere else—but we are here, because we want to change things.” Zoila (multilingual approach) described herself and her colleagues as “attempting to

attend to the needs and problems of society.” Mario (almost English-only approach) noted that historically, “education in early stages was directed only to the elite” but that his ELTE students could use “education as a tool for social changes, which are urgently needed in Ecuador.” Thus, Ecuadorian ELTE appeared as a space of challenge and opportunity with the potential to impact not only teachers-in-formation, but also Ecuadorian students and society, by improving EFL teaching in the country.

### ***The Need for Change in Ecuadorian EFL Teaching***

The perception that Ecuadorian EFL teaching is in need of change was prominent in teacher educators’ comments. EFL teaching in Ecuador was perceived as most often ineffective, as evidenced by teacher educators’ own observations and by international rankings. Blanca (almost English-only approach) powerfully articulated,

We’ve spent our whole lives with students who receive 12 years of English and at the end don’t know how to say ‘my name is such and such’...it can be that we’ve spent many years teaching English, and, in the end, they don’t learn it.

Jaime (multilingual approach) referenced rankings indicating that “Ecuador is in a very low position compared to other countries in [English] language proficiency,” suggesting such rankings represent a widely held notion that Ecuadorian English language teaching has especially large room for improvement.

Occasionally, teacher educators pointed to policy-level obstacles to English learning, like a recent reduction in the number of required hours of English study in public secondary schools. Mercedes (almost English-only and multilingual approaches) cautioned that we should not blame individual teachers and schools when, in her view, “the system is what doesn’t help us much for

kids in public schools to get a good level of foreign language proficiency.” However, participants’ comments tended to focus on teaching methods they saw as ineffective.

The teacher educators frequently described a problem of EFL teachers in Ecuador using teacher-centered, Spanish-medium, grammar-translation methods. For example, Blanca explained, “I have seen many teachers who give their English class in Spanish, who don’t have classroom management, who don’t use adequate methodologies and don’t have a teaching strategy...” Laura diagnosed the problem as “emphasizing too much in grammar... and not using language for real communication.” Mark described it as a question of “get[ting] away from that kind of, you know, very traditional chalk and talk,” and Franklin saw a need to ensure EFL teachers teach in English.

The idea that EFL teachers in Ecuador use more Spanish than English to teach the language was mentioned by a range of teacher educators across focus groups (Blanca, Darwin, Franklin, Robert, almost English-only approaches; Verónica, Yolanda, both almost English-only and multilingual approaches; Gloria, Zoila, multilingual approaches), though they sometimes differed in identifying this as a recent, ongoing, or historical issue.<sup>15</sup> One participant even described lack of English input in ELT as a problem in her own ELTE department’s teaching of the language:

Sadly, I’ve got to admit that it’s true that the English teachers in our program, we don’t speak English to our students, that is a truth, even when we are teaching English. So,

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<sup>15</sup> Yolanda referred to how, “following the grammar-translation method, before, some teachers would use the mother tongue more than the target language,” identifying this as a past phenomenon, while Verónica saw it as a recent problem that “now the [typical] teacher doesn’t go to a lot of effort like in our time, for example.” Most often, participants suggested over-dependence on Spanish in ELT classes was long-term problem that has only somewhat been addressed.

imagine when we're teaching another subject, what can we expect? (Luz, Spanish-medium instruction)

The apparent ineffectiveness of English teaching in many Ecuadorian classrooms is key context for teacher educators' goals, as they seek to prepare teachers-in-formation to be agents of change, but also for their challenges, as their ELTE students were educated in those same classrooms.

### ***ELTE Students' Prior Access to English Learning***

Students' access to learning English before beginning to study ELTE was a major concern for teacher educators that shaped their teaching practices. Six teacher educators described students' lack of sufficient English proficiency upon entry as a problem in their ELTE programs and 11 spoke of a problem of heterogeneous or mixed-ability ELTE student groups in terms of English level. For example, Félix (multilingual approach) explained that teacher educators at his university need to be able to work with "students that may come from high school with a level zero."

Key to the challenge of ELTE students' sometimes limited English proficiency upon program entry is the manner in which access to learning English is unequal in a society marked by educational disparities associated with socioeconomic status, geographic location, and ethnicity. Some participating teacher educators hinted at these disparities, as when Walter (almost English-only approach) suggested the geographic dimension of prior access to English learning when he said, "We are a provincial university. Our students don't arrive with the level of English that we'd like, that we expect from them." Fernando (almost English-only approach), one of the few participants who teaches in a private undergraduate program, put it bluntly: "...something in the back of us says, well, if this kid isn't that good, jeez, look, he had a public

school education his whole life, which means that if he got past the verb ‘to be’ that was a dream in his education.”

Most ELTE educators in Ecuador work with these students within a largely standardized teacher education program that was designed in 2015 and subsequently implemented with the hope of addressing some of these challenges.

### ***The PINE Program***

The opportunities and constraints of the *Pedagogía de los Idiomas Nacionales y Extranjeros* (PINE—Pedagogy of National and Foreign Languages) program, the largely standardized curriculum shared by most Ecuadorian undergraduate programs in teaching English, appeared as important context for teacher educators. Thirty-three of the 37 participants taught in PINE programs. Nine participants brought up the fact that the PINE program is “new” (Darwin, Mayra, almost English-only approaches; Mercedes, almost English-only and multilingual approaches) or “redesigned” (Walter, almost English-only approach; Félix, Teresa, Jaime, Zoila, multilingual approaches; Daniel, Spanish-medium subjects). In fact, several focus group participants mentioned having participated in the process of designing the PINE program. Often, teacher educators spoke about this new model for Ecuadorian ELTE hopefully, as offering more relevant content (Darwin, Daniel, Mayra, Zoila), more English-medium content classes (Mercedes) and better alignment with desirable objectives (Jaime).

However, for some educators, working within the PINE program has exacerbated challenges associated with ELTE students’ English proficiency. Blanca (almost English-only approach) and Félix critiqued the redesigned PINE program for limiting universities’ autonomy in allocating ELTE program hours and especially for limiting the number of hours of study. Félix noted that the limited number of program hours is problematic given that many students need

additional hours for language study. Teresa (multilingual approach) explained that at her university,

There's a mismatch that there was no prerequisite [established] because, yes, there was a redesign, yes, the undergraduate program was redone and it was established that all the courses needed to be in English, because the program is for English teachers, but the other part wasn't considered.

Teresa's comments point to the challenge created when universities seek to implement English-medium instruction to increase exposure to English within limited program hours, yet cannot guarantee that students are prepared to study in English.

### ***Levels Taught***

The most consistent theme in teacher educators' descriptions of their teaching circumstances was that of levels taught. I did not deliberately elicit information about student levels, but instead aimed to contextualize participants' comments by having them share at the beginning of each focus group which ELTE content courses they currently teach. Participants reported teaching a range of subjects, most often teaching methods, research, and linguistics. In doing so, they commonly presented their courses as belonging to a particular semester of study, as when Yolanda (almost English-only and multilingual approaches) stated, "I have experience in the fourth semester also, where I teach statistics." Mentioning semester was one way that participants signaled the levels that they taught. While participants rarely referred again to their specific course subjects as the focus group interviews progressed to address language use practices, most participants referred to what they perceived as their students' levels to contextualize their language use practices. Table 18 summarizes participants' descriptions of the

**Table 18***Summary of Teacher Educators' Descriptions of their Teaching Circumstances (n = 37)*

Pseudonym	Subjects	Students' Level
Alexandra	Exam preparation, linguistics	High/advanced
Alice	Research, teaching methods	High/advanced
Blanca	Inclusive education, linguistics	Both
Daniel	Educational policy, human development	Not specified
Darwin	Linguistics, literature	High/advanced
Diana	Assessment, psychology, research, teaching methods	Low/beginner
Edison	Literature, teaching methods	High/advanced
Félix	Teaching methods	Low/beginner
Fernando	Research	High/advanced
Franklin	Curriculum, ESP, linguistics	Not specified
Gloria	Practicum	High/advanced
Jaime	Assessment, teaching methods	Low/beginner
Janet	Language acquisition	High/advanced
Johanna	Practicum, sociology of education	Low/beginner
Julia	Inclusive education	High/advanced
Laura	Educational technology, exam preparation	High/advanced
Lindsay	Language acquisition, linguistics, teaching methods	High/advanced
Luz	Linguistics	High/advanced
Mariana	Curriculum	Low/beginner
Mario	Curriculum, teaching methods	High/advanced
Mark	Teaching methods	Not specified
Mayra	Assessment, ESP, research	High/advanced
Mercedes	Teaching methods	Not specified
Miguel	Teaching methods	Not specified
Milton	Linguistics, teaching methods	High/advanced
Nancy	Linguistics	Not specified
Olga	Curriculum, linguistics	High/advanced
Pedro	Practicum	High/advanced
Ricardo	Psychology, sociology and philosophy of education	Low/beginner
Robert	ESP, research, teaching methods	Both
Rosa	Literature, teaching methods	High/advanced
Sonia	Linguistics, research	Not specified
Teresa	Curriculum, inclusive education, teaching methods	Not specified
Verónica	Research	Not specified
Walter	Literature, psychology, teaching methods	High/advanced

Yolanda	Educational management, research	Both
Zoila	Linguistics, research	Low/beginner

*Note:* In the second column, ESP is a common acronym in the English teaching field referring to teaching English for Specific Purposes. The third column summarizes participants' descriptions of the subjects and the levels of the students they teach, using 'low/beginner' or 'high/advanced' as a shorthand, whether they refer explicitly to level, semester, or English language skills—since these are understood as intertwined and often used interchangeably.

subjects and the levels they taught, using 'low/beginner' or 'high/advanced' as a shorthand, whether they referred explicitly to level, semester, or students' English language skills.

The idea of 'level' signified the semester of study in which a course fell, perception of students' language abilities, or—sometimes implicitly—both. Teacher educators typically spoke of 'low' and 'high' or 'beginner' and 'advanced' levels, referring to semester and English proficiency in an intertwined and often interchangeable manner. For example, Laura and Mercedes explicitly connected students' time in their programs to language level, noting "as I teach high levels, my students speak English very well" (Laura, almost English-only approach) and "especially in low levels, first, second, even up to third semester, they're not yet conscious or not yet very suitable in language use" (Mercedes, almost English-only and multilingual approaches). Alexandra and Julia implied a similar connection when they contextualized their use of almost English-only approaches by saying, "I teach more advanced courses, I don't teach beginner courses" (Alexandra) or "I've always been teaching in high levels, for example, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth semester—the situation is totally different in first or second semester" (Julia). 'Level' also represented an essential aspect of how teacher educators understood their teaching circumstances in graduate programs, where semesters do not carry the same meaning as in the undergraduate context: the participants who taught only graduate content courses mentioned "the level of English use that the students have" (Fernando, almost English-only approach) and "my level of students" (Alice, almost English-only approach).



While teacher educators tended to refer to the overall level of their students or courses, the concerns discussed previously about mixed-level groups and unequal prior access to English should not be forgotten. Edison (almost English-only approach) captured this nuance in the nexus between level, semester, and language proficiency:

[My approach] depends a lot on the level of the students, not just on English level, but also on the level, on the semester that they're in...which is related to the level of English but it's not a direct result—there are students who enter with a very good level of English and there are students who leave with a terrible level of English.

It is in this context that we can understand teacher educators' language use practices and valued teacher capabilities in ELTE.

### **Language Use Practices**

I categorize teacher educators' described language use practices in three broad groups: *almost English-only approaches*, where instances of Spanish use were rare; *multilingual approaches*, where Spanish was substantially used alongside English; and *Spanish-medium subjects*, where courses had Spanish-medium instruction both on paper and in practice. These groups should be understood as imprecise categories representing reported practices that involve teacher educator choice—particularly *almost English-only approaches* as distinguished from *multilingual approaches*, both approaches being enacted within ostensibly English-medium instruction courses.

Language use practices appeared distinct from formal language allocation. Of the 34 participants currently teaching courses where English was the stated language of instruction, just four (Franklin, Julia, Mark, and Mayra, almost English-only approaches) mentioned institutional policy or curricular requirements when explaining their language use. Of these, only Mark

described feeling constrained by English-only policy, while the others cited the established language of instruction as support for their choices to use English almost exclusively. Others took approaches to English-medium instruction that were multilingual in practice. For example, Teresa (multilingual approach) explained that “subjects are taught in English... but in practice it’s a mix.”

These categories are imprecise characterizations of teacher educators’ language use, for two reasons. Firstly, participants often described their language use as varying by context: they sometimes took different approaches for different subjects or student groups or approached language one way at the beginning of the semester and another way by the end. Having two language use approaches could be viewed as a characteristic of those teacher educators, suggesting greater flexibility in language use approach than those who only enact almost English-only practices, for instance. On the other hand, it could be that most teacher educators have the potential to enact multiple kinds of language use but only some teaching circumstances create a need to do so. It should also be noted that my original characterization of participants’ language use for the purpose of organizing the focus groups, based on the survey data, did not always align with the language use practices they described in those conversations.<sup>16</sup> Secondly, within each category, descriptions of how much English participants used and how and with what attitude they incorporated Spanish varied widely. In this sense, language use practices can be better understood as falling along a continuum rather than as neat categories.

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<sup>16</sup> Pedro appeared to have an English-dominant multilingual approach on the survey, but his comments in focus groups aligned more with the almost English-only category than with the multilingual category (while taking an inclusive stance on Spanish use). Conversely, Janet was originally categorized as using primarily English based on the survey but then described what I consider to be a multilingual approach. Daniel reported using primarily English on the survey, but in the focus group conversation it became clear that he used English when teaching English language courses but only taught Spanish-medium content courses at the time of the study. In Tables 19 and 20 in this chapter, I include the original categorization of each participant upon organizing the focus groups as well as the qualitative findings regarding their language use practices.

Nonetheless, the broad categories of almost English-only, multilingual, and Spanish-medium are useful for illustrating common elements of participants' practices. I describe language use within each category in the remainder of this chapter. When a teacher educator described employing distinct language use practices across current teaching situations and those descriptions coincided with different broad categories, I discuss that participant as representing both categories.<sup>17</sup> I focus on the amount of English participants reported using and their stances on Spanish use within English-medium instruction. My characterization of language use practices in this way mirrors how the participants themselves talked about their language use practices: participants did not describe their approaches as English-only or multilingual, but rather, tended to quantify the amount of English they use and describe how they handle instances of Spanish use.

### *Almost English-only Approaches*

Eighteen of the 37 participants described using almost English-only approaches in teaching ELTE content courses and seven more described using both almost English-only and another approach (see Table 19). Many of these teacher educators characterized their English use as a percentage of class time ranging from 90 to 100 percent. Though no one claimed that Spanish was entirely omitted from their classes, teacher educators sometimes seemed to round up to an English-only account of language in their courses. For instance, Mario commented that he uses Spanish for administrative issues “just in occasions in which there should not be any ambiguity; but most of the time, I would say 100% of the occasions, English would be used.” Olga spoke collectively about her department, initially stating that “we’ve managed to teach

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<sup>17</sup> When linking language use practices with valued teacher capabilities in the next chapter, I characterize participants' language use with a continuum, rather than categories, for a more nuanced analysis that does not divide individuals across categories in this way.

**Table 19***Summary of Language Use Descriptions of Teacher Educators with Almost English-only**Approaches, According to Focus Group Data (n = 25)*

Participant	Type(s) of Language Use	Amount of English Use	Stance on Spanish Use	Categorization for Focus Group (Based on Survey)
Mario	Almost English-only	100%	Resisted	English Only
Robert	Almost English-only	99.9%, Spanish-medium subject	Resisted	English Only (Foreign)
Olga	Almost English-only Multilingual	100%, English-Spanish initially	Resisted Tolerated	English-dominant multilingual
Alexandra	Almost English-only	100%	Included	Primarily English
Blanca	Almost English-only	Almost always	Resisted	English Only
Mayra	Almost English-only	Almost always	Resisted	English Only
Rosa	Almost English-only	Almost always	Resisted	English Only
Sonia	Almost English-only	Almost always	Resisted	English Only
Franklin	Almost English-only	Almost always	Resisted	Primarily English
Fernando	Almost English-only	Almost always	Included	Primarily English
Darwin	Almost English-only	95%, as much as possible	Resisted	English Only
Mark	Almost English-only	90-100%	Included	Primarily English (Foreign)
Julia	Almost English-only	90-98%, as much as possible	Resisted	Primarily English
Walter	Almost English-only	As much as possible	Resisted	English Only
Laura	Almost English-only	As much as possible	Resisted	English Only
Alice	Almost English-only	90%	Included	English-dominant multilingual (Foreign)
Johanna	Almost English-only	80-100%, as much as possible	Resisted	Primarily English
Edison	Almost English-only	60-90%, as much as possible	Resisted	Primarily English
Lindsay	Almost English-only	Mostly	Included	Primarily English (Foreign)
Pedro	Almost English-only	Mostly	Included	English-dominant multilingual
Milton	Almost English-only Multilingual	Mostly	Included	English-dominant multilingual
Mercedes	Almost English-only Multilingual	Mostly 80%	Resisted	English-dominant multilingual

Verónica	Almost English-only Multilingual	Mostly Depends on class	Tolerated	English-dominant multilingual
Yolanda	Almost English-only Multilingual	Mostly 50%	Embraced	Primarily English
Diana	Almost English-only Multilingual	Increasing to 100% from 50%	Included Embraced	Primarily English

*Note:* Columns two through four present a summary of teacher educators' descriptions of their language use practices, based on focus group data. When participants report more than one type of approach, information about the additional approach not relevant to this table appears in gray. Column five presents the characterizations of their language use practices based on survey data that were used to organize the focus groups. Participants are ordered (approximately) from most to least amount of English use described.

100% of the subject in English” and then noting that “a little Spanglish is used in the first levels but then in the last levels Spanish isn’t used anymore but rather 100% in English.” In describing their almost English-only approaches, exclusive use of English often appeared as the intended practice that teacher educators enacted imperfectly, as in the case of Edison, who said “it never really happens that it can be 100%, but that is like my ideal, maybe I achieve it I would say... between somehow 60 to 90%, but it’s never, never half and half.” When teacher educators described English use practices in this category without quantifying them numerically, they spoke of using English “most of the time” (e.g. Laura) or as much as possible.

Some teacher educators with almost English-only approaches resisted Spanish use occurring in their courses. Many spoke in a general way about avoiding and discouraging Spanish use and others described specific techniques for rebuffing it. Blanca, Darwin, and Sonia said they respond in English when students speak Spanish; Sonia specified that “I don’t say ‘Don’t ask me in Spanish,’ no, I never tell them that, it’s just that when they ask me questions in Spanish, I answer them in English.” Franklin, on the other hand, said he actively prohibits Spanish when interacting with students both inside and outside class: “I don’t answer if they speak to me in Spanish, they have to speak in English, there is no other option.” Edison described “a losing battle” of trying to stamp out Spanish during group work, while Olga said her

students themselves made a rule of paying a five-cent fine every time they use Spanish in her ELTE content classes.

In contrast, some teacher educators with almost English-only approaches said they choose to include small amounts of Spanish in their courses or are open to their students using Spanish. Alexandra said her students rarely need Spanish but when a student “switches to Spanish, then it’s like telling me ‘I need to understand better,’ so if [the student] does it like that, I occasionally explain in Spanish in that case.” Diana and Milton, who they reported using almost only English, said they supplement their classes with after-class sessions in Spanish. Pedro described including Spanish strategically to connect with students’ prior knowledge in Spanish “just to establish a connection and then they don’t forget.” Similarly, Lindsay said she also deliberately includes Spanish in occasional specific activities that she described as examples of “translanguaging.” She described telling her students, “If you want to speak in Spanish, that’s totally fine, I know you guys speak English, like you don’t need to prove anything to me,” though she said they rarely do so. When teacher educators with almost English-only approaches include Spanish in these ways, their language use practices appear somewhat similar to multilingual approaches but differ in the amount of English and Spanish used.

### ***Multilingual Approaches***

Nine of the 37 participants described using almost English-only approaches in teaching ELTE content courses and six more described using both multilingual and almost English-only approaches (see Table 20). Unlike with language use practices I characterize as almost English-only, here, use of Spanish or a mix of languages was not described as occasional but rather as a regular component of key class activities. The amount of English use ranged from “50% English,

**Table 20**

*Summary of Language Use Descriptions of Teacher Educators with Multilingual Approaches, According to Focus Group Data (n = 15)*

Participant	Type(s) of Language Use	Amount of English Use	Stance on Spanish Use	Categorization for Focus Group
Olga	Multilingual Almost English-only	English-Spanish initially, 100%	Tolerated Resisted	English-dominant multilingual
Mercedes	Multilingual Almost English-only	80%	Resisted	English-dominant multilingual
Verónica	Multilingual Almost English-only	Almost always	Tolerated	English-dominant multilingual
Miguel	Multilingual	Depends on class, Mostly 85%	Tolerated	English-dominant multilingual
Janet	Multilingual	85%	Embraced	Foreign (Primarily English)
Jaime	Multilingual	70-80%	Tolerated	English-dominant multilingual
Milton	Multilingual Almost English-only	Mostly	Included	English-dominant multilingual
Zoila	Multilingual	70-80%	Tolerated	English-dominant multilingual
Gloria	Multilingual	In English with both languages	Embraced	Balanced multilingual
Félix	Multilingual	Both languages, increasing English	Tolerated	English-dominant multilingual
Teresa	Multilingual	A mix according to student choice	Embraced	Balanced multilingual
Mariana	Multilingual	50%	Tolerated	Balanced multilingual
Nancy	Multilingual	50-60%	Embraced	Balanced multilingual
Diana	Multilingual Almost English-only	Initially 50%, increasing to 100%	Embraced Included	Primarily English
Yolanda	Multilingual Almost English-only	50% Mostly	Embraced	Primarily English

*Note:* Columns two through four present a summary of teacher educators' descriptions of their language use practices, based on focus group data. When participants report more than one type of approach, information about the additional approach not relevant to this table appears in gray. Column five presents the characterizations of their language use practices based on survey data that were used to organize the focus groups. Participants are ordered (approximately) from most to least amount of English use described.

50% Spanish” (Yolanda) to “more or less 85%” (Miguel); others more generally stated that they “combine English and Spanish” (Felix, Verónica).

Seven of the 15 teacher educators with multilingual approaches described incorporating Spanish to the extent they do because they feel they have no choice. These educators appeared to tolerate but not embrace Spanish use. As Zoila explained:

Using the L1<sup>18</sup> is necessary sometimes... I consider that 100% use of English in a third or fourth semester class is not possible. I can't lie about a latent reality in our country. I think we make our best effort to use English most of the time. But use of Spanish is latent in our teaching process.

Similarly, other teacher educators used phrases like “I’ve got to” (Miguel, Mariana), “I have to” (Verónica) and “we’re forced to” (Olga) about including Spanish.<sup>19</sup> With these phrases, they presented Spanish use as imposed on them by students’ needs, a necessary evil. In this sense, some multilingual language use practices are similar to many educators’ almost English-only practices in attempting to maximize English use, but differ in circumstance as learners’ limited English proficiency leads to a larger amount of Spanish use.

In contrast, six of the 15 teacher educators with multilingual approaches spoke of their incorporation of Spanish as a choice they find useful and positive rather than an unfortunate lack of choice. For instance, Teresa “leaves [students] the freedom” to participate in English, Spanish, or a mix as “a way that I’ve found, for the moment, to be fair.” Janet was similarly non-judgmental about her students’ requests to speak Spanish during her classes, describing her position as “if you feel more comfortable expressing those complex ideas in Spanish right now,

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<sup>18</sup> L1 refers to learners’ first language in language teaching discourse.

<sup>19</sup> In Spanish, “me toca” (Miguel, Mariana), “tengo que” (Verónica) and “estamos obligados a” (Olga).



then go ahead.” Gloria said she encourages students to use Spanish to deeply analyze problems in practice teaching, since “when you speak in English, you think in one way and when you speak in Spanish, in another way,” suggesting that preferring first language use for certain tasks may be a normal part of being bilingual rather than an inadequacy. Thus, some educators with multilingual approaches embraced the inclusion of Spanish within English-medium instruction, rather than merely tolerating it.

### ***Spanish-Medium Subjects***

Four of the 37 participants taught ELTE content courses that their universities have designated as Spanish-medium subjects. Though they sometimes said they draw on English-language terminology or materials from the field, their reported language use practices did not substantially diverge from that designation. Ricardo, for example, taught foundational courses in education and noted that his background is not in English or language teaching. Daniel and Luz, on the other hand, taught English language courses in addition to Spanish-medium ELTE content courses and noted that they hypothetically could teach content in English but do not currently, according to the curriculum. Robert, mentioned in the almost English-only section, also taught one Spanish-medium course for first-year undergraduates that he attempted to change to English-medium instruction but quickly reversed course when students struggled to understand him. These participants did not describe their current predominantly Spanish language use practices with greater detail beyond indicating they used Spanish-medium instruction, but did actively participate in group conversations about language and their goals in ELTE.

### **Valued Teacher Capabilities**

Teacher educators spoke of specific teacher capabilities that fell into the three general categories of teacher learning outcomes found in the ELTE literature: content knowledge,

pedagogical knowledge, and teacher identity and cognition. I have chosen to divide the category of content knowledge into two categories, English proficiency and other ELT knowledge, to avoid confusion related to different meanings of ‘content.’ Teacher education literature makes a distinction between content knowledge, which is specific to the subject taught and includes English proficiency in the case of ELTE, and pedagogical knowledge, which is relevant to teaching in general (Barahona, 2015; Richards, 2010). Meanwhile, literature on language learning and language of instruction makes a distinction between language and content goals (Richards & Pun, 2021)—the latter of which, in the case of ELTE, include aspects of ELT content knowledge other than English proficiency (such as conceptual understanding of linguistics and language acquisition) and pedagogical knowledge. Breaking down the teacher education concept of ‘content knowledge’ into ‘English proficiency’ and ‘other ELT knowledge’ is supported by the data, firstly, in that participants tended to use the term ‘content’ in the sense of distinguishing language and content goals and, secondly, in that English proficiency was mentioned in the focus group conversations more than four times as often as other non-pedagogical ELT content goals.

Teacher educators did in fact think of the goals of ELTE in terms of the kinds of teacher capabilities described in the literature. Twenty-nine of the 37 participants mentioned English proficiency as an outcome of ELTE, 24 of the 37 mentioned outcomes related to teacher identity and cognition, 24 of the 37 mentioned outcomes related to pedagogical knowledge, and 19 of the 37 mentioned other ELT knowledge outcomes. Mentioning a capability suggests that capability has some importance to the participant. However, this study is concerned with the teacher capabilities that teacher educators *most* value, that is, the capabilities to which they attribute the greatest importance.

**Table 21***Specific Teacher Capability Types Mentioned and Most Valued by Participants*

Capability Types	English Proficiency	Other ELT Knowledge	Pedagogical Knowledge	Teacher Identity and Cognition
Participants	Alice	<b>Alexandra</b>	<b>Alice</b>	Blanca
	<b>Blanca</b>	Alice	Blanca	<b>Daniel</b>
	<b>Daniel</b>	Blanca	<b>Daniel</b>	<b>Diana</b>
	Diana	<b>Darwin</b>	<b>Diana</b>	<b>Fernando</b>
	<b>Edison</b>	Diana	Fernando	<b>Félix</b>
	<b>Fernando</b>	<b>Fernando</b>	Franklin	Franklin
	<b>Franklin</b>	Franklin	Gloria	<b>Gloria</b>
	Gloria	Jaime	<b>Jaime</b>	Jaime
	<b>Jaime</b>	<b>Janet</b>	Lindsay	<b>Janet</b>
	<b>Johanna</b>	<b>Laura</b>	Luz	Johanna
	<b>Julia</b>	<b>Lindsay</b>	<b>Mariana</b>	<b>Luz</b>
	<b>Laura</b>	Mariana	<b>Mark</b>	Mariana
	Lindsay	<b>Mayra</b>	<b>Mayra</b>	<b>Mark</b>
	Luz	Nancy	<b>Mercedes</b>	Mayra
	<b>Mariana</b>	Sonia	<b>Miguel</b>	<b>Mercedes</b>
	<b>Mario</b>	<b>Verónica</b>	Nancy	<b>Milton</b>
	Mark	Walter	<b>Olga</b>	<b>Nancy</b>
	<b>Mayra</b>	<b>Yolanda</b>	Pedro	Olga
	<b>Mercedes</b>	Zoila	Robert	Pedro
	<b>Miguel</b>		<b>Rosa</b>	<b>Ricardo</b>
	<b>Milton</b>		<b>Sonia</b>	Robert
	Nancy		<b>Teresa</b>	<b>Teresa</b>
	<b>Pedro</b>		<b>Verónica</b>	Walter
	<b>Robert</b>		<b>Walter</b>	<b>Zoila</b>
	<b>Rosa</b>			
	<b>Sonia</b>			
	Teresa			
Verónica				
<b>Walter</b>				

*Note:* Participant names appear in bold if the participant identified at least one specific teacher capability of this type as the most important for him or her or if the participant did not mention other types of capabilities.

I sought evidence of which teacher capabilities participants *most* valued in examining their comments when asked what goals were most important to them in teaching English teachers. Those comments ranged from mentioning only one type of capability, implying by

omission that others were less important; to describing one type of capability as having greater importance or higher priority than other capabilities they also mentioned; to identifying multiple types of capability with apparently equal importance. Table 21 lists participants who mentioned teacher capabilities of each type when describing ELTE goals and indicates their most valued capability types with bold. Participant names appear in bold if the participant identified at least one specific teacher capability of this type as the most important for him or her or if the participant did not mention other types of capabilities. Twenty participants most valued English proficiency, 15 most valued capabilities related to pedagogical knowledge, 14 most valued capabilities related to teacher identity and cognition, and nine most valued capabilities related to other kinds of ELT knowledge. These totals include 18 participants who described teacher capabilities of more than one type as being of equally great importance.

Some participants explicitly ranked certain teacher capabilities above others. For example, Diana (almost English-only and multilingual approaches) explained her focus on teacher identity, saying “we’re teaching *teachers*, we’re not teaching *language*” (original emphasis) or when Blanca (almost English-only approach) stated that the order of importance for her is “first, that they use the language they are going to teach and, second, that they have classroom management.” Others implied a hierarchy of capabilities, as when Alice (almost English-only approach) suggested pedagogical knowledge is somewhat more important to her than English proficiency:

Good language teaching doesn’t really involve the teacher talking a whole lot. ... The brilliance of a good teacher is to create an activity that’s going to bring out that need for that particular language point, and then to be able to run around and see what’s going on in each student’s head and why they’re doing it right or why they’re doing it wrong. ...

So yes, teachers need English, but really you need to know how that's going to work in your class.

However, 18 of the 37 participants described multiple teacher capabilities as valuable without expressing any priority or hierarchy. Sometimes these teacher educators explicitly emphasized that they see various ELTE outcomes as equally important, as was the case for Sonia (almost English-only approach), who highlighted “their pedagogical capabilities and also their linguistic capabilities... I think the two go hand in hand, they're exactly the same.” While nearly half of the participants appeared to highly value more than one type of teacher capability, five teacher educators expressed feeling torn between types of capabilities, especially between language and content goals. Mariana (multilingual approach) described herself as having to “battle between two worlds,” Robert (almost English-only approach and Spanish-medium subject) had “doubts and things I'm asking myself even now about what is the most important for an English or language teacher to be a good language teacher,” and Fernando (almost English-only approach) said that “what do I want to educate [ELTE students for]...is a debate that never leaves me be.”<sup>20</sup> Franklin (almost English-only approach) initially described teacher identity and cognition as a priority but then immediately pivoted: “though, the most important quality of any English teacher will always be that they know English and that they are fluent in it.”

These comments suggest that teacher educators do consider and sometimes struggle with the relative importance of specific teacher capabilities, but also that it would be meaningless to expect teacher educators to prioritize certain capabilities to the *exclusion* of others. While this study is concerned with the teacher capabilities that teacher educators *most* value, it does not

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<sup>20</sup> In Spanish, “¿Qué es lo que yo quiero formar? ...Es un debate que no me deja en paz.”

mean to imply that teacher education should or can be reduced to any one type of capability or that specific types of teacher capability exist independently of others. Given that teacher educators tended to see some value in various teacher capabilities, it is useful to look at how all the participants in this study characterized each type of teacher capability, regardless of whether they *most* valued that type of capability.<sup>21</sup>

### ***English Proficiency***

EFL teachers' English language capability can be understood in various ways. Yet, teacher educators in this study did not always specifically characterize this capability, and when specifying, often invoked international standards. Fourteen teacher educators simply referred generally to 'language acquisition,' 'language proficiency,' or 'knowing English' as goals in ELTE. This underspecified general goal of English proficiency can be seen, for instance, in Blanca's (almost English-only approach) comment that she and her colleagues aim for "the students who study this major to leave with an optimal level for teaching the language." Fernando (almost English-only approach) pointed to the ambiguity of what kind of English language proficiency is optimal by asking in the focus group: "So, what English? Which English? To what point, English? And then, why? Who decides that?" When describing this teacher capability more specifically, teacher educators most often referred to passing proficiency exams or meeting the standards for a specific level of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), such as when Miguel (multilingual approach) said that "in theory they should be leaving with a B2 level at minimum." Sometimes teacher educators conceptualized teachers' desired English proficiency in terms of communication, as in having "an absolute capacity to

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<sup>21</sup> When linking language use practices with valued teacher capabilities in the next chapter, I characterize participants' most valued teacher capabilities along a continuum to capture nuances of how strongly they appeared to value one or multiple type(s) of capability.

communicate, to be able to adequately educate their future students” (Edison, almost English-only approach) or that they “end up speaking, end up understanding” (Jaime, multilingual approach). Less common characterizations of the teacher language-proficiency capability focused on minimizing mistakes, gaining confidence, knowing the mechanics of the language, and becoming bilingual.

### ***Other ELT Knowledge***

Varied learning outcomes specific to the subjects that participants taught also appeared as valued capabilities and, as subject-area content knowledge distinct from English language proficiency, can be categorized as ‘other ELT knowledge.’ Understanding linguistics was the most-often mentioned teacher capability in this category. Being familiar with ELT terminology, language acquisition theory, and anglophone cultures were also mentioned as important capabilities. For example, Franklin (almost English-only approach) stated that EFL teachers should be able to teach “the culture, the cultures that [students] potentially will become familiar with after they are connected with that language.” Teacher educators also expressed that valuable teacher capabilities included knowing other ELT content knowledge when they referred generally to their students learning ‘the content’ of their courses, as when Yolanda emphasized “the most important thing is the content itself and how it is applied...to reach the learning objectives of each of the subjects.”

### ***Pedagogical Knowledge***

Teacher educators identified important teacher capabilities in the area of pedagogical knowledge with comments that referred to pedagogy, didactics, methods, or strategies. While some references to these capabilities were quite general, participants specifically described classroom management, lesson planning, and the ability to engage and support students as

valuable teacher capabilities related to pedagogy. General comments noted a need for “pedagogical capabilities” (Sonia, almost English-only approach) or “that they know how to teach” (Rosa, almost English-only approach). More specifically, Walter (almost English-only approach) observed that “it’s important for someone with a [teaching] degree to know how to manage a classroom,” and Gloria (multilingual approach) said they should master “how to put together a lesson plan, ... an objective, the practice activities...” Engaging and supporting students appeared as an important capability described as being able “to reach your students” (Franklin, almost English-only approach), “to meet students’ needs” (Blanca, almost English-only approach), or to “increase student-to-student interaction, participation” (Mark, almost English-only approach).

Some teacher educators saw a key component of teachers’ pedagogical capabilities as being able to adapt to local realities and challenging circumstances. For example, Luz (Spanish-medium subjects) highlighted the importance of “learning to work with the resources that may be there, because it’s not always...the resources that we come across are not that generous and it’s up to us to find them.” Similarly, for Olga (almost English-only and multilingual approaches), teachers’ ability to use technology involved being prepared to teach “in places where we have everything and sometimes in places where we have absolutely nothing and we have to be creators, be creative.” This adaptive capability somewhat overlapped with aims of developing teacher identity and cognition.

### ***Teacher Identity and Cognition***

Teacher educators described several teacher capabilities that involved how teachers think and feel about themselves and their work, such as having vocation, ethics, a humanistic outlook, and a commitment to continue learning. Seeing these kinds of beliefs and behaviors as important



teacher capabilities is characteristic of a sociocultural view on ELTE (Singh & Richards, 2006), where teacher education is understood as a process of socializing teachers to identify with the field and its norms (Johnson, 2016). This view on ELTE and its associated capabilities (which include how teachers think about and develop other teaching skills) may overlap with the capabilities of English proficiency, other ELT knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge discussed above. For instance, the idea that “we have to create habits of using English all the time” (Laura, almost English-only approach) implies both the capability of English proficiency and socialization into English use as a part of English teacher identity. Likewise, valuing creative approaches to teaching methods (Olga, both English-only and multilingual approaches) implies both pedagogical knowledge and a kind of critical thinking. Despite this occasional overlap, to make the viewpoints of teacher educators who specifically value teacher identity and cognition visible in this analysis, I have included in the category only mentions of teacher identity and cognition that did not directly overlap with English proficiency, other ELT knowledge, or pedagogical knowledge (as described in the previous subsections).

How teachers relate to their profession stood out in the teacher identity and cognition category. Seven participants used the word “love” (Félix, Gloria, Jaime, Nancy, Teresa, multilingual approaches; Mercedes, Olga, almost English-only and multilingual approaches), as in Mercedes’ comment that “they should love their profession and love what they do so they do it in the best way,” while others spoke of “enjoying what we do” (Daniel, Spanish-medium subjects), having “passion for teaching” (Blanca, almost English-only approach) and “liking” what they are learning (Johanna, almost English-only approach). Teacher educators often valued how teachers relate to students, too, seeking to foster awareness of how “teachers impact the life of the human being, of the student” (Milton, almost English-only and multilingual approaches)

and that “they are working with a human being and if they don’t manage to click with that human being” then other teaching skills will be of little use (Teresa, multilingual approach). In fact, six participants referred specifically to the importance of seeing EFL students as “human beings” (Fernando, Walter, almost English-only approaches; Mercedes, Milton, almost English-only and multilingual approaches; Teresa, multilingual approach; Ricardo, Spanish-medium subjects) and two more spoke of their own ELTE students’ growth “as a human being” (Zoila, multilingual approach) and “as a human being [who] has a duty to society” (Gloria, multilingual approach).

Closely related to the capacity to understand teaching through a human lens was the valued teacher capability of having “the ethics, the principles, the application of values” (Luz, Spanish-medium subjects) or “the human side, the values” (Teresa, multilingual approach). Teacher educators also expressed this ethical capability as a need to “respect their students” (Franklin, almost English-only approach), “be very ethical...very empathetic, very tolerant, flexible too” (Mercedes, almost English-only and multilingual approaches) and to “feel the duty they have as teachers, the great responsibility they will have in their hands” (Mariana, multilingual approach).

The attitudes of loving the profession and seeing teaching through an ethical and human lens could be considered one part of the broader capability of having a professional identity. Ricardo (Spanish-medium subjects) described the process of acquiring this capability as follows:

At the beginning the mindset is hard for them, to get out of [the mindset] that they are students... You see that change when eventually they end up taking ownership in the classroom and looking to become teachers, trying to teach... already teaching, already

changing their mindset to “I’m a teacher” and that what I’m preparing for is to live in this space and to be a person and to help with being a person and not just to transmit content. Thus, some teacher educators highly value helping ELTE students “gradually build a teacher profile” (Diana, almost English-only and multilingual approaches) in which teachers take ownership of relevant knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Finally, teacher identity and cognition also involved teachers valuing their own continuous learning. Five teacher educators referenced teacher reflection (Mark, almost English-only approach; Robert, almost-English only approach and Spanish-medium subject; Diana, almost English-only and multilingual approaches; Mariana, multilingual approach) or being “able to critically analyze the situations that they encounter in classrooms” (Pedro, almost English-only approach). Four brought up teacher research or action research (Mayra, Fernando, almost English-only approaches; Verónica, almost English-only and multilingual approaches; Janet, multilingual approach). Additionally, six participants spoke of teacher collaboration or cooperation (Franklin, Julia, Mayra, almost English-only approach; Mercedes, almost English-only and multilingual approaches; Gloria, multilingual approach; Daniel, Spanish-medium subjects). For example, Gloria (multilingual approach) sought for her students “to understand that teamwork, working with the professional community, is going to help them to grow...that they work collaboratively with other teachers.” These capabilities of teacher identity and cognition were thought to foster other teacher capabilities and as well as quality teaching.

Thus, there was a general consensus around a set of teacher capabilities that may be valuable. Teacher educators differed in which capabilities they prioritized in ELTE content courses and how they linked fostering those capabilities to the language use practices they used to deliver their classes—links that will be described in the next chapter.

## Discussion

### *Understanding Teacher Educators' Contexts*

The qualitative findings presented here began with key elements of teacher educators' teaching circumstances that contextualize both language use practices and valued teacher capabilities in ELTE. The Ecuadorian teacher educators in this study identified the challenge of ELTE students' often low English proficiency levels at program entry as a major constraint, echoing the same challenge identified in local ELTE literature (Abad et al., 2019; Argudo et al., 2018; Cajas et al., 2023) and regional ELTE literature (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Morales et al., 2020).

As documented previously by Cajas et al. (2023), the redesign of the *Pedagogía de los Idiomas Nacionales y Extranjeros* (PINE) programs as part of major teacher education reforms in 2015 involved major changes to university-based ELTE in Ecuador in an effort to improve ELTE and ELT outcomes in the country. Teacher educators in this study were conscious of those changes and some saw them as a step in the right direction. There was also some ambivalence towards the changes, also evident in Cajas et al.'s (2023) findings, as programs struggle to meet both linguistic and non-linguistic learning objectives within limited and standardized program hours. Some teacher educators were concerned by Ecuador's English proficiency relative to other countries, which has received attention in local media (De Angelis, 2023), and with the prevalent teaching of English through Spanish-medium grammar translation (Burgin & Daniel, 2017; Calle et al., 2012; Ortega-Auquilla & Minchala-Buri, 2019).

While these challenges are in many ways specific to the Ecuadorian context, the sense of struggle expressed by some of these participants can be contextualized in a broader frustration with improving ELT through ELTE in many countries, which is often associated with the

question of how to best ensure sufficient EFL-teacher English proficiency (Freeman et al., 2015). At the same time, it should be noted that the Ecuadorian context itself is diverse, as illustrated by the varied teaching circumstances described by this study's participants.

### ***Understanding Language Use Practices***

The teacher educators in this study who reported using the most English in teaching ELTE content classes are described as using 'almost English-only approaches' because, as educators proficient in both English and students' (and often their) own language, they rarely excluded own language entirely. This finding resonates with others who have shown that some amount of own language use, though typically minimal, is the norm in the ELT field (Hall & Cook, 2013), especially where teachers are themselves multilingual (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021). Though many teacher educators who used English almost exclusively sought to minimize own language use and seemed to see its occurrence as a failing or imperfection, some welcomed it as an additional tool that was occasionally useful. Nuanced descriptions of what teaching in English means to ELTE educators complicate abstract English-only ideals (Kerr, 2016) and could normalize more flexible ways of approaching English-medium instruction.

This chapters' findings also illustrated the wide range of language use practices that can be described as multilingual.<sup>22</sup> These encompassed a range from teacher educators who begrudgingly spoke Spanish in class because they found their jobs otherwise impossible, to others who encouraged students to move between English and Spanish and saw that as supporting both language and content learning (e.g., Teresa, who argued that her approach allows ELTE students to interact deeply with the course content but also leads them to gradually

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<sup>22</sup> As described in Chapter 3, I use the term *multilingual*, rather than other common terms like *translanguaging* or *plurilingual*, to refer generally to the use of multiple named languages, without assuming any specific ideological stance or a dynamic interplay among those languages.

use more English). As argued previously in regard to translanguaging, which García et al. (2017) conceptualize as a ‘stance’ more than simply a practice, educators who instrumentally incorporate own language activities do not necessarily embrace multilingualism philosophically and that may limit the extent to which they leverage such practices for student learning (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Robinson et al., 2020). By describing a spectrum of language use practices and considering teacher educators’ stances in resisting, including, tolerating, or embracing Spanish, this chapter’s findings illustrate that it may be misleading to simply characterize teachers as using multilingual or English-only practices without further considering their attitudes and aims.

Finally, the descriptions of language use in this chapter begin to demonstrate the role of teaching circumstances, specifically what teacher educators described as their students’ levels, in shaping the wide variety in practices. When Laura (almost English-only approach) used English “as much as we can,” Spanish only appeared in the occasional administrative comment, but when Miguel (multilingual approach) used English “as much as possible,” Spanish comprised about 15% of instructional time. Lindsay (almost English-only approach) invited her students to express their ideas in English and they did so rarely, while Teresa (multilingual approach) extended the same invitation to her students and they used Spanish and English in similar amounts during some activities in her courses. Thus, actual language use practices sprang from the intersection of teacher educator stances and student needs and preferences, which varied by context.

### ***Understanding Valued Teacher Capabilities***

The teacher educators in this study identified a range of teacher learning goals in ELTE that correspond to the types of learning outcomes identified in the ELTE literature: ELT content knowledge, especially English proficiency (Barahona, 2015; Richards, 2017), pedagogical

knowledge (Barahona, 2015), and teacher identity and cognition (Johnson, 2016). Just as prior study shows that English language teachers highly value being proficient in the language (Argudo Serrano et al., 2021; Faez et al., 2021; Richards, 2017), English proficiency was the teacher capability most discussed by the teacher educators in this study. How teacher educators conceptualize the teacher capability of English language proficiency has implications for how important they consider that capability to be and what kind of practices they see as fostering it. These teacher educators' comments mirror global debates about what constitutes necessary English proficiency for English teachers, which is often measured in terms of general proficiency examinations but could also be understood in terms of classroom communicational competence (Freeman, 2020).

This data shows a general consensus that non-linguistic teacher capabilities are also important, especially pedagogical knowledge and teacher identity and cognition. The 'applied science' and 'reflective' models for pedagogical knowledge (Barahona, 2015) are notably present, as some teacher educators emphasized compliance with the PINE program's exit profile and proven pedagogical methods, while others valued teacher educators discovering their own solutions to problems of practice. Finally, the trend towards conceptualizing ELTE as cultivating behaviors and beliefs rather than just knowledge and skills (Singh & Richards, 2006) was evident in the emphasis many of these teacher educators placed on teacher identity and cognition capabilities, as well as in the framing of almost English-only instruction as socializing teachers into English use. These teacher educators' ideas about teacher identity and cognition did not center questions of 'non-native-speaker' teacher identity or (post)colonial positionality, as featured in some ELT literature (Castañeda-Londoño, 2021; Kumaravadivelu, 2016; Llurda, 2016), but instead tended to focus on teacher vocation, reflection, and professional ethics. Some

of these capabilities resembled the teacher competencies described by Gao and Yang's (2023) theoretical piece on contemporary language teacher education, such as the ability to "take control of their own professional learning and development" (p. 4). The interest in teacher identity and cognition capabilities evident among these teacher educators is important given that teacher learning outcomes of this type have been less prominent than language and pedagogy in Ecuadorian ELTE literature (some exceptions being Heredia-Arboleda et al. [2021] on teacher characteristics and Fajardo Dack [2017], Martínez Molina et al. [2018], and Soto [2020] on teacher reflection and action research).

### **Limitations**

The qualitative findings of this chapter should be considered in light of several limitations. Perspectives of teacher educators who use more Spanish than English in teaching content courses are limited here, with only three focus group participants currently teaching only Spanish-medium subjects. I struggled to get survey participants who reported using Spanish during half or more of a typical class (13% of survey respondents) and gave their contact information for focus groups to actually attend. Despite my using only Spanish for communication and indicating that the focus group would be held in Spanish, two of these potential focus group participants said they did not think they could participate because of their English proficiency, and others simply did not respond.

Secondly, teacher educators' comments in the focus group were likely somewhat influenced by desirability bias, which may have led participants to report more English and less Spanish than their true language use practices include. The social pressure that some participants likely felt is evident in comments such as "being very honest" (Miguel, multilingual approach) or "I won't lie" (Milton, almost English-only and multilingual approaches) that sometimes prefaced



descriptions of including Spanish. I suspect that Mercedes and Olga (almost English-only and multilingual approaches), in particular, described their language use practices according to what they considered desirable more than what they actually do, given that neither ever used the first person or offered specific details, instead referring to their departments' collective practices. I also suspect that Mariana (multilingual approach) and Luz (Spanish-medium subjects), who participated in the same focus group and are colleagues, felt some pressure to endorse almost English-only practices: both began by strongly defending the use of Spanish and then, in the course of conversation, eventually agreed that “this idea of using Spanish in classes or not is a topic of ours... yes, we've talked about it [in our department] and we do agree that it should be the target language [English] that is used” (Mariana). Despite my intention to avoid placing colleagues together in the same group, participants signed up for the times that were most convenient for them (within the times offered for their given language use approach) and ultimately seven of the nine focus groups I held included a pair of colleagues.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has presented qualitative findings illustrating the range of language use practices and stances on resisting, tolerating, including, or embracing Spanish that almost English-only and multilingual practices encompass. Language use practices can best be described as a spectrum rather than as neat categories. This chapter also described the teacher capabilities that teacher educators value fostering—English proficiency, other ELT knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and teacher identity and cognition—and salient characteristics of the contexts in which they work. Those descriptive findings lay the foundation for the qualitative analysis presented in the next chapter, which answers the research question on how teacher educators understand their language use in relation to the teacher capabilities they value.

## Chapter VII: How Teacher Educators Link Language Use to Valued Capabilities

This chapter presents findings of the qualitative component of this convergent mixed-methods study on English language teacher education (ELTE) responding to the research question: *How do EFL teacher educators understand the relationship between their language use practices and the teacher capabilities they most value?* I first describe the ways that teacher educators link their language use with their most highly valued teacher capabilities, links which often involve enabling or constraining factors they perceive in their teaching circumstances. Next, I discuss what these findings suggest about language use practices and the relationship between language and valued capabilities in ELTE. Finally, I highlight the limitations of this analysis and conclude with takeaways to bring into the integrated analysis in the next chapters.

Regardless of their language use, teacher educators largely identified the same set of teacher capabilities as ELTE outcomes, as discussed in the previous chapter. However, some differences by language use practice are evident when we consider the types of specific teacher capabilities that participants most value (see Table 22). Those with almost English-only approaches most often prioritized English proficiency, followed by pedagogical knowledge, other ELT content knowledge, and, lastly, teacher identity and cognition. Conversely, those with multilingual approaches most often prioritized capabilities related to teacher identity and cognition, described in terms of teacher vocation, reflection, and professional ethics, followed by capabilities related to pedagogical knowledge, English proficiency, and finally, other ELT content knowledge.

The qualitative portion of this study sought to capture how the participants themselves understand this relationship between their language use practices and the teacher capabilities that they most value. Figure 4 organizes participants along two continuums, according to their

**Table 22***Types of Teacher Capabilities that Participants Most Highly Value, by Language Use Practice*

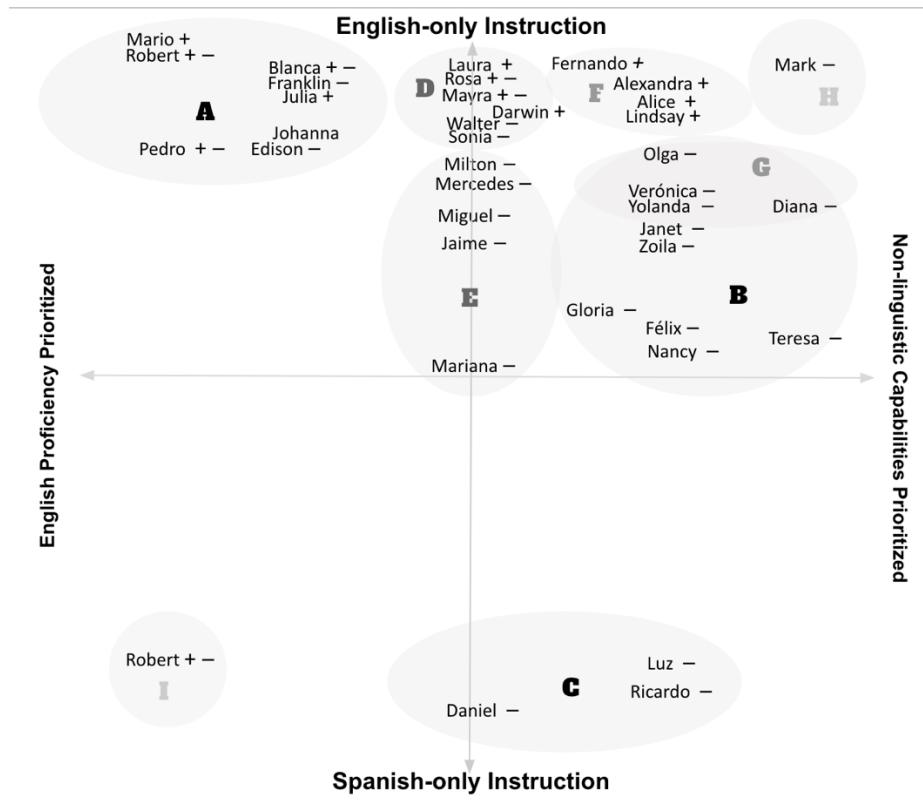
Language Use Practice	Most Highly Valued Teacher Capability Types			
	English proficiency	Other ELT content knowledge	Pedagogical knowledge	Teacher identity and cognition
Almost English-only	Blanca	Alexandra	Alice	Diana
	Edison	Darwin	Diana	Fernando
	Fernando	Fernando	Mark	Mark
	Franklin	Laura	Mayra	Mercedes
	Julia	Lindsay	Mercedes	Milton
	Laura	Mayra	Olga	
	Mario	Yolanda	Rosa	
	Mayra		Sonia	
	Mercedes		Walter	
	Milton			
	Pedro			
	Robert			
	Rosa			
	Sonia			
Walter				
Multilingual	Jaime	Janet	Diana	Diana
	Mariana	Yolanda	Jaime	Félix
	Mercedes	Verónica	Mariana	Gloria
	Miguel		Mercedes	Janet
	Milton		Miguel	Mercedes
			Olga	Milton
			Teresa	Nancy
		Verónica	Teresa	
			Zoila	
Spanish-medium Subjects	Daniel		Daniel	Daniel
	Robert			Luz
				Ricardo

*Note:* Participants names are repeated when the same individual most highly values multiple types of specific teacher capabilities or when the same individual uses more than one type of language use practice.

language use practices and the teacher capabilities they most valued. The X axis represents how much teacher educators prioritized teacher capabilities of English proficiency, on one extreme, or

**Figure 4**

*Participating Teacher Educators Grouped by Type of Link between Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities, Given Perceived Enabling and Constraining Factors (n = 37)*



*Note:* The midpoint of the Y axis represents a multilingual approach with equal use of English and Spanish; italics indicate teacher educators who included or embraced (rather than resisted or tolerated) Spanish, regardless of how much they used it. The midpoint of the X axis represents equally valuing English proficiency and non-linguistic capabilities (other ELT content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and/or teacher identity and cognition); underlining specifies teacher educators who prioritized teacher identity and cognition. + indicates perception of factors that enable ELTE students’ conversion of course inputs into capabilities; – indicates perception of factors that constrain conversion. Groups A through H indicate the type of link between language use practices and prioritized teacher capabilities, given perceived conversion factors, from the most closely aligned to misaligned. One participant (Robert) appears twice due to two distinct teaching circumstances.

non-linguistic teacher capabilities on the other extreme.<sup>23</sup> While the non-linguistic teacher capabilities are various (specifically: other ELT content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge,

<sup>23</sup> Participants placed on the far left spoke only about English proficiency when asked what goals were important to them; those closer to the middle mentioned some non-linguistic capabilities as important but stated that English

and/or teacher identity and cognition), I chose to group them together and contrast them with linguistic capabilities (i.e., English proficiency) based on prior literature and this study's qualitative data. Both the literature<sup>24</sup> and participants' comments in this study<sup>25</sup> describe tension between developing English proficiency versus developing other teacher capabilities. Which specific other capabilities those are varies and is sometimes unspecified, but the idea that English proficiency competes for priority with other capabilities that are non-linguistic is a consistent, common theme. Grouping non-linguistic capabilities in contrast to linguistic capabilities in this analysis is therefore consistent with how EFL teacher capabilities are commonly thought of and makes it possible to see patterns in how valued capabilities link to language use practices.

While the X axis in Figure 4 represents valued teacher capabilities, the Y axis represents how much teacher educators used only English or only Spanish, with the midpoint representing a multilingual approach with equal use of English and Spanish.<sup>26</sup> I use these two continuums rather than categories to better capture variation within categories, the strength of participants'

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proficiency matters to them more. Participants on the far right explicitly stated that they do not consider English proficiency an important goal in teaching content courses, whereas those in the middle referred to English as a lower priority or simply omitted mentioning it among their goals. Those in the middle valued both English proficiency and non-linguistic capabilities equally.

<sup>24</sup> In prior literature, Barahona (2015) describes tension between developing English proficiency and pedagogical knowledge, while Banegas and Martínez Argudo (2019) describe tension between English proficiency and teacher identity and cognition. Dávila (2018) describes competition between English proficiency and "other important pedagogical aspects" (p. 231) and Argudo et al. (2018) are similarly general in their worry that "language is being relegated to second position, and it is not being developed with content, simultaneously" (p. 72).

<sup>25</sup> In this study, Mariana (multilingual approach) and Fernando (almost English-only approach) referred specifically to tension between developing English proficiency versus teacher identity and cognition, as "battling between two worlds" (Mariana) and "a debate that never leaves me be" (Fernando). More generally, teacher educators like Jaime and Zoila (multilingual approaches) described including Spanish as not ideal for developing English proficiency but useful for unspecified non-linguistic capabilities "for the content to be clear" (Jaime) and so that students "don't move on to the next content with gaps" (Zoila).

<sup>26</sup> In an effort to maintain the integrity of each individual teacher educators' case, I placed each participant in only one position in the figure, sometimes in a midway point considering multiple reported language use practices (e.g. Yolanda, who used mostly English in some courses and about 50% English in others). The exception is Robert, who appears on both ends of the language use continuum because it does not seem meaningful to represent a middle ground between his use of "99.9%" English in most courses and his obligation to teach one Spanish-medium subject.

apparent prioritization of certain capabilities over others, and the fact that several participants used more than one type of language use practice or valued multiple types of capabilities.

Finally, the ways teacher educators connected language use and valued capabilities varied not only by type of language use practice and type of valued capability, but also by the factors that they perceived as enabling or constraining ELTE students' conversion of their content courses into valued teacher capabilities. Figure 4 also uses plus and minus signs to represent teacher educators' perceptions of factors that enable (+) or constrain (-) their ELTE students' conversion of course inputs into capabilities. The figure groups teacher educators according to the ways they linked their language use and most valued teacher capabilities in the context of perceived enabling or constraining conversion factors. In the following sections, I describe how teacher educators linked their language use practices and the teacher capabilities that they most valued. These links vary from seeing these concepts as closely aligned (Groups A, B and C in Figure 4), to misaligned (Groups H and I in Figure 4).

### **Close Alignment**

Teacher educators often understood their language use practices as aligning closely with the teacher capabilities that they most valued fostering. This was at least sometimes the case for 21 of the 37 participants in this study. These teacher educators saw their language use approaches as the optimal input for their ELTE students to convert content courses into the most important teacher capabilities. Typically, they understood their language use practices as optimal in light of enabling or constraining conversion factors that they perceived their students as facing; however, for some of these teacher educators, conversion factors did not seem to be an important factor in linking language and valued capabilities. In the following sections, group letters refer to the groups identified in Figure 4.

### ***Group A: Purposefully English-only Approaches***

Eight teacher educators (see Table 23) saw their use of almost English-only approaches in ELTE content classes as helping their ELTE students acquire the teacher capability these teacher educators most highly value: English proficiency. As Johanna explained, “I try to always maintain English for the purpose of them progressively improving their development of [language] skills.” Most of these teacher educators mentioned other valuable teacher capabilities but gave priority to language abilities, such as when Blanca stated her goals as “that first they use the language they are going to teach, secondly, that they have classroom management.” Mario articulated why it is important to him for his ELTE content classes to be almost exclusively in English, suggesting that he (at least to some extent) prioritized ELTE students’ acquisition of English proficiency over their understanding of the content:

At that stage the students’ level of English is rather high, at least B1+, B2. So... they are supposed to learn in English. Not just the subject is in English, but the more we use English, the more they listen to English and they use English, the better for them so that they can improve their English level to the desired B2 level at least. ...in spite of the fact that the level of understanding or comprehension could be 80%, 85%, 90%, it is better for them.

Mario’s comments illustrate how teacher educators saw their almost English-only approaches as closely aligned with their valuing English proficiency, while also considering social factors (language use policy and norms) and ELTE students’ personal factors (language levels).

Most of these teacher educators perceived factors that enabled ELTE students’ conversion of almost English-only input into valued teacher capabilities—specifically, students’ existing language abilities. Five of the eight attributed these enablers to the fact that they taught

**Table 23***Teacher Educators with Purposefully English-only Approaches (n = 8)*

Participant	Most Highly Valued Teacher Capabilities	Perceived Student Enabling Factors	Perceived Student Constraining Factors
Blanca	English proficiency	Language level	Language level
Edison	English proficiency		Language level
Franklin	English proficiency		Mixed-ability groups
Johanna	English proficiency		Language level
Julia	English proficiency	Language level	
		Interest in ELTE	
		Entry expectations	
Mario	English proficiency	Language level	
Pedro	English proficiency	Language level	Language level
Robert*	English proficiency	Language level	Language level
		Similar levels	

*Note:* \*Robert also uses Spanish-medium instruction in another context.

in later semesters, though Blanca and Johanna also taught in early semesters (where they resistantly allowed minimal amounts of Spanish) and Franklin did not mention the semester in which he taught. Sometimes, teacher educators implied that they observed student success with English-medium instruction, as with Julia’s response to whether her language use approach hindered reaching her goals, “I haven’t had any major issues, obviously since I’ve worked with high levels.” However, these teacher educators often referred more to students’ expected level rather than their observed aptness for English-only inputs, as when Pedro explained that in one of his courses “everything is done in English because they’re in the English major and at the level of seventh semester, so by then it should be expected that they be able to completely communicate in English.” When these teacher educators observed some ELTE students struggling with English-only instruction, they tended to view those students as “the exception and I tend to ignore them in this case because I don’t think they should be there if they don’t have already a B2” (Robert). Julia framed these exceptions as more a problem of expectations



than of ability when she described how she handles students who complain of not understanding her:

my tactic is always, why are you in this major—if you know that the major is in English, you should already be used to listening to everything in English...and some students say ‘well, ok,’ little by little they work it out.<sup>27</sup>

Robert, on the other hand, emphasized what he saw as his university’s increased success at teaching language skills in the first PINE semesters:

I don’t have anybody like I used to have maybe ten years ago... where I had some students who were really out of, like below A2, and I don’t have these cases with the advanced students. And that’s why I think that, for example, it’s okay to insist a little bit more on continuing to use English, because I know that this is going to help them.

Thus, teacher educators’ attitudes towards students demonstrating insufficient English proficiency to learn well in English-only content classes or appearing to want or need some Spanish input were also relevant to teacher educators in this group perceiving a context that enabled rather than constrained students’ converting almost English-only input into valuable capabilities.

Franklin, one of just three of the teacher educators in this group (along with Edison and Johanna) who did not describe any factors enabling his ELTE students, implied that factors constraining students would not be a major concern if not for administrative considerations. He explained how students’ levels enter into his use of almost only English to foster language proficiency:

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<sup>27</sup> In the original Spanish, “siempre mi recurso es, porque está en esta carrera—si sabe que la carrera es en inglés, usted ya debe estar familiarizado con escuchar todo en inglés... y algunos estudiantes dicen ‘bueno, sí,’ poco a poco le van dando.”

There are students who take advantage of the system or know the system well enough that they manage to reach the higher levels and they don't speak English. So those are the first ones to complain that they don't understand such and such professor's class and they find ways to work those issues to their favor. ...sometimes I've got to also use Spanish, I do it because, otherwise, in the long run I'll have students complaining to my boss or my supervisor saying that I'm a bad professor, that I don't listen to them, that I don't explain well, blah blah blah.

Thus, any perceived constraints on students' ability to learn from almost English-only classes did not appear to factor into the way that teacher educators in this group connected English use with ELTE outcomes.

Fostering and foregrounding ELTE students' English proficiency was framed as an antidote to the problem in the Ecuadorian school system of reliance on the Spanish-medium grammar-translation method for teaching English. Robert characterized the problem: "the main issue I've seen with very, very low proficiency in teachers is that they don't speak English at all, they basically explain grammar of English in Spanish. And I've seen that repeatedly and repeatedly." For Franklin, using English almost exclusively in ELTE addresses that problem:

They have to use English because we're supposed to be educating English teachers. But then those English teachers go and want to, you know, they want to teach English just in Spanish. And then people ask, 'Ok, where were they educated?' So, we can't allow those kinds of students to think that you can teach English just speaking Spanish because they themselves didn't have great English teachers, that it go on. We have to end it.

In that way, teacher educators who connected their almost English-only practices with the high value they placed on English proficiency may have associated the ideal of English-only in ELTE with an ultimate value of changing teachers' language use practices in Ecuadorian ELT.

Notably, the connection between English-only practices and most valuing teachers' English proficiency is premised upon the assumption that an English-only approach is optimal for English language learning, a common misconception that is contested by research on multilingual practices and language development (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Chen et al., 2022; Kerr, 2016; Paterson, 2021). Pedro stood out as the only teacher educator in this group who took an inclusive stance on Spanish use. That was consistent with his expressed belief that a multilingual approach can foster English learning—not only non-linguistic content learning. (Such beliefs are discussed along with language ideologies in Chapter 9.)

### ***Group B: Purposefully Multilingual Approaches***

Ten teacher educators (see Table 24) viewed their use of multilingual approaches in at least some of their ELTE content courses as allowing ELTE students to acquire the non-linguistic teacher capabilities these educators prioritized, such as pedagogical knowledge and teacher identity and cognition, given substantial constraints related to both their students and the context.

Teacher educators in this group emphasized how their multilingual language use practices result in ELTE students reaching learning goals that represent non-linguistic teacher capabilities in the areas of pedagogical knowledge and ELT knowledge. They explicitly separated language use from evidence of student learning. For instance, Teresa spoke of learning “demonstrated at the end of the semester, when they apply their achievements, the concepts,” regardless of whether students have used English or a mix of English and Spanish in her teaching

**Table 24***Teacher Educators with Purposefully Multilingual Approaches (n = 10)*

Participant	Most Highly Valued Teacher Capabilities	Perceived Enabling Factors	Perceived Constraining Factors
Diana*	Pedagogical knowledge Teacher identity & cognition		Language level Prior access to ELT Pandemic effects
Félix	Teacher identity & cognition		Language level Interest in ELTE Prior access to ELT Virtual modality
Gloria	Teacher identity & cognition		Language level Mixed ability groups Pandemic effects
Janet	Other ELT content Teacher identity & cognition		Language level Pandemic effects
Nancy	Teacher identity & cognition		Language level Pandemic effects Virtual modality
Olga*	Pedagogical knowledge		Language level
Teresa	Pedagogical knowledge Teacher identity & cognition		Language level Prior access to ELT Mixed ability groups
Verónica*	Other ELT content Pedagogical knowledge		Language level Pandemic effects
Yolanda*	Other ELT content		Language level
Zoila	Teacher identity & cognition		Language level Mixed ability groups Pandemic effects Classroom space

*Note:* \*These participants also sometimes take almost English-only approaches, which are not addressed in this table.

methods classes. Similarly, Verónica said she needed to use some Spanish and that accomplished her goals, because:

When I say, ‘I’ve done a good job,’ independently of whether I’ve carried out my course in English perfectly 100%, 80% or 70%, the results are evident in the next stage. For example, with my research courses, when they go into the [thesis] process itself, ... they

know what they have to do and, well, according to the judgment of my colleagues who receive them, they say they have a good approach.

Janet saw her multilingual approach to teaching language acquisition theory as practical with her current post-pandemic cohort, stating the following:

most of them might have an A2, maybe five or six of the entire group have the B1 and they're where they should be, so I do use more Spanish with this group than I would with other groups just because you can tell that they are not getting the content.

Thus, these teacher educators related their language use approaches with non-linguistic content course objectives and emphasized observed student learning.

This group most often prioritized helping ELTE students acquire capabilities related to teacher identity and cognition, which contributed to their use of multilingual approaches. Some of the teacher educators who used the most Spanish in their English-medium courses understood teacher identity and cognition, especially the capabilities of being reflective and having vocation, as facilitating the acquisition of other valuable teacher capabilities. For Diana, a multilingual approach was central to fostering habits of teacher reflection:

First, [I] try to make them feel more comfortable, because at least the subjects that I teach are a lot of reflection, a lot of, 'What would you do in a context like that? How would you evaluate the student? How would you treat the student? Why is this student called lazy if we don't really know what is going on with him?' So, this expression from them, yes, they can do it in English, but perhaps the fear of pronouncing it wrong, the fear of not finding the right word—I get them to be open to doing it with the two languages.

Thus, the use of both English and Spanish created space for ELTE students and educators to develop reflective thinking more deeply than if they had been distracted by the pressures of interacting only in English.

Foremost among teacher identity and cognition capabilities was the capability of having vocation or loving the profession. The idea that vocation would form the foundation for teachers' continued learning explained both why these teacher educators prioritized non-linguistic outcomes and why they taught with multilingual approaches. For Gloria, for example,

formal education at the university is a momentary time in their professional life, where one tries to give them the theory and all the knowledge possible in a short time. But the point is to create that love to continue learning.

With that love, Gloria believed, English proficiency could be improved on the job, “as they are exposed to teaching, then they themselves will learn it first and... little by little will gradually increase their abilities to speak the language” (Gloria). For Teresa, encouraging students to use both English and Spanish as they feel comfortable was “a way to gradually bring them along, make them fall in love [with English learning and teaching], because for them to know they have that leeway”<sup>28</sup> removes anxiety. Like Gloria, Teresa believed teachers with vocation engage in life-long language learning, which led her to explicitly de-emphasize English proficiency as a priority: “the acquisition of the language does not worry me so much in the preparation as teachers—because I know that they are going to leave with an acceptable level of language, and they are going to improve it” (Teresa). Thus, these educators saw multilingual practices as creating the affective conditions for the acquisition of various teacher capabilities, but first and foremost teacher identity and cognition.

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<sup>28</sup> In the original Spanish, “alguna forma ir llevándolos, enamorándolos, porque a ellos saber que tienen esa facilidad...”

By de-linking English proficiency from other teacher capabilities and emphasizing life-long English learning fostered by teacher vocation, these teacher educators were able to argue for inclusion of ELTE students with varied English levels and explain their de-prioritization of English proficiency in contexts where teachers' English proficiency is a prominent concern. That rhetoric is evident in Diana's argument that:

there are kids who have [language] certifications since second semester and others who can't graduate because they haven't yet attained certification and it's the last document they need—but that doesn't take away from them going on to be excellent teachers, being excellent professionals who are already in practice, who have left a good mark in their pre-professional service. ...they will have their pace for learning the language and they will have to accomplish it, but it shouldn't be something that's a limitation or an impediment for them to continue getting educated as teachers.

For these teacher educators, the way that ELTE students feel about their profession and their professional learning comes first and facilitates other teacher capabilities (such as English proficiency). Multilingual approaches were most compatible with those priorities.

Perceived constraints on ELTE students' conversion of content courses into non-linguistic capabilities were central to the way teacher educators in this group thought about their language use practices. Notably, almost all the constraints these participants mentioned related to students' levels of English proficiency; thus, these factors were understood as constraints specifically in a context where content courses are taught with English-medium instruction. All 10 participants in this group described their ELTE students' language levels as a substantial constraint, sometimes associated with level of study. Four (Diana, Félix, Yolanda, Zoila) related this constraint to teaching in early PINE semesters, as when Zoila said that "100% use of English

in a third or fourth semester class is not possible.” Six others pointed to problems with language in later semesters (Gloria, Janet) or as part of their general university context (Nancy, Olga, Teresa, Verónica). For instance, Gloria described her context: “I’m now in 8<sup>th</sup> semester and they’re one step away from graduating and it’s hard for me to say ‘you don’t know English...’”

Teacher educators also described constraints that further specified why it may be difficult for some of their students to acquire non-linguistic capabilities through English-medium instruction. Six of the ten educators in this group (Diana, Gloria, Janet, Nancy, Verónica, Zoila) brought up the negative impact of remote learning conditions during the height of the COVID-19 pandemic on their students’ progress during prior semesters, particularly in English-language courses; three (Gloria, Teresa, Zoila) referred to a wide range of proficiency levels or lack of program entry requirements; and three (Diana, Félix, Teresa) described students’ limited proficiency as a problem of access to effective ELT prior to university. For example, Nancy noted that “it’s affected the level... since the pandemic, that deficit” (Nancy).

Constraining factors that were not directly related to ELTE students’ English levels were also present, though less prevalent or commented-on. Félix, Nancy, and Zoila noted constraints imposed by suboptimal instructional spaces, such as small classrooms for the number of students and ongoing remote study due to budget cuts or climatic disasters. Zoila, for instance, said that at her university, “the physical space isn’t adequate.” Finally, Félix repeatedly referred to the challenge of students having entered the PINE program “like skydivers, because they didn’t want to be teachers, they didn’t want to study English, they just wanted to have another major, unfortunately they didn’t get the score [for it] and had to pick whatever they got” (Félix).

Unlike the teacher educators with purposefully English-only approaches, who more often spoke of ELTE students’ language use as a question of personal responsibility, teacher educators



in this group tended to frame perceived constraints related to language as social issues and to express concern for adverse effects on students who struggle with English-medium instruction.

This is evident in Félix's comment:

What fault of theirs is it to not have had English training in high school... To put it plainly or informally, if I tried to make my classes or if all the professors' classes were 95 or 100% in English, well, I think that from my perspective from my university, we wouldn't have many graduates.

For Félix, that hypothetical outcome would not only be problematic institutionally, but would be an unfair adverse outcome for ELTE students. Teresa also presented her multilingual approach as a question of justness, "a way that I have found for the moment to be just, to be fair to them."

While this group varied dramatically from the purposefully English-only group in language use practices, most valued capabilities, and ways they experienced contextual constraints, some of these educators also seemed to see their approaches to language in ELTE as a model for how they hoped for ELTE students to teach. For instance, Gloria thought her own openness to Spanish helped prepare her students for challenging circumstances in local schools where a strictly English-only approach "can hurt, can block someone and not make the student be successful in learning the English language." Verónica also suggested that ELTE students may not be successful if they adhere too strictly to an English-only ideal. In her words:

They go to do their pre-professional service and encounter an adverse reality that the scientific content doesn't teach them about, at least the content about English [teaching].

They face a reality where English class is taught 70% in Spanish. ... So the [ELTE students] at that moment take it as demotivating...

These comments imply that ELTE students need examples of how to negotiate the divide between the way they are theoretically told to teach and the realities of many Ecuadorian public-school classrooms.

Six teacher educators in this group (Diana, Gloria, Janet, Nancy, Teresa, Yolanda) embraced including Spanish within English-medium instruction as useful and fair, while the remaining four (Félix, Olga, Verónica, Zoila) appeared to merely tolerate it as unfortunate but necessary.<sup>29</sup> Yet, all the teacher educators in this group suggested they would use more English if they felt they could while also meeting their teaching goals. Thus, purposefully multilingual approaches were understood as optimal within specific teaching circumstances and structural challenges, not as abstractly optimal.

### ***Group C: Acceptingly Spanish-Medium Instruction***

Three of the 37 teacher educators in this study (see Table 25) taught ELTE content courses that were designated in their universities' curricula as Spanish-medium subjects and saw that designation as largely aligning with the teacher capabilities that they considered most important, most often capabilities of teacher identity and cognition. Daniel, who also highly valued teacher English proficiency in addition to pedagogical knowledge and teacher identity and cognition, considered it appropriate that his courses be taught in Spanish because "they are solely content courses" and because "it is fundamental that the students completely understand what they are doing [and] why they are doing it." Ricardo taught various educational foundations courses and noted that "Spanish is the only way they have to understand this topic because of the level that they're at... when I have them." Luz also considered Spanish necessary for her linguistics

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<sup>29</sup> This distinction is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 6, in the section describing multilingual approaches.

**Table 25***Teacher Educators with Acceptingly Spanish-medium Instruction (n = 3)*

Participant	Most Highly Valued Teacher Capabilities	Perceived Student Enabling Factors	Perceived Student Constraining Factors
Daniel	Pedagogical knowledge Teacher identity & cognition English proficiency		Language level
Luz	Teacher identity & cognition		Language level
Ricardo	Teacher identity & cognition		Language level

courses, “otherwise I couldn’t have the assertiveness to get there with the content that is planned” and “otherwise they would keep totally quiet without participating.”

Because these teacher educators did not necessarily have the opportunity to use English or a multilingual approach, the link between their language use practices and their valued teacher capabilities was somewhat less relevant to them than that link seemed to be for the purposefully English-only or purposefully multilingual groups. Ricardo did not himself have the English proficiency to teach his courses in English, and the three educators described their courses as Spanish-medium according to official curricula. However, Luz and Daniel did mention the possibility of choosing or getting authorization to teach officially Spanish-medium courses in English, and Luz pondered whether she and her colleagues were more comfortable with Spanish and used official documents as “an excuse.” Whether or not their language use practices were freely chosen, teacher educators in this group experienced Spanish-medium instruction as aligning with (most of) the teacher learning outcomes they most highly valued.

In summary, teacher educators with purposefully English-only or multilingual approaches and with acceptingly Spanish-medium instruction (Groups A, B and C) understood their language use practices to closely align with the teacher capabilities they most valued as ELTE outcomes. Such alignment was less straightforward for teacher educators in groups D and E.

## **Ambiguous Alignment**

Sometimes teacher educators understood their language use practices as aligning with *some* of the teacher capabilities they most highly valued: they valued both linguistic and non-linguistic teacher capabilities and usually perceived constraints that implied prioritizing one or the other. These teacher educators (11 of the 37 participants in this study) connected their language use approaches with teacher capabilities they highly valued in ways that were ambiguous—in my view as a researcher, and sometimes in the views of participants—because some of their valued capabilities appeared to be overlooked.

### ***Group D: Compromisingly English-only Approaches***

As with the purposefully English-only group, the seven teacher educators in this group (see Table 26) linked their use of almost English-only approaches to the goals they sought to accomplish in ELTE. However, unlike the purposefully English-only group, the participants in this group stated that fostering non-linguistic teacher capabilities—specifically, other ELT content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge—was just as important to them as fostering English proficiency when teaching ELTE content courses.<sup>30</sup> Nonetheless, in linking their language use with teacher capabilities they valued, these participants foregrounded English proficiency. Laura articulated this association between almost English-only approaches and valuing linguistic capabilities, where any alignment with non-linguistic outcomes was ambiguous:

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<sup>30</sup> In fact, Darwin stated that in content courses, English is merely “a tool” and not among his goals. However, repeated comments about his aim to create opportunities for students to practice English (e.g. “if it is a language class or content class, I try to give them that language exposure as much as possible because I didn’t have it when I was a student”), suggest that English proficiency *was* among the teacher capabilities he most valued in ELTE. I therefore included him in this group, which best fits his comments overall.

The use of English during the entirety of class time does help reach the learning objectives, because the students are also motivated to speak in English. And if the professor gives that example of using English the whole time, the students also make an effort to reach that objective.

The prioritization of English proficiency implicit in these teacher educators' understanding of their language use practices was also evident in the idea, shared with the purposefully English-only group, that regardless of other considerations, "the more they practice [English] the more positive it will be" (Rosa). Thus, while these teacher educators professedly valued both non-linguistic and linguistic capabilities, their use of almost only English seemed to be a compromise where linguistic goals dominated.

**Table 26**

*Teacher Educators with Compromisingly English-only Approaches (n = 7)*

Participant	Most Highly Valued Teacher Capabilities	Perceived Student Enabling Factors	Perceived Student Constraining Factors
Darwin	Other ELT content*	Language level	**
Laura	English proficiency Other ELT content	Language level	**
Mayra	English proficiency Other ELT content	Language level	Language level Mixed-ability groups
Rosa	Pedagogical knowledge English proficiency	Language level	Interest in ELTE
Sonia	Pedagogical knowledge English proficiency	Interest in ELTE	Language level
Walter	Pedagogical knowledge English proficiency		Language level Prior access to ELT Mixed-ability groups

*Note:* \*Darwin strongly implied that English proficiency was also among his most highly valued teacher capabilities. \*\*Darwin and Laura spoke of hypothetical constraints related to students' language level.

Most of these teacher educators did consider that some of their ELTE students experience constraints on the conversion of English-only content courses into the non-linguistic capabilities they valued. Laura and Mayra sought to ‘grade’ their speech (referring to adjusting one’s speed, word choice, etcetera, to be accessible to the listener), since English-medium instruction “could impede our students getting their learning objectives if we don’t know how to use language properly with them” (Laura). Sonia resorted to minimal Spanish use “just in exceptional cases when I see that something really is not being understood” and Rosa allowed that “there is some level of flexibility maybe in the first levels, but from there we have a goal to always have English for the kids in class.” Thus, despite or perhaps because of the difficulties they saw some students having with English, using as much English as possible appeared as a goal in itself, an outlook shared with the purposefully English-only group. Furthermore, unlike Pedro in the purposefully English-only group or the almost English-only teacher educators to be discussed subsequently in Group F, who took inclusive stances on Spanish, all participants in this group resisted Spanish occurring in their classes.

The way that educators in this group viewed students’ conversion factors especially set them apart from the educators with multilingual approaches. In these teacher educators’ view, struggling ELTE students need to adapt to English-medium instruction more than English-medium instruction should adapt to them. For instance, Rosa took the perspective that almost English-only instruction is “something that they chose” by enrolling in ELTE and that motivated students persevere, while “in the case of the students who withdraw or leave along the way realizing that this profession wasn’t for them, yes, I believe it becomes some kind of frustration, maybe they didn’t have the foundation [for English-medium instruction].”

From the perspective of these educators, almost English-only approaches may help address the language gap linguistically disadvantaged ELTE students experience. However, because these teacher educators emphasized linguistic achievement, it was ambiguous how successfully those students access the non-linguistic capabilities that these teacher educators said were equally important to them. The idea that an almost English-only approach is good for ELTE students who struggle with English-medium instruction because it improves their English is evident in comments made by Sonia and Walter. Sonia said she encounters students with low proficiency in her content courses and “there, [almost English-only instruction] could perhaps be an impediment, but even so, making them, even if they can’t do it perfectly, for them to do it in the language I think does help them improve.” Walter described substantial challenges for students at his university, which has a rural catchment area. He explained that some students enter ELTE with very limited English “even if being a teacher was their first option, having chosen this major Pedagogy of Languages” and are shocked by the language level of the program and some classmates. Walter saw those students as being “challenged...to better themselves”<sup>31</sup> and reported that, while some decide “this is not for me,” most catch up with the needed language abilities by later semesters. The extent to which these students achieve non-linguistic learning outcomes was not discussed.

Unlike the teacher educators with purposefully multilingual approaches who saw ELTE courses as unique opportunities to develop non-linguistic capabilities and believed graduates can improve their English throughout their careers, this group saw their classes as unique opportunities to develop English proficiency. For Sonia, “the classroom is really the moment when the kids, just like us, can practice [English],” Mayra considered that “outside the class...

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<sup>31</sup> In the original Spanish, “retado... a superarse”.

they don't have the opportunity to practice," and similar comments were repeated by all the teacher educators in this group. Walter implied that graduates may develop pedagogical skill throughout their professional lives when he stated that both language proficiency and classroom management are essential, but "they will gain experience little by little, no matter how many hours of practice they do during their studies, it's never going to be enough." Thus, non-linguistic teacher capabilities, while valued by these teacher educators, seemed less urgent than English language acquisition. Almost English-only practices aligned with their most valued teacher capabilities in the sense that they saw practice using English as urgently central to their goals.

Darwin was an outlier in this group, though he shared the common view that "we're trying to give them as much as possible of this speaking environment in English." Perhaps because he emphasized non-linguistic ELT content knowledge more than others in this group, Darwin was the only one of these educators who seemed to question whether his almost English-only practices were optimal for the teacher capabilities he sought to foster. Those doubts were apparently raised by participating in this research:

I use English the whole time. And obviously the main goal of [my content courses is] to know about linguistics, sounds, phonetics, phonology, first language acquisition, second language acquisition and so on. So, if I'm using English the whole time, your question is does that impede my goals as a teacher and the goals of the students to learn those content objectives? I would say that I don't have the answer specifically to that question, because what I know is that obviously there are some students that struggle in that class, they might fail the whole class, they may have to repeat the class again the next semester. And actually, I haven't had the time to consider that, whether it is because they struggle



with the language, so they don't understand what I'm saying, or is [it] the content that they are struggling with? So, it's a kind of question that also is making me, in my mind right now, also want to know more why, what is happening in that class.

These comments suggest that, upon further reflection, Darwin might understand the link between his language use and the teacher capabilities he values differently and might even adjust his approach or restate his priorities. His case further illustrates the fluid and temporal nature of the groupings I use here to characterize teacher educators' ideas about language and valued capabilities.

***Group E: Compromisingly Multilingual Approaches***

Like the compromisingly English-only group, the five teacher educators in this group (see Table 27) identified English proficiency as a high priority teacher capability alongside other,

**Table 27**

*Teacher Educators with Compromisingly Multilingual Approaches (n = 5)*

Participant	Most Highly Valued Teacher Capabilities	Perceived Student Enabling Factors	Perceived Student Constraining Factors
Jaime	Pedagogical knowledge English proficiency		Language level Interest in ELTE Mixed ability groups
Mariana	Pedagogical knowledge English proficiency		Language level Mixed ability groups Pandemic effects
Mercedes*	English proficiency Pedagogical knowledge Teacher identity & cognition		Language level Interest in ELTE Prior access to ELT Mixed ability groups
Miguel	Pedagogical knowledge English proficiency		Language level
Milton*	English proficiency Teacher identity & cognition		Language level Class size and time

*Note:* \*Mercedes and Milton also report almost English-only approaches.

non-linguistic capabilities such as pedagogical knowledge and teacher identity and cognition. However, unlike the compromisingly English-only group, these educators linked their language use practices to non-linguistic goals and to substantial constraints on students' conversion of ELTE content classes into teacher capabilities, seeing themselves as sometimes sacrificing the value of English practice because of those perceived constraints. They identified the same constraints as those identified by the purposefully multilingual group and, like that group, they therefore included more Spanish within English-medium instruction. Mercedes summed up a common sentiment expressed in one of the focus groups for teacher educators with multilingual approaches and shared by both the purposefully and compromisingly multilingual groups:

It helps us a lot of the time to maintain that duality, to try for 75 or 80% English in class and another 20% for the kids, so as to not [*pauses*]*—not harm them,*<sup>32</sup> because a lot of them, as we all agree, don't have sufficient preparation... so that they can understand the content and also feel confident that they can do it."

Like the purposefully multilingual group, some of these educators (Mercedes, Jaime) also sought to foster teacher vocation and perceived interest in ELTE as a constraining factor for many students who did not necessarily choose the profession but enrolled because of the way that places in public university programs are allocated. Jaime described a need to "first of all manage to make the student fall in love with the major or not be there just by obligation to get a degree" (Jaime). Thus, these teacher educators saw their language use practices as necessarily responding to structural challenges that create sub-optimal conditions for ELTE.

Sometimes, these teacher educators appeared torn between linguistic and non-linguistic learning outcomes and between languages. Miguel got permission to teach a course that was

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<sup>32</sup> In the original Spanish, "no vulnerarles".

originally designated for Spanish-medium instruction in English and reported doing so “around 85% approximately, because unfortunately I also have a group of students who don’t speak the language.”<sup>33</sup> He perceived conflicting imperatives from the PINE curriculum, where “in theory, from the moment I walk in until I leave, everything should be in English; however, the same subject also ultimately indicates that people need to understand the content of the subject to be able to teach it [that way].” Thus, Miguel saw students’ developing their English as competing with their learning the content of his teaching methods course. Mariana reported using equal amounts of Spanish and English:

if a student doesn’t have a B1 level, then [that student] won’t be able to talk about complex issues, right? I mean, a reflection... if I make them speak in English, the reflection that they do will be limited and I think that it might not be possible to internalize it.

However, she worried that “from the perspective of the student and the need [the student] has...to practice the language...I think it doesn’t help much the idea of using Spanish in class.” Furthermore, Mariana felt her multilingual approach only sometimes aligned with the capabilities she valued, since “with the philosophical part I think that yes, there it helps me a lot, it helps, but if I have the objective that they learn the terminology in English, well there it doesn’t help me.” In this way, Mariana expressed tension between her non-linguistic goals related to teacher identity and cognition and her linguistic goals for her students. Thus, some teacher educators felt that their multilingual language use practices, though well-adapted to achieving content goals in challenging teaching circumstances, did not fully align with the ELTE outcomes they valued. This is further evidenced by the way that all the teacher educators in this

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<sup>33</sup> In the original Spanish: “...que no manejan el idioma.”

group except Milton seemed to tolerate rather than embrace the amount of Spanish they reported using.

However, sometimes it seemed as if these teacher educators actually prioritized teachers' non-linguistic capabilities and related their apparent regret about including Spanish to a social norm of valuing English, more than to highly valuing English learning outcomes. Mariana said that her department had discussed language use approaches in ELTE content courses and "we do agree that it should be the target language that is used," but admitted that "personally, I'm more interested in the philosophical part, I like reflection... so in that, I do prefer the mother tongue." Jaime was confident that a multilingual approach was helpful because "I think it's important that the student leave having learned something more than my demonstration that I speak English, I need the content to be clear." Yet, he also felt "there are circumstances in which you shouldn't, I feel I shouldn't use Spanish" and added that "I feel good in the parts where I can work with just English, because that way I can see that the student is also doing their part." Milton found Spanish useful for guiding ELTE students in creative problem-solving related to their pre-professional service, a capability that he believed essential for teachers. For Milton, Spanish was acceptable in tutoring sessions when time is precious: "there, we don't speak English, because we purely try to focus on the problem encountered and finding a solution to that. But then when we go into class with everyone, I present the problem, I explain, but in English." Thus, Milton foregrounded the valued capability of critical thinking when explaining his use of Spanish, and then indicated his compliance with the protocol of English-medium instruction in class.

In the cases of Milton and Mercedes, I struggled with whether to describe them as using almost English-only practices, multilingual practices, or both. Both were invited to focus groups for participants who reported multilingual approaches on the survey and then surprised me by

describing approaches closer to English-only than I expected. Like a few other participants when describing their language use practices, Milton and Mercedes tended to use an unspecific plural voice on behalf of their departments or universities, such as “we’re all working hard for the kids to get on level...and the [content] courses are in English, here”<sup>34</sup> (Mercedes). Both spoke of the value of including Spanish and also referred to it as a “problem” (Milton). Ultimately, I described them each as using both almost English-only and multilingual approaches and have included them in this compromisingly multilingual group, but I potentially could have included them in the compromisingly English-only group, above. The difficulty of grouping these participants is itself indicative of the ambiguous linking of language and valued capabilities that characterizes teacher educators in both those groups: no one type of teacher capability was most important for them, nor did English-only or multilingual approaches accomplish everything they valued.

To summarize, teacher educators with compromisingly English-only or multilingual approaches saw their language use practices as aligning with teacher capabilities they most valued as ELTE outcomes. Yet, those links explicitly or implicitly pushed some valued capabilities into the foreground and others into the background because these teacher educators valued both linguistic and non-linguistic capabilities and often faced substantial constraints. I characterize this connection between language and valued capabilities as ambiguously aligned: the connection is established, but not fully, explicitly explained.

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<sup>34</sup> In the original Spanish, “Estamos luchando todos porque los chicos se nivelan... y las asignaturas son en inglés, acá.”

## Indirect Alignment

In some cases, teacher educators did not directly link their language use practices with the teacher capabilities they most highly valued, nor did they see a discrepancy between their language use approaches and fostering their valued capabilities.

### *Group F: Flexibly English-only Approaches*

Four participants in this study (see Table 28) prioritized non-linguistic teacher capabilities<sup>35</sup> and used almost English-only approaches that they saw as not interfering with their aims as teacher educators, rather than linking these directly. These participants did not comment on how using English helps with their goals, instead making observations like: “We can reach the objectives. No, I don’t consider the use of English an impediment” (Alexandra).

Of primary importance for these teacher educators was the idea that their ELTE students’ existing language abilities made it possible for them to convert almost English-only input into

**Table 28**

*Teacher Educators with Flexibly English-only Approaches (n = 4)*

Participant	Most Highly Valued Teacher Capabilities	Perceived Student Enabling Factors	Perceived Student Constraining Factors
Alexandra	Other ELT content	Language level	
Alice	Pedagogical knowledge	Language level	
Fernando	Other ELT content	Language level	
	Teacher identity & cognition		
	English proficiency*		
Lindsay	Other ELT content	Language level	

*Note:* \*Fernando also highly values English proficiency but has been placed in this group as he speaks much more extensively about his non-linguistic goals.

<sup>35</sup> I have included Fernando in this group rather than Group D, despite his internal debate between prioritizing English proficiency and non-linguistic teacher capabilities. He spoke much more extensively about his non-linguistic goals and offered a counter-argument to his own reason for linking English-only practices to valuing English proficiency (“I understand about using the language mostly, because we can be models and the language has value... but... the largest amount of English that the kids are exposed to... is textbook instructions, and textbook instructions are something that you never use in practical life...”). For those reasons, he fits better in this group.

non-linguistic teacher capabilities. Everyone in this group made comments such as Alice's that "teaching teachers who have good language levels, [using Spanish] hasn't really come up that much," or Lindsay's comment that "our students normally tend to have a very good command of English, at least to be able to understand content and everything." Notably, the four teacher educators in this group all taught at private universities, representing all but one of the focus group participants from the private sector.

Furthermore, these teacher educators suggested concern for potential adverse effects on ELTE students who may be disadvantaged by their previous educational experiences, implying that they would be open to multilingual practices—or at least, greater inclusion of Spanish—if the need arose. Fernando explained that he was comfortable using English-only up to the point:

I feel that something makes [some students] feel that they are [*pauses*] impaired from communicating because they have a disadvantage that may be historical, economic, socioeconomic, sociopolitical—it makes things a little more complex... it becomes complicated to totally divorce ourselves from Spanish.

Alexandra said her department receives complaints from more English-proficient ELTE students when professors include Spanish in content classes and that she and colleagues consider this from an equity perspective and "explain to them that their classmates also need to understand." For Lindsay, it was important to explicitly invite Spanish use, even if her students did not appear to need it, because "a classroom environment sometimes is intimidating enough... having any restrictions put on them on language is even more intimidating, I think." All four teacher educators in this group took an inclusive stance on Spanish, though they rarely used it.

Thus, teacher educators in this group were similar to those with purposefully multilingual approaches, with the key difference that this group perceived enablers rather than constraints to English-medium instruction.

### ***Group G: Selectively English-only Approaches***

Four teacher educators previously discussed as having purposefully multilingual approaches (Group B) also sometimes used almost English-only approaches (Diana, Olga, Verónica, Yolanda). When speaking about their almost English-only practices, these teacher educators did not articulate direct links with their explicitly stated goals, which were non-linguistic, though they still appeared to find their values and practices coherent.

The explicitly-stated differences between when these teacher educators used almost English-only versus multilingual approaches were differences in course topic and level. Diana saw pedagogical knowledge and teacher identity and cognition as the most important teacher capabilities. She also believed in gradually augmenting the percentage of English use over the course of each semester, such that in later semesters “whether they are ready or not, I have to force them for it to be all in English, because they should be ready by then.”<sup>36</sup> It may be that Diana’s students became more able to learn content in English, that she felt greater urgency to help them raise their English proficiency, that she experienced greater social pressure to carry out English-medium instruction, or some combination of those possibilities. Yolanda spoke extensively about using a multilingual approach for mid-level research methods courses, describing other ELT content knowledge related to research as her priority. Yet, she noted that “the subjects with advanced semesters... the majority is in only English, even when it’s a content

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<sup>36</sup> Nonetheless, Diana said she offers multilingual supplemental sessions for those who struggle with her almost English-only classes.



subject,” without elaborating on how this approach may or may not align with the importance she placed on non-linguistic ELT content knowledge. Olga, who described pedagogical knowledge as her priority, also indicated that her language use practices varied by level because, in later semesters, “we have to motivate them” to speak more English. Whether these teacher educators perceived a lessening of constraints, an implicit shift in priorities, or some other contextual change, is unclear.

In some cases, teacher educators may see their almost English-only practices as indirectly aligning with highly valued non-linguistic capabilities related to pedagogical knowledge. For example, Olga described student presentations aimed at ELTE students “gradually losing the fear of public speaking, to be able to manage in front of a group and so they can, when it’s time for them to start working, that they already have self-confidence.” This indirect link was also supported by Verónica, who highly valued pedagogical knowledge and described using the most English in a course where “the kids teach demonstration classes.” Similarly, Verónica considered English practice useful for helping students feel confident rather than embarrassed when expressing themselves in the language. Thus, being confident in front of a class is a teacher capability that may be characterized as both linguistic and pedagogical.

In summary, teacher educators sometimes understood almost English-only practices to indirectly align with fostering non-linguistic teacher capabilities, especially when ELTE students had previously acquired English language proficiency that enabled this conversion. They may have also seen some pedagogical knowledge capabilities as complemented by English practice or may have valued English proficiency more than they said. Finally, it is possible that social factors that encourage maximizing English and minimizing Spanish sometimes led teacher educators to use almost only English even when that did not entirely align with their goals.

## **Misalignment**

Teacher educators who did not experience freedom to adopt the language use practices they considered optimal for fostering the teacher capabilities they most highly valued had approaches to language that they saw as at odds with the teacher capabilities they most valued fostering in their ELTE students. This was the case for two participants in this study (though one also had a purposefully English-only approach).

### ***Group H: Reluctantly English-only Approach***

Mark illustrated misalignment between using only English and valuing non-linguistic capabilities when students' language proficiency levels pose a constraint. Mark used English almost exclusively because of institutional policies, as well as what he perceived as student expectations that ELTE courses must be conducted in English. Mark explicitly stated that his language use practices and teaching goals misaligned:

When I'm doing this in English and I feel that... they're not getting it..., I end up reducing the complexity of the concepts and the ideas that I'm trying to transmit just because of the language. And that, when you say it out loud... that's just ridiculous because that's, you know, that's not what it's about.

Mark saw developing teachers' pedagogical knowledge and teacher identity and cognition as the real purpose of his instruction. He expressed those capabilities as "more important than them showing us that, yes, they've got a certain level of English." He therefore described his almost English-only approach as a "barrier."

### ***Group I: Reluctantly Spanish-medium Instruction***

Robert reported using an almost English-only approach that aligned with his belief that teachers' English proficiency should be prioritized in ELTE in most of his courses. However, he

was also assigned to teach an introductory, Spanish-medium content course. In keeping with his priorities for student learning, he briefly attempted to adopt English-medium instruction for that course “because more exposure is always better,” but reverted to Spanish because the English proficiency level of about half of the students “was not letting them understand.”

This example suggests that even when teacher educators—such as those with purposefully English-only approaches, like Robert—have clearly prioritized teacher capabilities and strong preferences for the language use approaches they see as aligned with those priorities, their actual language use practices are at some point contingent on the constraints of their teaching circumstances. Language use practices may be shaped by these contextual constraints to a greater degree than teacher educators’ underlying attitudes about what is important in ELTE and how it can be achieved. For instance, Robert’s comment that his teaching a Spanish-medium course was “just a kind of a waste of me or waste of someone who can speak English” reflected his belief in the high value of English-medium instruction and English proficiency in ELTE. He saw his own English proficiency—rather than, for example, his knowledge of research methods or his ability to connect with students—as the most valuable resource that the university should leverage.

### **In Summary: Linking Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities**

I have characterized the links between teacher educators’ language use practices in ELTE content courses and valued teacher capabilities, as they seemed to understand those connections, as closely aligned, ambiguously aligned, indirectly aligned, or misaligned. Almost English-only approaches were *closely aligned* with teachers’ English proficiency capability. In the context of substantial constraints on ELTE student’s conversion of English-medium content courses into teacher capabilities (e.g., limited existing English proficiency), multilingual approaches to

English-medium instruction and Spanish-medium instruction were also *closely aligned* with teachers' non-linguistic capabilities, especially teacher identity and cognition capabilities. Other teacher educators said that they equally highly valued linguistic capabilities and non-linguistic teacher capabilities (such as other ELT content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, or teacher identity and cognition) but perceived substantial constraints on their students' learning. In those cases, teacher educators' language use practices appeared to *align ambiguously* with the capabilities they sought to foster, as these educators seemed to be either sacrificing some capabilities they value or claiming to value some capabilities more than they truly did.

However, almost English-only approaches *indirectly aligned* with non-linguistic capabilities when teacher educators perceived enabling factors that allow ELTE students to acquire such capabilities by means of almost English-only inputs, or when confidence with English was seen to indirectly contribute to pedagogical skill. Finally, when teacher educators were obligated to adopt language use practices they saw as interfering with the capabilities they most highly valued, almost English-only approaches could be said to *misalign* with non-linguistic capabilities, just as Spanish-medium instruction *misaligned* with the teacher capability of English proficiency.

## **Discussion**

### ***Language Use Practices as Aligned with Highly Valued Teacher Capabilities***

The qualitative findings of this study suggest that teacher educators often do, in fact, consider their language use practices to be related to the teacher capabilities they most highly value cultivating in their ELTE students. While previous research has suggested that language of instruction in ELTE is relevant to specific teacher learning outcomes and English-medium instruction is often found in ELTE programs in Latin America and Ecuador that emphasize

English proficiency outcomes (Argudo et al., 2018; Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Martin, 2016), specific links between language use approaches and teacher capabilities have not previously been the object of study. This chapter presents data supporting the notion that teacher educators commonly understand the specific ways that they use language in teaching content classes as supporting ELTE students' development of specific capabilities.

Unsurprisingly, teacher educators saw almost English-only instruction and the value they placed on fostering English proficiency in teachers as closely linked. For some, this link was so important that they were willing to sacrifice ELTE students' ability to engage with course content—up to a point. Thus, for Mario, less than complete comprehension of English-only input about curriculum design was acceptable because English practice was essential; yet, Robert, who appeared to feel similarly, switched to Spanish-medium instruction in one introductory course when half of the class seemed unable to learn about research methods in English. While these teacher educators often prioritized English proficiency over non-linguistic learning outcomes, linguistic and non-linguistic capabilities may also be understood as related or even overlapping. Some teacher educators saw almost-English only practices as aligning with the development of teacher pedagogy and perhaps teacher identity and cognition, both non-linguistic capabilities, as these were linked by teachers' confidence in their ability to teach in English. That link is supported by Faez et al.'s (2021) quantitative analysis demonstrating a relationship between teachers' English language proficiency and their belief in their competence as teachers. In this sense, English proficiency could be thought of as a teacher capability that enables development of other capabilities.

The high value that some teacher educators placed on English proficiency and on ideally English-only practices related to their concern for the problem of ineffective, traditional

grammar-translation methods that have been consistently documented in the Ecuadorian EFL context (Acosta & Cajas, 2018; Burgin & Daniel, 2017; Calle et al., 2012; Ortega-Auquilla & Minchala-Buri, 2019). The observation that, especially in socioeconomically and geographically marginalized contexts, primary and secondary students often do not experience much English language input during English classes seemed to weigh heavily in the minds of teacher educators who saw fostering English proficiency through English-medium instruction as the most urgent ELTE priority. Those teacher educators seemed to see the teacher functioning of using English to teach English as the first step towards addressing a problem of ineffective teaching that they recognized as multifaceted. That perspective is prevalent in policy literature as well as major initiatives to improve ELT in Ecuador and the region, which devote special attention to raising teachers' measurable English proficiency (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; González Moncada & Llurda, 2016; Leggett, 2015). While teacher educators with that perspective may also highly value non-linguistic capabilities, especially pedagogical knowledge, González Moncada and Llurda (2016) caution that foregrounding teachers' improvement in English proficiency perpetuates "the inaccurate belief that language competence is the only skill required to teach the language successfully" (p. 102).

Other teacher educators understood multilingual language use practices (and occasionally, Spanish-medium instruction) in ELTE as closely linked to their prioritization of non-linguistic teacher learning outcomes in the context of substantial constraints on students' learning through English-medium instruction. That perspective did not imply lack of interest in English use. These teacher educators would, and sometimes did, use more English and even almost English-only approaches when they considered those inputs did not interfere with ELTE students acquiring non-linguistic ELT content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, or

capabilities related to teacher identity and cognition. Teacher educators included Spanish within English-medium instruction, adopting a multilingual approach, because they observed their ELTE students struggling with English and wanted to remove an unnecessary barrier. The way that some teacher educators saw use of a combination of English and Spanish as supporting content goals and creating a supportive learning environment that might also allow for English learning suggests that multilingual practices may also benefit emergent bilingual teachers-in-formation in similar ways as they have been shown to benefit emergent bilingual students (Kerr, 2016; Ooi & Aziz, 2021; Rabbidge, 2019).

Teacher educators who saw multilingualism as helpful in the ELTE content course context evoked the sociocultural perspective on ELTE (Johnson, 2016) and concern for teachers adapting to local contexts. Teacher identity and cognition were often especially valuable to these teacher educators. They tended to see these capabilities—such as having vocation as a teacher, respecting students, and desiring to learn together with EFL students and teachers—as facilitating the development of other needed skills, like improved English speaking. In this sociocultural perspective on ELTE, teacher identity mediates other teacher learning (Abednia, 2012; Johnson, 2016). The links expressed by these teacher educators between multilingual practices, teacher identity, continual learning, and context are evocative of:

The concept of the plurilingual social agent [which] stresses the role of the user/ learner as a holistic being acting socially, whose personality develops through the complex interaction of their entire set of resources – cognitive, emotional, linguistic and cultural – in relation to the widening web of contexts in which they operate... in a complex paradigm that emphasizes the interplay between internal and external factors, agency and social context. (Piccardo et al., 2022, p. 8)

Teacher educators with multilingual approaches tended to see teacher functionings of being committed practitioners and creative problem-solvers—approaching their work in a certain way, more than any specific teaching practice—as the first step towards addressing a problem of ineffective teaching that they also recognized as multifaceted. Educators with this view might be sympathetic to the opinions of Ecuadorian public-school EFL teachers like those in Sevy-Biloon et al. 's (2020) study who mostly felt that some use of students' own language in English class was necessary. In valuing adaptation to constraints and framing good teaching as context-dependent, they suggested a reflective model of pedagogical knowledge (Barahona, 2015), in addition to a sociocultural perspective. This model can help to address “the theory and practice divide” (Barahona & Darwin, 2021, p. 6), which Verónica (almost English-only and multilingual approaches) described as the “adverse reality that the scientific content doesn't teach [ELTE students] about.”

The ways that teacher educators in this study linked their language use practices and most valued purposes—seeing almost English-only practices as aligned with prioritizing English proficiency and seeing multilingual practices as aligned with prioritizing non-linguistic capabilities in contexts where learners struggle with English-medium instruction—may seem common-sense and unsurprising. It should be noted that both perspectives largely uphold common but fallacious assumptions about language and learning, namely that monolingual approaches are better for language learning (Kedzierski, 2016; Phillipson, 1992) and that multilingual approaches are simply a scaffold for comprehension for learners with limited proficiency in the primary language of instruction (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021). Though teacher educators in this study with multilingual approaches suggested that such approaches can also support the linguistic capabilities and general development of teachers-in-information as



“plurilingual social agent[s]” (Piccardo et al., 2022, p. 8), their practices were largely based on perceived constraints rather than a focus on assets and opportunities.

### ***The Importance of Constraining Conversion Factors***

The specific relationships between language use practices and valued teacher capabilities discussed above were especially salient and relevant when there were constraints on how well ELTE students could meet non-linguistic objectives through English-medium instruction. Notably, this study did not identify any teacher educators who considered English proficiency to be the most important teacher capability and reported using a multilingual approach. However, teacher educators who reported using almost only English to teach content courses prioritized a variety of teacher capabilities. Likewise, teacher educators who most highly valued non-linguistic teacher capabilities ranged in their language use from Spanish-medium instruction to an approximately half-and-half combination of Spanish and English, to almost English-only instruction. Much of the difference between language use practices seemed to correspond to differences in the enablers or constraints teacher educators perceived as affecting their ELTE students. In this study, only teacher educators with almost English-only practices perceived enabling factors, such as an apparently high level of English proficiency among students or interest in becoming English teachers, while teacher educators with multilingual and Spanish-medium instruction perceived only constraining factors, such as an apparently low level of proficiency among students, effects of the pandemic, or lack of interest in becoming English teachers.

The idea of ELTE student conversion factors was key to how teacher educators related language and valued teacher capabilities not only because different teacher educators faced different empirical realities, but also because they thought about those realities differently. Those

who took almost English-only approaches and prioritized English proficiency more often saw the linguistic disadvantages with which some students enter university-based ELTE as a matter of personal responsibility and self-improvement. When students requested Spanish-language support, these educators questioned whether they belonged in ELTE. Such questions, along with Darwin's frank reflection that he had not considered whether linguistic difficulties are a factor for students who are not succeeding in his classes, evoke a similar outlook to that described by Ramadiro (2022) in regard to English-medium primary teacher education in South Africa. He observed the following:

There are colleagues in faculties of education around the country who simply do not make the connection between language proficiency and the ability to learn. ... To them language is invisible or at best they take it for granted that students have an equal opportunity to acquire English and especially high levels of academic literacy in this language, and that when a student is not proficient, this is regarded largely as an individual failing, relegated to be addressed through language and academic literacy remediation. (p. 15)

It is doubtful that language is truly "invisible" to many ELTE educators, as it is the core of their profession. Nonetheless, Ramadiro's (2022) description captures the attitude implied by some educators in this study, that ELTE students' difficulties with English, to the extent that they merit attention, are a practical concern divorced from the social forces at play in the schools and societies from which those students emerge and where they may subsequently teach.

In contrast, teacher educators with multilingual approaches or who prioritized non-linguistic outcomes more often framed the presence of less English-proficient students in their ELTE content classes in relation to broader social structures and talked about language use in

terms of inclusion and justice. The position of these multilingual educators aligns with the notion, put forth by advocates of translanguaging, that including own language supports social justice (Prilutskaya, 2021; Robinson et al., 2020), especially in the sense that it can mitigate disparities in English proficiency that create power hierarchies in classrooms and that are often associated with socioeconomic disparities and other marginalization (Rabbidge, 2019). The potential for multilingual practices to create more just and inclusive classroom spaces may, in this sense, be extended into teacher education spaces and ELTE specifically.

However, it is important to remember that ELTE students are also teachers-in-formation and that teacher education ultimately aims to positively impact student outcomes (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Darling-Hammond et al., 2017; Voisin & Ávalos-Bevan, 2022).

Franklin raised that issue when he argued that almost English-only practices are essential in order to break a cycle of ineffective Spanish-medium EFL instruction. Thus, Franklin placed the focus of concern with the future students of his current students. In aspiring to break a cycle of ineffective language teaching, teacher educators may prefer less inclusive language use practices because they value what they understand as potentially more just outcomes for future Ecuadorian students over what might be more equitable treatment of ELTE students who are products of the same system.

The notion that English-only practices will lead to more effective teaching and better outcomes for future Ecuadorian students rests on the assumption that multilingual approaches, while they might support teachers-in-formation in other ways, detract from English learning and discourage use of English in the EFL classroom. Scholars of multilingual pedagogies, however, would contest that “plurilinguaging in the classroom is not a free-for-all” (Piccardo et al., 2022, p. 9) and that deliberate multilingual approaches in fact contribute positively to language

learning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Chen et al., 2022; Galante, 2022; Kerr, 2016; Paterson, 2021). Especially if we consider that English is an international language predominantly used by multilingual speakers whose hybrid and dynamic ways of using language are more relevant to contemporary learners than a standard, monolingual English variety (Galante, 2022; Kramersch & Hua, 2016) then multilingual approaches are *more* likely than English-only approaches to support quality EFL education.

Judgments on what kind of English is most valuable to Ecuadorian teachers and students are implicit in teacher educators' decisions. In emphasizing the value of ELTE students speaking only English, perhaps teacher educators with almost English-only approaches understand themselves as giving their public-university ELTE students and their future ELT students access to the language of power, as standard, monoglossic—unmixed with Spanish—English is certainly the language of power in the ELT field (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; García & Otheguy, 2020; Kubota, 2016). It is noteworthy that the focus group participants in this study who worked at private universities—a small minority—consistently expressed inclusive attitudes towards Spanish and reported using English almost exclusively during content classes. All but Mark found their ELTE students speak English well enough that language of instruction was not a major concern. That raises the question of whether some teacher educators take more inclusive positions on Spanish within English-medium instruction because they risk little in doing so. Kubota (2016) asks, controversially, whether multilingual practices are a luxury of the privileged few “who can afford to use hybrid modes of expression or advocate what we wish to see, while people for whom we ostensibly advocate often do not have the power to do so” (p. 490).

Setting aside how English-only and multilingual approaches relate to English proficiency, it is clear from the experiences of a number of teacher educators in this study that strictly

English-only content classes across ELTE programs would seriously compromise teacher educators' ability to foster non-linguistic student learning outcomes in some contexts, which hardly seems like a way to support just outcomes for future ELT students. Even if enacting English-only practices across Ecuadorian ELTE contexts *would* improve teachers' English proficiency—which is debatable—, in Luz's words, “we can't aspire to so much just yet.”

Orienting teacher education towards “social inclusiveness and justice” is of particular concern at the moment, especially in the Latin American region (Voisin & Ávalos-Bevan, 2022, p. 6).

Which language use practices and aligned teacher learning outcomes are most valuable for that purpose is highly context-dependent, as well as contingent on teacher educators own subjective judgments and priorities.

### ***Considering Teacher Educator Characteristics and Circumstances***

As described above, teacher educators saw their language use practices and their highly valued teacher capabilities as aligned given the enabling or constraining factors they perceived in their contexts. In that sense, the social context and the judgment of the teacher educators themselves have been accounted for in this analysis through the concept of conversion factors. To this point, my analysis has centered on conversion factors that teacher educators perceived as affecting their ELTE students and the role of those factors, together with valued teacher capabilities, in explaining teacher educators' language use choices. However, language use practices are also constrained by educators' personal experiences and beliefs, by norms and policies and policies at their institutions, and by dominant ideologies in society (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Goodman, 2022). These constraints act on the teacher educators directly and may influence their choice of language use practices or mean that their language use is not a choice at all. That was apparent in the cases of Robert (in his Spanish-medium course) and Mark, who saw

their respective primarily Spanish and primarily English practices as misaligned with the teacher capabilities they most valued fostering. Other teacher educators sometimes saw their language use practices as ambiguously or indirectly aligned with their most valued teacher learning outcomes, implying that something other than consideration of those valued teacher capabilities influences teacher educator language use.

Chapter 9 will examine the extent to which these valued teacher capabilities versus other factors shape language use in ELTE content courses. However, the idea that language use may be constrained at the level of teacher educator capabilities or choices has implications for the links discussed in this chapter. My analysis has suggested that teacher educators value certain teacher capabilities and select their language use approaches accordingly. Teacher educators in this study suggested a relationship moving in that direction in explaining their use of almost English-only or multilingual approaches. Yet, it is also possible that teacher educators adopt these language use practices for other reasons—including the ELTE student constraints discussed above, like student English proficiency levels—and then develop values and priorities in response. For instance, perhaps teacher educators like Johanna feel they must use almost only English and therefore see encouraging English practice as the utmost priority, since that perspective gives purpose to their determination to use as much English as possible. Perhaps teacher educators like Walter persist in using English and resisting Spanish, even in the face of sometimes substantial challenges for their ELTE students to engage with English-medium input, precisely because of those challenges and not in spite of them. Conversely, perhaps teacher educators like Félix value fostering a love for learning so highly because that is what seems achievable and gives their efforts meaning when teaching in a mix of English and Spanish.

The idea that teacher educators' most valued teacher capabilities might be the product of constraining circumstances evokes the debate surrounding 'adaptive preferences' in the capabilities approach (Robeyns, 2017). If valuable capabilities are identified democratically but should also lead to well-being and justice (DeJaeghere & Walker, 2021), what if people select capabilities that do not fully support well-being and justice because they are not free or able to do so (i.e., their preferences are adapted to constraints, rather than true preferences)? Robeyns (2017) cautions that, in identifying a valued capability as an 'adaptive preference' that is the product of constrained aspirations, "we run the risk of psychologizing structural constraints, of misidentifying possible tradeoffs... that a person makes, or we may be unable to recognise forms of flourishing" when they do not align with our own expectations (p. 140). With those cautions in mind, I choose to see teacher educators stated valued capabilities as expressions of truly valuable goals, regardless of the contexts and experiences that may contribute to shaping them.

### **Limitations**

It should be noted that the data in this study is limited to teacher educators' perspectives. The links between language use practices and valued teacher capabilities I theorize in this chapter center on the idea that ELTE students convert the input of ELTE content classes into capabilities depending on their enabling or, more often, constraining conversion factors. ELTE students themselves may be better placed to illuminate that process, yet this study only offers teacher educators' perceptions. Thus, the findings presented here could be corroborated with further study of ELTE students' experiences of these connections and intervening factors.

Furthermore, my analysis of the data involved fitting practices and perspectives that are unique and context-dependent into group categories with general characteristics. That process implied making my own judgments as the researcher. Most notably, I decided how to

characterize teacher educators' most highly valued capabilities when there were tensions between what teacher educators explicitly said they valued and what they implied. In the data analysis process, I have certainly simplified and may even have sometimes misinterpreted these teacher educators' experiences and ideas.<sup>37</sup>

I myself teach content courses in university-based ELTE (most often courses on teaching methods) and use a multilingual approach, especially when I perceive constraining factors within English-medium instruction. My own approach is linked to the fact that I most highly value pedagogical knowledge and teacher identity and cognition as teacher capabilities and wish to model multilingual pedagogy for my ELTE students. (I also recognize the value of multilingual approaches for developing linguistic awareness, especially relevant in linguistics courses, and for valuing diverse language practices and identities). While I made every effort to consider other perspectives and faithfully represent the ways that the participants in this study themselves seemed to conceptualize these relationships, my own viewpoint certainly permeates this analysis. I have attempted to transparently comment on key judgments I made (such as where a participant could potentially have been categorized differently) and to offer evidence from the data for findings.

## **Conclusion**

The qualitative component of this mixed-methods study linked language use practices in ELTE with teacher capabilities, from the perspectives of teacher educators. Teacher educators often understood the ways they approach language in teaching ELTE content courses as closely aligned with the teacher capabilities they sought to foster, like mastering English, pedagogy, or

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<sup>37</sup> See Chapter 4 for a description of the member checking process I employed, which hopefully minimized potential misinterpretation.



teacher research skills. Sometimes, their valued teacher capabilities aligned with their language use practices more ambiguously or indirectly or were in fact misaligned. Unsurprisingly, using almost English-only and highly valuing teachers' language proficiency were seen as aligned, as were using multilingual approaches and highly valuing teacher identity and cognition and other non-linguistic teacher learning outcomes. Sometimes, teacher educators seemed to see pedagogical skill and English proficiency as overlapping capabilities and associate both with almost English-only practices. None of these perspectives substantially broke with the notion that maximizing English use is better for English learning.

Teacher educators broadly agreed on a set of valuable specific teacher capabilities, though they prioritized them differently, and aspired to ultimately improve student learning and positively impact society. Their varied perspectives on how language use contributes to valuable teacher capabilities in contexts with substantial constraints suggested distinct ideas about what types of teacher functioning are most urgently needed to address challenges in Ecuadorian ELT that doubtless require both linguistic and non-linguistic qualities from teachers.

The qualitative links between language use and valued capabilities described here converge with the quantitative findings presented in Chapter 5 in some ways and diverge from them in others. The next chapter will begin integrating findings from the two components of this mixed-methods study to provide an expanded picture of the relationship between language use and fostering valued teacher capabilities in Ecuadorian ELTE.

## **Chapter VIII: Expanding on the Links Between Language Use and Valued Capabilities**

The integration of the quantitative and qualitative components of this convergent mixed-methods study on English language teacher education (ELTE) was guided by the third research question: *How and to what extent does integrated quantitative and qualitative data from English-as-a-foreign-language teacher educators link their language use practices to valued teacher capabilities?* This chapter describes *how* language use and valued capabilities connect, in light of the integrated data. First, I use joint display to illustrate how the survey and focus group data describing language use practices and valued teacher capabilities converge to enhance the validity and trustworthiness of those findings. Secondly, I use joint display to highlight where the quantitative and qualitative results diverge in linking teacher educators' language use practices with the capabilities they most value fostering in ELTE students. I then use an integrated analysis to reconcile and expand on initially discordant findings.

### **Confirmation of Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities**

When it comes to describing the types of language use practices that teacher educators adopt and the teacher capabilities that they value fostering in Ecuadorian ELTE, the quantitative and qualitative findings converge and support the independent results of each component of the study. This section highlights the points of convergence. In doing so, it introduces additional qualitative findings on overarching teacher capabilities not previously discussed in Chapters 6 or 7 that gain importance in light of the quantitative results.

#### ***Language Use Practices***

Table 29 presents a joint display summarizing the quantitative and qualitative findings on language use practices and the mixed methods meta-inferences that can be drawn from these. Both types of data showed English-medium instruction as predominant in ELTE content courses.

**Table 29***Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing Teacher Educators’**Language Use Practices*

Quantitative Findings (n = 115)	Qualitative Findings (n = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta-inferences
<i>English use:</i> $\bar{x} = 4.35$ $sd = 0.84$	<i>Almost English-only approaches:</i> “90%” to “100%” English use, with occasional Spanish use	<i>Confirmation:</i> English use dominates
<i>Spanish use:</i> $\bar{x} = 2.04$ $sd = 1.13$	<i>Multilingual approaches:</i> “50%” to “85%” English use, substantial Spanish use	Some Spanish use within English-medium instruction is typical: almost always less than 50% of class time, amount varies widely
<i>Multilingual use:</i> $\bar{x} = 2.09$ $sd = 1.12$	<i>Spanish-medium subjects:</i> Instruction primarily in Spanish	Language use is best described as a continuum rather than categorically

Quantitatively, mean English use was 4.35 ( $sd = 0.84$ ) on a scale where 1 represented ‘never’ and 5 represented ‘always’ and 66% of respondents reported using only or primarily English; qualitatively, participants with almost English-only approaches (25 of 37 focus group participants) described using English during 90 to 100 percent of class time and incorporating Spanish minimally. The data also converges in suggesting that, while teacher educators tended to use mostly English in these courses, some amount of Spanish use was typical. Qualitatively, teacher educators’ descriptions of their almost English-only practices almost always mentioned some amount of Spanish use, as when Mario (purposefully English-only<sup>38</sup>) said that he used Spanish “just in occasions in which there should not be any ambiguity; but most of the time, I would say 100% of the occasions, English would be used.” This resonates with the quantitative

<sup>38</sup> Chapter 7 characterized teacher educators as adopting approaches that, depending on how their language use practices related to the teacher capabilities they most value, were *purposefully*, *compromisingly*, *flexibly*, *selectively*, or *reluctantly English-only*; *purposefully* or *compromisingly multilingual*; or *acceptingly* or *reluctantly Spanish-medium*.

results indicating that, while mean English use was rather close to 5 (or ‘always’), only 23% of teacher educators reported on the survey that they used English exclusively.

The range of qualitative descriptions of multilingual language use approaches also illustrated the greater variation in Spanish and multilingual use (as compared to English use) that appeared in the quantitative results. Mean Spanish use was 2.04 ( $sd = 1.13$ ) and mean multilingual use was 2.09 ( $sd = 1.12$ ), which aligns with the qualitative finding that teacher educators with multilingual approaches reported using English during anywhere from about 50 percent to about 85 percent of class time and more than a third of them also reported using almost English-only approaches at times.

In presenting both the quantitative and qualitative data, I grappled with whether teacher educators’ language use practices could best be characterized through distinct categories or as falling along a continuum. I had initially used the three quantitative language use indicators (English use, Spanish use, and multilingual use) in conjunction to categorize participants as using only English, primarily English, a multilingual approach with more English than Spanish, etcetera, for the purpose of organizing the focus groups. Rather than using those potential categorical outcome variables in a multinomial logistic regression analysis, I chose to use the three indicators themselves as continuous variables in the quantitative analysis to avoid imposing arbitrary cut-off points between categories (see Chapter 5). Qualitatively, I described almost English-only, multilingual, and Spanish-medium approaches (see Chapter 6) yet placed participants along a continuum from exclusive use of English to exclusive use of Spanish in analyzing how they related those practices to valued teacher capabilities (see Chapter 7). In both stages of the study, continuous forms of representing the data better described teacher educators’ language use and allowed me to analyze links with valued teacher capabilities. Those two

analytical decisions lend each other validity as ways of conceptualizing language use practices in that I arrived at a consistent approach through independent decisions based on the discrete quantitative and qualitative data sets.

### *Language Use Attitudes*

Both the survey and focus group data showed teacher educator language use ideals and intentions that were not necessarily the same as reported practices, though attitudes and practices sometimes related (see Table 30). Edison's (purposefully English-only) comment that "it never really happens that it can be 100% [English], but that is like my ideal" illustrates the quantitative result that more than a third of teacher educators believed that Spanish does not help learning in ELTE (10% holding the virtual attitude and 24% the maximal attitude, as described by Anderson and Lightfoot [2021]) but less than a quarter reported using English exclusively. Attitudes in favor of minimizing or excluding Spanish were most common. Quantitatively, another 55% held the judicious attitude that own language is helpful but should be kept to a minimum and, qualitatively, 22 of 37 participants described resisting (15 participants, e.g., Edison's "losing battle") or merely tolerating Spanish use (7 participants, e.g., Miguel's comment that "I've got to") in their ELTE content courses. ELTE educators who favored embracing Spanish did exist and were often the same educators who adopted multilingual approaches. The inclusive attitude was associated with more Spanish use ( $\bar{x} = 2.85, sd = 1.07$ ) than were virtual ( $\bar{x} = 1.55, sd = 0.91$ ) or maximal ( $\bar{x} = 1.86, sd = 1.03$ ) attitudes (Tukey-Kramer post hoc test at  $\alpha < 0.05$ ) and with more multilingual use ( $\bar{x} = 3.27, sd = 1.23$ ) than were virtual ( $\bar{x} = 1.59, sd = 0.94$ ), maximal ( $\bar{x} = 1.77, sd = 0.99$ ) or judicious ( $\bar{x} = 2.08, sd = 1.04$ ) attitudes (Tukey-Kramer post hoc test at  $\alpha < 0.01$ ). Nearly as many teacher educators with multilingual approaches embraced Spanish

**Table 30**

*Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing Teacher Educators’*

*Language Use Attitudes*

Quantitative Findings (n = 115)	Qualitative Findings (n = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta- inferences
10% virtual attitude <sup>†</sup> 24% maximal attitude <sup>†</sup> 55% judicious attitude <sup>†</sup> 11% inclusive attitude <sup>†</sup>	<i>Of 25 participants with almost English-only approaches:</i> 15 resisted Spanish (e.g., Edison: “a losing battle”) 9 included Spanish (e.g., Lindsay: “If you want to speak in Spanish, that’s totally fine.”)	<i>Confirmation:</i> Language use attitudes are distinct from practices, though they may relate
Significant differences in Spanish use (F (3, 111) = 3.32, p < 0.05) and multilingual use (F (3, 111) = 7.28, p < 0.001)		Attitudes in favor of minimizing or excluding Spanish (virtual, maximal, judicious; resisting, tolerating) are most common
Inclusive attitude associated with more Spanish use ( $\bar{x} = 2.85, sd = 1.07$ ) than virtual ( $\bar{x} = 1.55, sd = 0.91$ ) or maximal ( $\bar{x} = 1.86, sd = 1.03$ ) attitudes (Tukey-Kramer post hoc test at $\alpha < 0.05$ )	<i>Of 15 participants with multilingual approaches:</i> 7 tolerated Spanish (e.g., Miguel: “I’ve got to”) 6 embraced Spanish (e.g., Janet: “if you feel more comfortable expressing those complex ideas in Spanish right now, then go ahead.”)	Attitudes most in favor of Spanish in ELTE (inclusive; including, embracing) are most common with but not exclusive to multilingual approaches
Inclusive attitude associated with more multilingual use ( $\bar{x} = 3.27, sd = 1.23$ ) than virtual ( $\bar{x} = 1.59, sd = 0.94$ ), maximal ( $\bar{x} = 1.77, sd = 0.99$ ) or judicious ( $\bar{x} = 2.08, sd = 1.04$ ) attitudes (Tukey-Kramer post hoc test at $\alpha < 0.01$ )		

*Note:* <sup>†</sup>Based on Anderson & Lightfoot’s [2021] adaptation of Macaro’s [2001] positions on own language, characterizing attitudes as 1) *virtual*, a strictly English-only position; 2) *maximal*, tolerating own-language as inevitable but unhelpful; 3) *judicious*, tolerating own-language as helpful in small amounts; or 4) *inclusive*, embracing own-language as a needed resource. Of the 37 focus group participants, 7 had two types of language use and 3 did not express attitudes.

without judgment (6 participants, e.g., Janet: “if you feel more comfortable expressing those complex ideas in Spanish right now, then go ahead”) as those who merely tolerated it.<sup>39</sup>

<sup>39</sup> The focus group sampling purposefully included participants from a range of language use practices and therefore the proportion of qualitative participants describing almost English-only, multilingual, and Spanish-medium practices should not be interpreted as indicative of how prevalent those approaches may be in Ecuadorian ELTE. However, sampling did not take attitudes into account and therefore the prevalence of certain attitudes among those with specific language approaches may be meaningful.

### *Specific Teacher Capabilities*

Table 31 presents a joint display summarizing the quantitative and qualitative findings on teacher capabilities that teacher educators valued and mixed methods meta-inferences that can be drawn from these. Both types of data showed teacher educators generally agreed that English proficiency, pedagogical skill, and teacher identity and cognition were valuable teacher capabilities but varied in which they saw as top priorities in their content courses. For instance, 30% of survey respondents selected English proficiency as their top priority and 61% placed it

**Table 31**

*Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing Teacher Educators' Valued Specific Teacher Capabilities*

Quantitative Findings (n = 115)	Qualitative Findings (n = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta-inferences
<i>First priority:</i> 30% language proficiency 26% critical thinking 17% pedagogical skill 17% professional identity 5% theoretical knowledge 4% research skill	<i>Participants describing as top priority (n = 37, 17 indicated multiple top priorities):</i> 20 English proficiency 15 pedagogical knowledge 14 teacher identity & cognition 9 other ELT knowledge	<i>Confirmation:</i> English proficiency, pedagogical skill, and teacher identity & cognition as valuable teacher capabilities, with varied priorities
<i>In top 3 priorities:</i> 68% pedagogical skill 63% critical thinking 61% English proficiency 50% professional identity 39% theoretical knowledge 18% research skill	<i>Participants mentioning as a teacher learning outcome:</i> 29 English proficiency 24 teacher identity & cognition 24 pedagogical knowledge 19 other ELT knowledge  Teacher identity and cognition as “love” for the profession, seeing EFL students as “human beings”, having ethics and values, “build[ing] a teacher profile”, valuing continuous learning through collaboration and reflection	<i>Expansion:</i> Qualitative data illustrates valued aspects of teacher identity & cognition not evident in the literature and, consequently, the survey data

among their top three of six specific teacher capabilities, while 29 of 37 focus group participants mentioned English proficiency as an intended teacher learning outcome in ELTE and 20 described it as their top priority. Sixty-three percent ranked critical thinking and 50% ranked professional identity among the top three teacher capabilities on the survey, while capabilities related to teacher identity and cognition were the second most-often mentioned in focus groups, after English proficiency.

Thus, the integrated data illustrates that the areas of specific teacher capabilities described in ELTE literature (Barahona, 2015; Johnson, 2016; Richards, 2017) are relevant and valued in the Ecuadorian ELTE context. The qualitative data specifies what valuable teacher identity and cognition might mean to teacher educators in the Ecuadorian context: it involves “love” for the profession (Félix, Gloria, Jaime, Nancy, Teresa, purposefully multilingual; Mercedes, Olga, purposefully multilingual, selectively English-only), seeing EFL students as “human beings” (Fernando, flexibly English-only; Walter, compromisingly English-only; Mercedes, Milton, compromisingly multilingual; Teresa, purposefully multilingual; Ricardo, acceptingly Spanish-medium), having ethics and values, “build[ing] a teacher profile” (Diana, purposefully multilingual, selectively English-only), and valuing one’s own continuous learning through collaboration and reflection.

### ***Overarching Teacher Capabilities***

Table 32 summarizes quantitative findings (previously presented in Chapter 5) together with qualitative findings (additional to those presented in Chapter 6) describing valued overarching teacher capabilities. Though teacher education may have economic and social value unrelated to teaching and learning (Sadeghi & Richards, 2021), a primary aim of teacher education is to improve the quality of teaching and student learning (Banegas & Martínez



Argudo, 2019; Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). Efforts to improve education tend to imply one of two common visions of teacher quality: good teachers are envisioned as being accountable to quality standards (e.g. Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019), or as being empowered to decide how to enact quality in their contexts (e.g. Kuchah et al., 2019). Teacher educators in the focus groups rarely explicitly identified overarching capabilities of being accountable to standards, being empowered to make decisions, or being recognized and remunerated well. However, the ways that focus group participants spoke about *specific* teacher capabilities they valued in some cases suggested

**Table 32**

*Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing Teacher Educators' Valued Overarching Teacher Capabilities*

Quantitative Findings (n = 115)	Qualitative Findings (n = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta-inferences
<i>Level of agreement (1-5):</i> Empowerment ( $\bar{x} = 4.65, sd = 0.73$ ) Accountability ( $\bar{x} = 4.45, sd = 0.82$ ) Prestige and income ( $\bar{x} = 4.08, sd = 1.09$ )	Accountability perspectives expressed by 18 participants and apparently valued by 9 (e.g., Yolanda: “quality can be seen in the fulfillment of standards”)  Empowerment perspectives implied and apparently valued by 7 participants (e.g., Diana: “I give them a range of options... so they choose” or Fernando: “We can’t wait for authorities...”)	<i>Confirmation:</i> Both empowerment and accountability perspectives inform views on ELTE goals (though empowerment discourse appears less prevalent)
<i>Participants selecting as top priority:</i> 48% empowerment 43% accountability 9% recognition and remuneration (represented as ‘prestige and income’)	Recognition & remuneration through ELTE mentioned by 9 participants and apparently valued by 6; also critiqued as goals in themselves by 4 (e.g., Daniel: “not just that you have, that you present a credential”)	Recognition and remuneration are acknowledged outcomes but controversial as valuable goals on their own

how they valued the *overarching* teacher capabilities I identified in the literature and inquired about on the survey.<sup>40</sup>

**Being Accountable.** The overarching teacher capability of being accountable can be described as the opportunity to meet established standards for English language and pedagogy. Accountability to standards was prioritized over other overarching capabilities by 43% of survey respondents and was mentioned by 18 focus group participants, with 9 implying they valued it highly. One important source of standards in this context was the exit profile for the unified PINE program curricula shared by most undergraduate ELTE programs in Ecuador. Yolanda (purposefully multilingual, selectively English-only) explained:

Quality can be seen in the fulfillment of standards, right? Yes, the profile of standards for English teacher education establishes basically five areas, I think they are the linguistic [part], they are the cultural part, the part of professional competencies themselves, instructional pedagogy, also the part of values... So, it's a whole set that they have to fulfill with an exit profile that each of the programs offers.

Thus, for some teacher educators, teachers being accountable to standards was the overarching model for teacher being and doing, as exemplified by the exit profile. Walter (compromisingly English-only) framed the goal of ELTE in this way, as making students “fulfill the exit profile that’s stated there,” Sonia (compromisingly English-only) explained that “the important thing is that the kids develop the exit profile that is proposed,” and Mayra (compromisingly English-only) and Jaime (compromisingly multilingual) also pointed to the exit profile as evidence of quality.

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<sup>40</sup> The overarching capability referred to here as being ‘recognized and remunerated’ was referred to in the quantitative portion of this study as access to ‘prestige and income.’ I explain my use of these terms in the section of this chapter entitled ‘Recognition and Remuneration.’

While the exit profile includes standards for specific competencies of various types, teacher educators were particularly aware of language standards, often described in terms of the CEFR levels and exams that certify them. Mariana (compromisingly multilingual) illustrated how an understanding of teacher capability in terms of meeting language standards characterizes Ecuadorian ELTE today in a way that it did not in the past:

My students now, they know that there are levels of English and that they need to aspire to something. So, I always tell them, “Let’s see, I have this level of English, and you, where do you want to get to?” So, some of them say, “I want to have the same level as you,” and others say “No, professor, I want to surpass you,” and so I like that... This week I ran into a student... and asked about her English level and she told me “I already have a C1 certificate.”

Walter (compromisingly English-only) spoke proudly of a recent initiative allowing ELTE students to certify their English proficiency levels directly at the university, qualifying that “it’s not an international certification, by no means, but the idea was that the kids, in terms of language, come out with a level of English fitting for an English teacher.” Robert (purposefully English-only, reluctantly Spanish-medium) considered the logic of framing teacher capability in terms of measurable language standards:

Proficiency is not enough to guarantee that you’re going to be a great language teacher, but I’m not sure what else we can measure so efficiently as proficiency to make sure you’re a good language teacher. And for that reason, I understand the idea of an easy threshold, this requiring B2 or trying to have everyone reach B2.

It is possible that some teacher educators pointed to the importance of being accountable to standards simply because those standards are enforced as graduation and employment

requirements.<sup>41</sup> However, these comments suggested that a number of teacher educators did themselves highly value teachers' accountability to standards as a model or mechanism for educational quality.

Even teachers who deprioritized or were skeptical of accountability measures often framed their ideas about teacher quality in relation to the idea of accountability to standards. For instance, before saying that teacher vocation was her top priority, Nancy (purposefully multilingual) prefaced her comments with "totally apart from...fulfilling all the skills and trying to make [them] meet all the levels of English they should have...". Fernando (flexibly English-only) mused:

What matters to me? ... In the balance between, that my teachers be good teachers and care about the human beings that they're going to work with, or that they pass the FCE [B2 First Certificate in English exam]? [*Pauses, widens eyes and sticks out chin*] Meh! Mark (reluctantly English-only) made a point of criticizing the accountability-driven focus on language standards:

Too much weight has been placed on language proficiency. ...anybody with a B2 level of English on a Cambridge or Pearson or whatever, a Michigan certificate, is being welcomed into classrooms...It's been the last 15 years or so here in Ecuador that these policies have said that all language teachers supposedly have to have a B2 level. I feel that that's, I can understand the thinking behind it, but I'm not necessarily sure that it's actually getting them what they want, which is better teachers in the classroom.

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<sup>41</sup> As noted in the literature review in Chapter 3, since 2012 the Ministry of Education has required English teachers to present an international certification of a minimum CEFR B2 level to qualify for tenure, and ELTE programs have set related requirements.

These remarks illustrate that, whether teacher educators saw more or less value in accountability to standards, the idea of meeting standards was a common element of teacher educators' understanding of teachers' overarching capabilities.

**Being Empowered.** The overarching teacher capability of being empowered, as used here, involves having the opportunity to make informed decisions about how to teach English in one's specific context.<sup>42</sup> Teacher empowerment was prioritized over other overarching capabilities by 48% of survey respondents and 7 focus group participants implied they value it highly. While empowerment and accountability appeared highly valued by similar numbers of survey respondents (48% and 43%) and by similar numbers of focus group participants (seven and nine), it is notable that I was able to identify empowerment perspectives in the comments of less than half as many focus group participants as accountability perspectives (which appeared in comments of 18 participants, with skepticism for half of those).

Nonetheless, value placed on teacher choice and situational expertise stood out in the priorities of several participants. For Mark (reluctantly English-only), the goal was for teachers "to have more options at their disposal" because "every teaching context is different." Milton (compromisingly multilingual) aspired for his ELTE students to "learn to be familiar with the area and use that to find solutions." Diana (purposefully multilingual, selectively English-only) characterized ELTE as a process where "I give them a range of options for philosophies, methodologies, ways to solve problems, so they choose the ones that could fit with them." Mariana (compromisingly multilingual) evoked the idea of teachers as empowered thinkers

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<sup>42</sup> In coding the qualitative data, I focused on the concept of empowerment as agency to define and enact one's own best teaching practices, as described by Kuchah et al. (2019), rather than as a sense of self-confidence, as described by Freeman (2020). The former more closely resembles the item in the survey ("to empower teachers to differentiate their teaching according to their contexts") and thus supported the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data.

rather than receivers of knowledge when she said that “we are in the School of Philosophy, and so, we philosophize,” describing how she pushes students to think deeply about their work as educators. Fernando (flexibly English-only) viewed teachers’ capability to be empowered thinkers and decision-makers as the most promising mechanism for improving educational quality, arguing that:

We can’t wait for authorities who don’t understand anything about what we do to be the ones who create change. I think it’s more about how we understand what teaching is, how dynamic teaching is, how we learn from teaching.

**Being Recognized and Remunerated.** Teacher education is not always about accountability or empowerment for learning purposes but may also serve to provide credentials that give teachers greater opportunities to be recognized as experts and earn better salaries. Institutions may also benefit if ELTE programs boost their reputation or revenue. Based on literature on ELTE purposes, the potential economic and social value of teacher education was represented in the quantitative component of this study as ‘prestige and income’ for teachers and universities. Some focus group participants also spoke of the economic and social value of their ELTE programs, which I characterized as representing an overarching teacher capability of being recognized and remunerated. This led me to adopt ‘recognition and remuneration’ in the integrated analysis as a theme that better fits both the data and this study’s theoretical and conceptual framework, in that it is both more focused on teacher capabilities and somewhat more general than ‘prestige and income.’

Nine participants mentioned the recognition their ELTE students and institutions gain or their ability to serve labor market demands. For instance, Diana (purposefully multilingual, selectively English-only) explained that her program contributes to educational quality because

schools in her region, which have long suffered from a lack of qualified English teachers, “see the difference in what is now someone with a degree and certificate, who now has a certification that endorses their knowledge of English, who has a degree and they know they have the backing [of the university].” Similarly, Jaime (compromisingly multilingual) commented that

Private institutions didn’t used to want anything to do with students from our university, with the graduates in English [teaching]. Now they request them. ... I think that is enough to know that we have fulfilled our mission as teachers.

Various teacher educators referred to their respective universities’ “prestige” (Alexandra, flexibly English-only) as evidenced by the way that graduates “get a job right away” (Rosa, compromisingly English-only) or “are well-received”<sup>43</sup> (Mariana, compromisingly multilingual). Thus, recognition from potential employers appeared as an indicator of quality and success in teacher education.

Just nine percent of survey respondents prioritized recognition and remuneration (represented on the survey as teachers and institutions gaining prestige and income), while six focus group participants appeared to value recognition and remuneration through ELTE. Notably, four of those participants highlighted that they did not see teachers being credentialed as a valuable capability on its own. For instance, colleagues Jaime (compromisingly multilingual) and Daniel (acceptingly Spanish-medium) exchanged comments about the importance of today’s ELTE standards, as Jaime said, “You also experienced the old university, Daniel, you also trained English teachers who were just looking for a degree,” and Daniel noted that being qualified is “not just that you have, that you present a credential, that you have a teaching degree.” In fact, some participants were explicitly critical of what they saw as some

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<sup>43</sup> In the original Spanish, “tienen mucha acogida.”

ELTE programs prioritizing recognition and remuneration over other overarching capabilities. One focus group brought up master's programs that they see as lacking rigorous standards and offering degrees just "because [students] already paid, because it's expensive, they have to end up graduating" (Sonia, compromisingly English-only). Teacher educators in that focus group implied that such programs reduce the purpose of ELTE to the degree itself and its symbolic and monetary value, which "does not contribute at all to improving English teaching in Ecuador, because...teacher preparation is fundamental for improving not only educational practices but also the level of English in Ecuador" (Sonia). Sonia's comment points to the idea that teacher education ought to foster teacher capabilities that contribute to quality in educational practice.

**In Summary: Overarching Teacher Capabilities.** These qualitative findings illustrate the overarching teacher capabilities of being accountable, being empowered, and being recognized and remunerated and confirm their relative value for teacher educators in this study as suggested by the quantitative results. However, it should be noted that the quantitative and qualitative data on valued overarching teacher capabilities are not completely consistent at the level of individual participants. Table 33 presents a comparison of those findings. In nine cases, the perspectives I coded based on the focus group comments match the overarching teacher capabilities the participants ranked first on the survey. However, three teacher educators who selected empowerment as most important on the survey seemed to value accountability in their focus group contributions (Robert, purposefully English-only, reluctantly Spanish-medium; Mayra, compromisingly English-only; Jaime, compromisingly multilingual) and two who selected empowerment on the survey seemed to value teachers being recognized for their degrees. Additionally, two teacher educators who prioritized recognition and remuneration on



**Table 33**

*Comparison of Teacher Educators' Most Valued Overarching Teacher Capabilities According to Survey Data and Focus Group Data (n = 37)*

Valued Overarching Capabilities According to Focus Group Data	Valued Overarching Capabilities According to Survey Data		
	Accountability Prioritized	Empowerment Prioritized	Recognition & Remuneration Prioritized
Accountability valued	Daniel Mariana <sup>†</sup> Sonia Yolanda	Jaime <sup>†</sup> Mayra <sup>†</sup> Robert	Miguel Walter
Empowerment valued		Diana <sup>†</sup> Fernando Gloria Mark Milton	
Recognition & remuneration valued	Mariana <sup>†</sup>	Alexandra Diana <sup>†</sup> Jaime <sup>†</sup> Mayra <sup>†</sup> Rosa	
Valued overarching capabilities not evident	Blanca Edison Félix Johanna Julia Mario Nancy Olga	Alice Darwin Franklin Laura Lindsay Luz Mercedes Ricardo Teresa Verónica Zoila	Janet Pedro

*Note:* The gray areas of the chart highlight where the survey and focus group data on valued overarching teacher capabilities diverge. <sup>†</sup>Based on the focus group data, these teacher educators appeared to value multiple overarching capabilities and therefore appear in multiple rows.

the survey appeared to value accountability (Walter, compromisingly English-only) or both accountability and empowerment (Miguel, compromisingly multilingual) in the focus groups.

Notably, most of the incongruencies appear where teacher educators prioritized empowerment on the survey. The seven cases of incongruency presumably arise from the

different ways the survey and focus groups provided data on overarching teacher capabilities. Participants were asked explicitly about these perspectives on the survey, but in focus groups, participants simply brought up these views—or did not—while commenting on their language use and ELTE goals. It could be that some participants understood the statement “EFL teacher education should empower teachers to differentiate their teaching according to their contexts” differently than I did in coding for that perspective. Perhaps my own prior expectations as a researcher prevented me from seeing some manifestations of an empowerment perspective in the focus group comments.

Furthermore, the survey asked participants to rank teacher accountability, empowerment, and prestige and income in order of importance, while in focus groups they had no clear opportunity to express the relative value of each. In that sense, the survey data might be considered to reflect their true priorities. On the other hand, the perspectives participants chose to express without being asked explicitly—as in the focus groups—might be more indicative of what was important to them than survey responses that forced a choice prioritizing valued capabilities. Perhaps the positively connotated word ‘empower’ provoked a desirability bias that led some respondents to rank it more highly on the survey than its actual predominance in their thinking about teacher education. Conversely, perhaps wording referring to ‘prestige and income’ on the survey was perceived as undesirable in a way that more general and teacher-focused terms like ‘recognition and remuneration’ might not have been.

While the integrated data converge in consistent descriptions of teacher educators’ language use practices and capabilities they value fostering in ELTE students, discrepancies appear in the ways this study’s quantitative and qualitative analyses linked those concepts.

## **Divergence and Expansion in Linking Language Use to Valued Capabilities**

The quantitative and qualitative analyses produced somewhat divergent results regarding the links between language use and valued capabilities. This section describes those results and highlights where the different types of analysis complement each other. It also introduces additional qualitative findings, not previously discussed in Chapter 7, on how teacher educators related language use to overarching teacher capabilities.

### ***Linking Language Use to Specific Teacher Capabilities***

Table 34 summarizes in a joint display the ways that teacher educators' language use practices and most highly valued teacher capabilities appeared to relate. The quantitative results suggested that highly valuing specific teacher capabilities was largely unrelated to language use practices. There were some exceptions in that theoretical knowledge was consistently positively associated with Spanish use ( $\beta = 0.94, p < 0.05$ ) and pedagogical skill was negatively associated with Spanish use in some models ( $\beta = -0.41, p < 0.05$ ). The latter finding is consistent with a minor finding from the qualitative data that certain capabilities like confidence in front of a class are at the intersection of pedagogical skill and English proficiency. All but one of the focus group participants who mentioned pedagogical knowledge as a teacher learning outcome also mentioned English proficiency, while no similar overlap existed between any other set of specific teacher capabilities. A few participants suggested how pedagogical skill and language proficiency may overlap (e.g., Olga [purposefully multilingual and selectively English-only]: "to be able to manage in front of a group and so they can... have self-confidence"). That overlap could explain the quantitative finding negatively associating Spanish use with valuing ELTE students' pedagogical development, though neither the quantitative finding nor the qualitative finding was especially strong (the significant quantitative relationship appeared in only one

**Table 34**

*Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing Relationships Between Teacher Educators' Language Use Practices and Most Valued Specific Teacher Capabilities*

Quantitative Findings (n = 115)	Qualitative Findings (n = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta-inferences
<p><i>English use:</i> No significant relationships</p> <p><i>Spanish use:</i> Positively associated with valuing theoretical knowledge (<math>\beta = 0.94, p &lt; 0.05</math>) Negatively associated with valuing pedagogical skill in some models (<math>\beta = -0.41, p &lt; 0.05</math>)</p> <p><i>Multilingual use:</i> No significant relationships</p> <p>Not significantly related to any language use practices: English proficiency, critical thinking, professional identity, research skill</p>	<p><i>Closely aligned (21 participants):</i> Purposefully English-only approaches with English proficiency Purposefully multilingual approaches or acceptingly Spanish-medium instruction with non-linguistic capabilities, given constraining factors</p> <p><i>Ambiguously aligned (11 participants):</i> Compromisingly English-only approaches with both linguistic and non-linguistic capabilities, despite constraining factors Compromisingly multilingual approaches with both linguistic and non-linguistic capabilities, given constraining factors</p> <p><i>Indirectly aligned (8 participants, 4 overlapping with the purposefully multilingual group):</i> Flexibly English-only approaches with non-linguistic capabilities, given enabling factors Selectively English-only approaches with non-linguistic capabilities, despite constraining factors</p> <p><i>Misaligned (2 participants):</i> Reluctantly English-only approach with non-linguistic capabilities, despite constraining factors Reluctantly Spanish-medium instruction with English proficiency, given constraining factors</p>	<p><i>Discordance:</i> Quantitative results suggest specific teacher capabilities are generally not significantly related to language use practices, but qualitative findings suggest teacher educators often see these as meaningfully related.</p> <p><i>Expansion:</i> Qualitative findings highlight the importance of perceived constraining or enabling factors, unaccounted for quantitatively, potentially explaining the discordance</p>

model). It is most notable that no specific teacher capabilities appeared significantly related to English or multilingual use based on the quantitative analysis, nor did highly valuing critical

thinking, professional identity, research skill, or—most surprisingly—English proficiency appear significantly related to any language use practices.

In contrast, the qualitative findings suggested that teacher educators often saw their language use practices as aligned with fostering the teacher capabilities they most highly valued. I described the ways teacher educators linked their language use practices with their teaching goals as closely aligned, ambiguously aligned, indirectly aligned, or misaligned, with descriptive groups characterizing the various sets of linked practices and capabilities as *purposefully*, *compromisingly*, *flexibly*, *selectively*, or *reluctantly English-only*; *purposefully* or *compromisingly multilingual*; or *acceptingly* or *reluctantly Spanish-medium* (see Chapter 7 for greater detail). Language use and most valued teacher capabilities closely aligned for 21 of 37 focus group participants (purposefully English-only and multilingual, acceptingly Spanish-medium groups). Those teacher educators saw their almost English-only approaches aligning with fostering English proficiency or their multilingual approaches or Spanish-medium instruction aligning with non-linguistic capabilities—most often teacher identity and cognition—given perceived constraining factors in their contexts, especially ELTE students' limited English proficiency. Language use and most valued teacher capabilities ambiguously aligned for another 11 participants (compromisingly English-only and multilingual groups). Again, they either linked their almost English-only approaches with fostering English proficiency or linked their multilingual approaches with fostering non-linguistic capabilities. These participants highly valued *both* linguistic and non-linguistic capabilities—often pedagogical knowledge along with English proficiency—and left ambiguous the relationship of their language use choices to other capabilities they valued.

Language use and most valued teacher capabilities aligned indirectly for another four participants, in addition to four participants also in the purposefully multilingual group. Their almost English-only approaches did not hinder fostering non-linguistic capabilities because of their students' apparently high English levels (the flexibly English-only group), or they sometimes used almost English-only approaches to foster non-linguistic capabilities despite possible constraints (the selectively English-only group). Finally, language use and most valued teacher capabilities misaligned for just two participants, one of whom used an English-only approach because of requirements and expectations (reluctantly English-only) and one of whom taught a Spanish-medium subject, in addition to other English-only English-medium courses, where students were not able to participate in English (reluctantly Spanish-medium).

In summary, highly valuing English proficiency, teacher identity, and other specific teacher capabilities *was* meaningfully related to language use practices for most of these teacher educators, even though those relationships were not apparent quantitatively. The discordance could potentially be explained by the role of factors teacher educators perceived as enabling or constraining ELTE students' conversion of course inputs into capabilities, which were central to the qualitative analysis. Perceived enabling and constraining factors were not accounted for in the quantitative analysis, given that they were not highlighted in prior literature, which formed the basis for the design of the survey. The integrated mixed-methods findings of this study thus provide a more complete picture of how teacher educators may link language use with valued teacher capabilities.

### ***Linking Language Use to Overarching Teacher Capabilities***

Table 35 presents a joint display of results relating language use to overarching teacher capabilities. The quantitative analysis consistently found a significant relationship between

**Table 35**

*Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing Relationships Between Teacher Educators' Language Use Practices and Most Valued Overarching Teacher Capabilities*

Quantitative Findings (n = 115)	Qualitative Findings (n = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta-inferences
<p><i>Empowerment:</i> Negatively associated with English use (<math>\beta = -0.27, p &lt; 0.05</math>) Positively associated with Spanish use (<math>\beta = 0.33, p &lt; 0.05</math>)</p>	<p><i>Empowerment:</i> More prevalent in comments of teacher educators with multilingual approaches; not present among those who prioritize English proficiency 5 of 7 participants who seem to value empowerment relate it to multilingual approaches, teacher identity &amp; cognition, and ultimately contextualized pedagogy</p>	<p><i>Discordance and Expansion:</i> The quantitative findings consistently link empowerment with the amount of Spanish teacher educators employ within English-medium instruction; a similar connection is present though less robust qualitatively</p>
<p><i>Accountability:</i> No significant relationships</p>	<p><i>Accountability:</i> More prevalent in comments of teacher educators valuing both linguistic and non-linguistic teacher capabilities (often referencing 'exit profile') Links to language use not explicit, may be implied in relation to specific capabilities 9 of 9 participants who seem to value accountability relate it to English proficiency (e.g., Robert: "I'm not sure what else we can measure so efficiently as proficiency") 6 of 9 also relate accountability to pedagogical skill (e.g., Walter: "fulfill the exit profile... good at the language but also good at teaching")</p>	<p>The qualitative data suggests possible ways teacher educators may link overarching capabilities to language use, including possible indirect links with accountability that are not apparent quantitatively</p>
<p><i>Recognition and Remuneration (represented on the survey as 'prestige and income'):</i> No significant relationships</p>	<p><i>Recognition and Remuneration:</i> Appears as a by-product of other evidence of teacher quality (like empowerment or accountability); no links to language use or specific capabilities are evident</p>	<p>The overarching capabilities that appear in individual teacher educators' focus group comments are not always the same as those they prioritized on the survey (especially empowerment)</p>

language use and valuing the overarching capability of teacher empowerment. Ranking empowerment over accountability or prestige and income was associated with greater use of Spanish ( $\beta = 0.33, p < 0.05$ ) and lower use of English ( $\beta = -0.27, p < 0.05$ ) in ELTE content classes. Those findings were not contradicted by the focus group data; however, it was less evident, qualitatively, how valued overarching capabilities might relate to language use practices.

Qualitative data does illuminate how participants related overarching capabilities to other concepts in this study. Five of the seven participants whose comments seemed to value empowerment linked multilingual approaches to empowering teachers as decision-makers through reflective practice. Milton (compromisingly multilingual) valued ELTE students finding context-based solutions to problems in their pre-professional practice and, when mentoring students on this, “we don’t speak English, because we purely try to focus on the problem encountered and finding a solution.” Diana (purposefully multilingual, selectively English-only) linked her multilingual approach to making students “feel more comfortable, because at least the subjects that I teach are a lot of reflection, a lot of, ‘What would you do in a context like that?’” Mariana (compromisingly multilingual) contrasted higher-order teacher thinking that she associated with her multilingual approach with lower-order thinking that she associated with English-only practices:

When I want to do reflection that is philosophical so that they take into consideration the responsibilities that they will have in the future, then I use the Spanish language. ... In the cases when I use English, well, my objective there is to help them raise their level of English proficiency, but then I need to plan a different kind of class with a different approach, I mean, the approach would be content and language integrated learning. Then I’m going to focus on teaching them a specific vocabulary that they need to master as



teachers and that then they would be able to use it, not so much in a reflective way, but rather as a kind of repetition—meaning, I learn that concept and I have to know that this is the definition.

Thus, Mariana valued empowering teachers-in-information to be higher-order thinkers by engaging with them in their own language and implied that it was limiting to prioritize measurable mastery of the field’s vocabulary and concepts in English—priorities evocative of the accountability-based model of teacher quality. Similarly, Mark (reluctantly English-only) lamented that English-only ELTE “creates a barrier to their ability to express themselves and kind of reflect and reflect on what they do and how they do it and why they do it.” Finally, Gloria (purposefully multilingual) suggested that her multilingual approach prepared ELTE students to enact their own locally appropriate rather than normative language use practices:

Using Spanish also helps [ELTE students] to learn [as teachers]<sup>44</sup>, because it helps the students in high schools and elementary schools who can’t express themselves but somehow understand what is being said and when they want to communicate—well [the ELTE students] are learning as future teachers where they need to have that openness, that flexibility that they may speak Spanish when they want to, right? Because I have heard colleagues who, or I have also experienced as a teacher... that it was forbidden to speak in Spanish.

Thus, five of seven teacher educators who seemed to value teacher empowerment as decision-makers linked multilingual approaches in ELTE to fostering adaptability and habits of reflective practice, implying those would prepare ELTE students to enact contextualized pedagogies in their future teaching. These valued capabilities can be described as aspects of teacher identity

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<sup>44</sup> In the original Spanish, “les ayuda a formarse”.

and cognition, one of the types of specific teacher capabilities described in the literature (see Chapter 3) and by focus group participants (see Chapter 6).

However, focus group participants' comments evoking overarching capabilities did not always articulate a connection with language use in ELTE. Fernando (flexibly English-only) talked about teachers constructing local knowledge and critiqued imitating bilingual education models that are

models for countries where you have an immersion context, and you try to do that here in hours [of class] and you can't... It's a question of, beyond limitations, of us resolving politically [to have] a dialogue from here and from our own experience. (Fernando, flexibly English-only)

Nonetheless, Fernando did not specify how this contextualized pedagogy might relate to language use. Miguel (compromisingly multilingual) did not mention language use practices when he described his goals for ELTE students that “in theory they should leave with a minimum B2 level”—implying quality through accountability to standards—and “that they construct themselves as leaders in the moment of teaching”—implying quality through teacher empowerment. Nonetheless, Miguel seemed to associate accountability with the specific teacher capability of English proficiency, like Mariana (compromisingly multilingual).

In addition to Miguel and Mariana (who appeared to value both accountability and empowerment), other focus group participants who seemed to value accountability to standards also spoke of English standards specifically, as when Robert (purposefully English-only, reluctantly Spanish-medium) stated, “I’m not sure what else we can measure so efficiently as proficiency.” More often (in six of nine cases: Yolanda, purposefully multilingual, selectively English-only; Daniel, acceptingly Spanish-medium; Mayra, Sonia, Walter, compromisingly

English-only; Jaime, compromisingly multilingual), these participants commented on standards for both linguistic and non-linguistic teacher capabilities, as in Walter's goal "that they fulfill the exit profile that is stated there, that they be good at the language but also good at teaching" (Walter). The consistent joint mentions of both types of teacher capability likely occurred because participants cited the standardized ELTE program exit profile, a model of accountability that values both types of teacher capability.<sup>45</sup> None of these teacher educators directly expressed a connection between language use in ELTE and standards of teacher quality, though that connection may be implicit, based on how they linked language use practices with prioritizing English proficiency.

Any connection teacher educators may have seen between recognition and remuneration and specific teacher capabilities or language use practices was much less evident. Jaime (compromisingly multilingual) mentioned that "English is obviously a lingua franca that will help professionals to get a job, first of all, to improve their lives," evoking the importance of material aspects of success as an education professional. However, it is not clear whether Jaime related this to maximizing English use in ELTE content classes, where he himself took a multilingual approach. Rather than valuing recognition and remuneration as an overarching teacher capability ensuring teacher quality, the teacher educators in this study who appeared to value recognition suggested it was a by-product of professional quality (as described in the previous section), whatever quality looked like to them.

Empowerment, accountability, and recognition perspectives can be seen in the focus group comments of both teacher educators who use almost English-only approaches and those who use multilingual approaches. However, a pattern is apparent if we consider the prevalence of these

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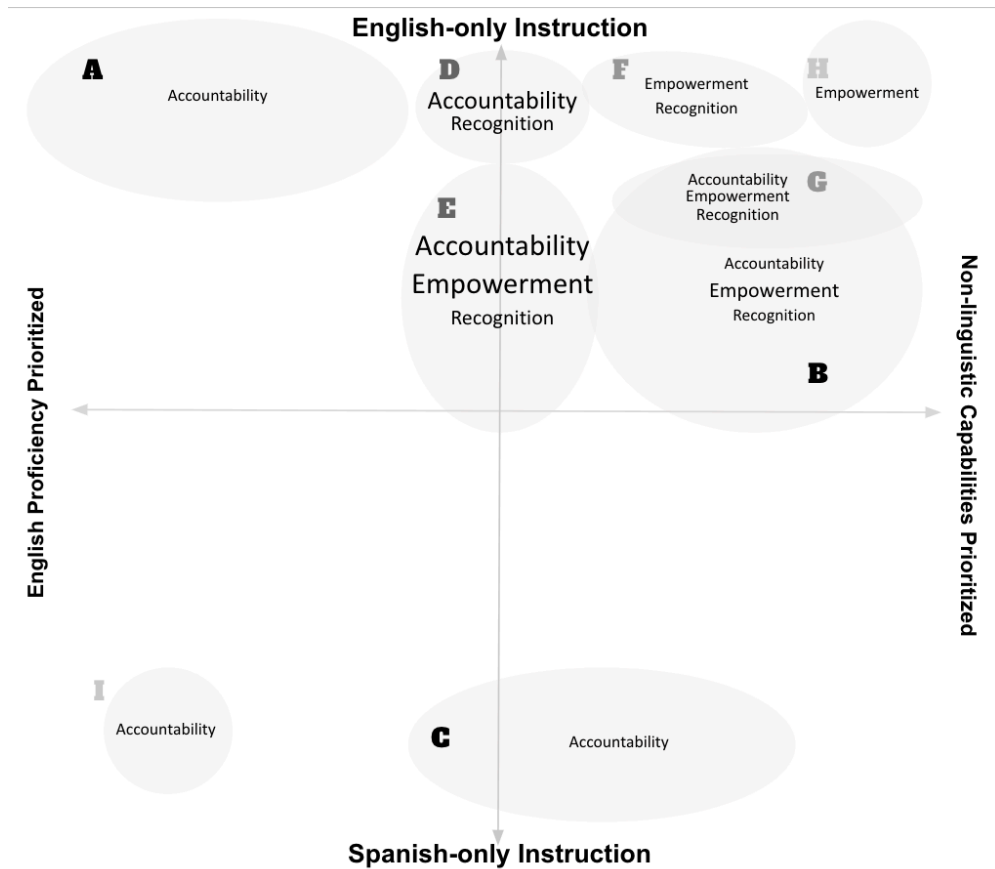
<sup>45</sup> See the previous section on 'Being Accountable' for examples.

overarching perspectives between the more specific qualitative groups that also take valued specific capabilities into account. Considering those groups in relation to overarching capabilities is more comparable to the quantitative analysis, where variables for prioritized teacher learning outcomes were held constant in analyzing the relationship between language use practices and empowerment or accountability views. Figure 5 uses the same xy plane where teacher educators were placed along two continua according to their language use and valuing of linguistic or non-linguistic capabilities (see Chapter 7) to illustrate the prevalence of overarching capabilities coded in the qualitative data. The proportion of teacher educators in each group who appeared to value accountability, empowerment, or recognition is indicated by the font size for each.

Valuing accountability can be observed at both ends of both continua and in all groups except for the flexibly English-only and the reluctantly English-only groups (interestingly, two groups comprised of the only focus group participants who taught at private universities). However, codes for valuing empowerment were only present among teacher educators with multilingual approaches or prioritizing non-linguistic capabilities (visualized near the middle of the x axis or on the right side of the y axis) and did not appear among those with almost English-only practices who prioritized English proficiency (visualized on the left and middle of the x axis and at the top of the y axis). Comments valuing recognition can be observed around the middle of both axes in the purposefully multilingual, compromisingly English-only and multilingual, and flexibly English-only groups, always together with other overarching capabilities. Similar to the quantitative analysis that held valued specific capabilities constant, we can compare the groups where English proficiency was highly valued (i.e., compromisingly English-only as compared to compromisingly multilingual) and the groups where non-linguistic capabilities were highly valued (i.e., flexibly or reluctantly English-only as compared to purposefully

**Figure 5**

*Prevalence of Perspectives Valuing Overarching Teacher Capabilities, by Type of Link between Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities, Based on Qualitative Data*



*Note:* The words ‘accountability’, ‘empowerment’, or ‘recognition’ vary in font size according to whether a code for valuing that overarching teacher capability is present for only one, less than half, half, more than half, or all of the teacher educators in the group (Group A: purposefully English-only,  $n = 8$ ; Group B: purposefully multilingual,  $n = 10$ ; Group C: acceptingly Spanish-medium  $n = 3$ ; Group D: compromisingly English-only,  $n = 6$ ; Group E: compromisingly multilingual,  $n = 5$ ; Group F: flexibly English-only,  $n = 4$ ; Group G: selectively English-only,  $n = 4$ , all cases also belong to Group B; Group H: reluctantly English-only,  $n = 1$ ; Group I: reluctantly Spanish-medium,  $n = 1$ , also belongs to Group A).

multilingual). In both comparisons, empowerment perspectives appear more prevalent in the groups with multilingual approaches, most notably in comparing the compromisingly multilingual group—where more than half of the teacher educators appeared to value empowerment—as compared to the compromisingly English-only group—where no

empowerment perspectives were observed. These comparisons converge with the quantitative result of a link between empowerment and using more Spanish and less English in ELTE content courses.

It should be noted that, as described in the previous section on overarching teacher capabilities, there were some inconsistencies between the survey and focus group data on specific individuals' valuing of overarching capabilities, especially empowerment (see Table 33). Nonetheless, both data sources suggest a link between language use practices and overarching teacher capabilities.

***In Summary: Divergence and Expansion in Linking Language Use to Valued Capabilities***

To summarize, the quantitative survey data analysis suggested specific teacher capabilities were generally not significantly related to language use practices, but qualitative analysis of focus group data suggested teacher educators often saw these as meaningfully related. They tended to see almost English-only approaches as aligning with fostering the English proficiency of teachers in formation and to see multilingual approaches as fostering non-linguistic capabilities, most often related to teacher identity and cognition. The qualitative findings highlight the importance of perceived constraining or enabling factors, which may explain the apparent lack of a significant relationship in the quantitative analysis as it did not account for those factors.

The qualitative findings also extend the quantitative findings in showing how teacher educators may relate taking an empowerment perspective on teacher quality to multilingual use practices because they sometimes see those practices as deepening ELTE students' capabilities as reflexive decision makers. Neither the quantitative nor qualitative findings significantly or directly linked accountability perspectives with language use practices, perhaps because those

perspectives appeared in comments of teacher educators with varied approaches and priorities. Nonetheless, accountability as an overarching teacher capability was often described together with English proficiency as a specific teacher capability, which could imply a connection with almost English-only practices considering how focus group participants connected language use to specific teacher capabilities.

However, perspectives valuing overarching teacher capabilities were only observed qualitatively for a minority of focus group participants; only seven appeared to express empowerment perspectives and five of those made the connection with multilingual use. Additionally, quantitative and qualitative data points for individual teacher educators valuing empowerment were sometimes incongruent: some teacher educators who ranked it first on the survey appeared to value other overarching teacher capabilities in my analysis of the focus group data. Thus, this finding was not particularly robust qualitatively, though it illuminates the consistent quantitative result associating language use with valuing empowerment.

## **Discussion**

Banegas and Martínez Argudo (2019) identify the major challenges of South American ELTE as “English language proficiency and the development of higher-thinking skills to take control of their own teaching development” (p. 198). The teacher educators in this study would seem to agree. This study suggests that teacher educators often prioritize linguistic or non-linguistic capabilities, whether consciously or not, and tend to understand their language use practices in light of those priorities. Yet, it would be difficult to predict an educator’s language use approach based solely on the specific teacher capabilities that they most value. Perhaps that is because teachers’ work is nearly impossible to reduce to just one specific teacher capability. Nonetheless, the integrated findings suggest that an underlying logic linking language use and

valued capabilities may inform how teacher educators give meaning to their language choices. That logic includes not only valued specific teacher capabilities, but also overarching teacher capabilities of being accountable and being empowered. These teacher educators did not prioritize teacher capabilities that were more related to teacher well-being than to teaching practice (Tao, 2010), nor did they endorse ELTE purposes unrelated to fostering teacher capabilities.

Teacher educators with almost English-only practices may see accountability to language standards as an effective mechanism for fixing poor teaching practices. In this sense, teacher educators who prioritize English language proficiency may adopt the viewpoint, prevalent in policy literature from Ecuador and the region, that ELT teachers have so far largely failed to meet standards and need to be pushed to comply, particularly when it comes to English language (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017; Serrano et al., 2015; Stanton & Fiszbein, 2019). They may adopt purposefully English-only approaches based on the logic that if EFL teachers acquire optimal English proficiency and are accountable to standards, those capabilities will facilitate other valuable teacher capabilities and ultimately improve teaching and learning. While emphasis on accountability and standards may cast teachers in a disempowering deficit perspective (Fajardo-Dack, 2016; Freeman, 2020), those who endorse English-only approaches from this perspective seek to address a serious problem in Ecuadorian ELT (Burgin & Daniel, 2017; Calle et al., 2012; Ortega-Auquilla & Minchala-Buri, 2019).

It should be noted that rhetoric and values of accountability were not restricted to the comments of teacher educators who reported almost English-only instruction and prioritizing English proficiency in teachers. With their common references to fulfilling the stipulations of the exit profile and to certification of the Common European Framework of Reference levels for



English proficiency, the teacher educators in this study demonstrated how the accountability to standards perspective permeates teacher education discourse in the region (Voisin & Ávalos-Bevan, 2022) and in Ecuador (Cajas et al., 2023; Fajardo-Dack, 2016; Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017), shaping how many teacher educators talk about and understand their work. That accountability discourses are prominent in teacher quality models (Voisin & Dumay, 2020) while empowerment perspectives are less disseminated by official discourses may explain why there was no statistically significant relationship between language use practices and accountability quantitatively, as observed for empowerment perspectives. Furthermore, depending on “who is granted the power to hold teachers accountable and what has to be accounted for,” conceptualizations of accountability may vary widely across teacher quality models (Voisin & Dumay, 2020).

While accountability perspectives were not unique to teacher educators with English-only approaches, the prevalence of empowerment perspectives was distinct between educators with greater or lesser inclusion of Spanish—a finding with both quantitative and qualitative support. For some teacher educators, using multilingual approaches was closely connected with the importance they placed on ELTE students thinking critically and creatively about problems of practice and taking ownership over teacher knowledge and skills. Literature on plurilingual pedagogies describes a similar association between drawing on learners’ full repertoires and fostering critical and creative thinking (Piccardo et al., 2022; Werner & Todeva, 2022). These teacher educators may ascribe to the view that teacher education that engages deeply with the problems individuals encounter in their contexts and allows them to gain specific skills at their own pace is most effective in that it supports the “empowerment and agency of teachers” (Calle et al., 2019, p. 150). They may adopt purposefully multilingual approaches based on the logic

that if EFL teachers acquire optimal beliefs and behaviors and are empowered to make well-informed and contextualized decisions, those capabilities will facilitate other valuable teacher capabilities and ultimately improve teaching and learning. This perspective aligns with the thinking of advocates for critical and decolonial ELTE (Castañeda-Londoño, 2021; González Moncada, 2021; Mendes & Finardi, 2018) and offers an alternative way to address the serious challenges of the Ecuadorian ELT context.

Of course, some educators might see almost English-only practices as more empowering for EFL teachers. Some teacher educators characterized in the present study as using purposefully or compromisingly English-only approaches did prioritize empowerment over accountability in their survey responses, as can be noted in Table 33. Freeman (2020) connects English proficiency with teacher empowerment to the extent that EFL teachers' English capabilities can be reframed "in terms of teachers' confidence in using that language" in classroom practice rather than in meeting general English standards (p. 14). Banegas (2020) describes content and language integrated learning in an English-medium instruction ELTE linguistics course as an "empowering view of language improvement in teacher education programmes [where] student-teachers may further profit from linguistic knowledge" (p. 149). While some purposefully or compromisingly English-only teacher educators in this study may share perspectives similar to those of Freeman or Banegas, their views on empowerment differed from my understanding of teacher empowerment in that they did not articulate a view of teachers as agents with the power to contextually define effective pedagogy. Furthermore, Banegas (2020) notes that his example of content and language integrated learning in ELTE content courses is empowering "provided that [ELTE students'] proficiency in English is such that they can access academic content with confidence" (p. 149). Thus, as illustrated by this study's

findings, perceived ELTE student conversion factors—particularly, language level and associated affective factors—must be taken into account in connecting language use practices to fostering valued capabilities. All the teacher educators in this study acknowledged such conversion factors, yet it was those with multilingual approaches who most consistently articulated how both ELTE students with enabling factors *and* with constraining factors may be included in professional learning.

### **Limitations**

The mixed methods inferences presented in this chapter have a few important limitations. Despite parallel construction of the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis, some concepts were challenging to compare or integrate. The survey did not collect information on teacher educators' perceptions of their students' English levels, which were central to the qualitative findings. Additionally, it was difficult to compare attitudes and perspectives ranked on a survey to those expressed in focus group conversations without direct prompting, as direct questions about opinions and beliefs are unlikely to elicit as meaningful responses as more indirect questioning about experiences (Cohen et al., 2018; Seidman, 2019). The fact that the survey results rest upon participants' interpretations of the items while the focus group findings rest upon my researcher interpretations of participant comments likely contributed to some inconsistencies in the data on empowerment perspectives especially. The findings related to empowerment presented here should be understood as based on my own interpretation of empowerment as particularly related to the ability to make decisions and differentiate instruction, rather than to a more general sense of confidence.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter integrated quantitative and qualitative findings, expanding on the ways that teacher capabilities that teacher educators value relate to their language use practices in ELTE content courses. As with the qualitative findings in Chapter 7, in this chapter I have only commented on social and personal factors that shaped teacher educators' language use where their language use and most valued capabilities seemed misaligned. Nonetheless, teacher educators' language use may be driven by institutional factors, teacher educators' own characteristics and preferences, or language ideologies that influence teacher educator agency and choice. The next chapter will integrate the qualitative and quantitative findings to examine the extent to which teacher educators' language use practices appear to be shaped by teacher educators' consideration of how ELTE students convert those inputs into highly valued teacher capabilities, or may be shaped by other factors.

## Chapter IX: Questioning the Extent to Which Valued Capabilities Shape Language Use

The previous chapters of quantitative, qualitative, and integrated findings of this convergent mixed-methods dissertation addressed whether and how the language use practices of English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teacher educators related to the teacher capabilities they most valued. Language use practices were linked to valued teacher capabilities in several ways. The most consistent quantitative finding linking practices and capabilities found that prioritizing teachers being empowered to differentiate their instruction—over being accountable to standards or gaining income and prestige—was associated with using more Spanish and less English than the group overall, which used a lot of English ( $\bar{x} = 4.35$  on a scale from 1 to 5) and only a little Spanish ( $\bar{x} = 2.04$ ). Qualitative themes characterized relationships between language use and valued capabilities as closely aligned (*purposefully English-only*, *purposefully multilingual*, and *acceptingly Spanish-medium*), ambiguously aligned (*compromisingly English-only* and *compromisingly multilingual*), indirectly aligned (*flexibly English-only* and *selectively English-only*), or misaligned (*reluctantly English-only* and *reluctantly Spanish-medium*) and 21 of the 37 focus group participants fit in the closely aligned groups. While the findings discussed previously described *whether* and *how* language use practices and capabilities were linked, they did not address other factors that may shape language use in ELTE.

This chapter of integrated findings addresses *the extent to which* the survey and focus group data link teacher educators' language use practices and valued teacher capabilities. I first present integrated data on teacher educators' language use reasons. The remainder of the chapter examines the extent to which ideologies, teacher educator characteristics, and teaching circumstances appeared to shape the language use practices of teacher educators with various

approaches and priorities. I conclude with discussion of the findings and limitations of this integrated analysis.

### **Language Use Reasons**

The reasons that participants indicated for their language use practices provide the first indications of the extent to which valued capabilities shaped their language use. Desire to foster certain teacher capabilities in ELTE students was an important reason for teacher educators' language use choices, but not the only one. Table 36 shows a joint display of quantitative and qualitative data on the prevalence of teacher educators' attributions of language use reasons. Based on the quantitative data, reasons related to fostering valued teacher capabilities dominated in most teacher educators' language use practices. When asked to select the three most important reasons for their language use choices on the survey, most participants selected wanting to help students meet linguistic (72%) and pedagogical goals (66%). Those types of reasons also appeared important qualitatively, with 33 of 37 focus group participants expressing reasons coded as related to fostering valued teacher capabilities, though only 11 mentioned content goals in contrast to 23 who mentioned linguistic goals.

However, reasons related to perceived student personal factors were the most prominent qualitatively, mentioned by 36 of 37 participants and representing 36% of reasons coded in contrast to 26% of coding for fostering valued teacher capabilities. The majority of those comments referred to perceived level of students' English proficiency. The survey did not ask directly about students' language level, but student understanding and student comfort were possible reasons and were selected by only 34% and 30% of respondents, respectively. It may be that survey respondents felt that concern for student understanding was implicit in selecting

**Table 36***Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing the Prevalence of Teacher**Educators' Attributions of Language Use Reasons*

Type of Reason	Quantitative Data: Percentage of Respondents ( <i>n</i> = 115)	Qualitative Data: Participants with Coding for Theme Present ( <i>n</i> = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta-inferences
Fostering valued teacher capabilities	Linguistic goals: 72% Pedagogical goals: 66%	Linguistic goals: 25 Content goals: 11 Manner of reaching goals: 7 <i>Overall: 33 of 37</i> <i>Coding references: 26% of reasons</i>	Fostering valued teacher capabilities, especially linguistic capabilities, is one of the most important language use reasons; likely linked to perceived student factors
Perceived student personal factors	Student understanding: 34% Student comfort: 30%	Language level: 36 Language preference: 11 Interest in ELTE <sup>†</sup> : 7 Special needs: 2 <i>Overall: 36 of 37</i> <i>Coding references: 36% of reasons</i>	Perceived student language level is likely the most important language use reason, though it is only captured indirectly in the quantitative data
Social factors	Policies or expectations: 39%	Structural challenges in ELTE <sup>†</sup> : 20 Institutional administration: 18 Prevalence of Spanish in ELT <sup>‡</sup> : 8 Social norms in ELTE: 6 <i>Overall: 34 of 37</i> <i>Coding references: 28% of reasons</i>	Diverse social factors are important reasons for language use; these likely coincide with and reinforce other motives
Teacher educator personal factors	Clarity of expression: 18% Credibility: 14%	Past experiences: 9 Personal preference: 7 Learning beliefs: 5 Teaching skill: 3 <i>Overall: 20 of 37</i> <i>Coding references: 10% of reasons</i>	Teacher educator factors have a role in language use practices that teacher educators typically indicate as secondary to other reasons

*Note:* Survey respondents could select up to three important reasons for their language use practices. Qualitative subthemes for structural challenges in ELTE: entry requirements, equity issues, pandemic effects; and for institutional administration: materials, curricula, policies, complaints, assessments. <sup>†</sup>ELTE = English language teacher education. <sup>‡</sup>ELT = English language teaching.

linguistic or pedagogical goals as reasons, while focus group participants may have felt the factor of language level needed to be explained in relation to their learning goals.

Following policies and expectations was the third most common reason for language use choices indicated on the survey, selected by 39% of respondents. The qualitative data expanded on social factors that shape teacher educators' language use and suggested that these reasons were at least as prevalent as consideration of valued teacher capabilities, representing 28% of the coding for language use reasons. Related to policies and expectations, 18 focus group participants spoke of factors related to institutional administration (specifically materials, curricula, policies, complaints, and assessments) and six spoke of social norms. Other important social factors related to structural challenges in ELTE (entry requirements, equity issues, and pandemic effects, as discussed in greater detail in Chapters 6 and 7), which were mentioned by 20 participants and represented close to half of the comments on social factors (12% of overall coding for language use reasons). The prevalence of Spanish use in ELT in Ecuador also appeared as a social factor shaping teacher educators' language use choices mentioned by eight participants.

Social factors might appear more influential in the qualitative data than the quantitative because those factors relate to other reasons for language use practices and perhaps were considered secondary when participants selected their top three reasons on the survey. As described in Chapter 7 and in the previous sections, teacher educators saw structural challenges as implicated in the ways they related their language use choices to teacher learning goals. The same can be said of the prevalence of Spanish in ELT as a reason for language use. Regarding institutional factors, as described in Chapter 6, only Mark (reluctantly English-only) emphasized feeling constrained by these. Others mentioned minor constraints (for example, Edison and



Franklin [purposefully English-only] mentioned using small amounts of Spanish to avoid student complaints<sup>46</sup>) and most commonly, teacher educators pointed to institutional factors as additional support for their language use choices.

Personal factors related to the teacher educators themselves were the least prevalent in their explanations of their language use practices, both quantitatively and qualitatively. On the survey, just 18% selected clarity of expression and 14% selected credibility as important reasons.<sup>47</sup> Focus group participants did not mention clarity or credibility directly, but seven participants commented on their personal language preferences. Teacher educators also referred to their own past learning experiences, their beliefs about life-long learning, and their perceptions of their own teaching skill. Overall, 20 of 37 participants mentioned language use reasons coded as teacher educator personal factors, representing 10% of the reasons coded.

Certainly, fostering the teacher capabilities they valued was a major consideration shaping the language use practices of most teacher educators in this study. Considering the quantitative and qualitative results jointly, it is also apparent that teacher educators' perceptions of ELTE student personal factors and of social factors interceded—and sometimes superseded valued capabilities—in shaping language use practices. Personal factors related to the teacher educators themselves were less prominent in the ways educators accounted for their language use but appeared to have some role. In the remainder of this section, I describe to what extent the integrated findings suggest language use practices were shaped by ideologies, teacher educator characteristics, and context.

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<sup>46</sup> As described in Chapter 6, teacher educators who strove to use only English in their content courses had *almost* English-only practices, where small amounts of Spanish were occasionally incorporated in ways that were not central to course instruction.

<sup>47</sup> The survey items related to clarity of expression and credibility were specifically: “to express myself clearly” and “to be a credible professional.” Those items were developed based on pilot focus group findings on teacher educators' language use reasons, as described in Chapter 4.

## Language Ideologies

This study's conceptual framework posits that language ideologies likely play some role in teacher educators' language use practices. Given that ideologies permeate the social context (Bettney, 2022; González Moncada, 2021; Mosquera Pérez, 2022), they may be implicated in the policies and expectations or social norms and institutional factors that some teacher educators indicated motivate their language use. Ideologies may also be implicit in the language preferences of ELTE students and educators.

Table 37 presents integrated data on the relationship of language ideologies to teacher educators' language use practices. As discussed in Chapter 5, though prior literature describes beliefs about language in ELT as elements of linguistic imperialism (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Zaidan, 2020) and multilingualism (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019), the survey data showed that teacher educator opinions on statements related to ideal language use in ELT spaces varied dramatically from their opinions on other statements representing linguistic imperialism and multilingualism more generally. I therefore conducted two versions of the quantitative analyses, one where ideologies were defined broadly including statements on ideal language in ELT and another where those statements were excluded. The analyses where ideologies were defined more narrowly, excluding statements on ideal language in ELT, showed no significant relationships between language ideologies and teacher educators' language use practices. Similarly, in my analysis of the focus group data, teacher educators' beliefs about ideal language use in ELT and ELTE rarely appeared together with other comments suggestive of linguistic imperialism or multilingualism. Focus group participants occasionally commented on inner-circle countries (Kachru, 1997) like the United States and 'native speakers' of English as models in ELT, evoking ideologies of linguistic imperialism (13 comments total) and native-speakerism (nine

**Table 37**

*Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing the Relationship of Language*

*Ideologies to Teacher Educators' Language Use Practices*

Quantitative Findings ( <i>n</i> = 115)	Qualitative Findings ( <i>n</i> = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta-inferences
Higher mean English use, compared to teacher educators who did not select this reason, among those with a primary reason of <i>policies or expectations</i> ( $\bar{x} = 4.56$ vs. $\bar{x} = 4.22$ , $t = 2.11$ , $df = 113$ , $p < 0.05$ )	Participants sometimes evoked linguistic imperialism in commenting on 'inner-circle' countries as ELT <sup>‡</sup> models (13 references) and native-speakerism in commenting on 'native speakers' as models (9 comments); rarely evoked multilingualism outside of ELT <sup>‡</sup> or ELTE <sup>†</sup>	Both quantitative and qualitative data link beliefs about language in ELTE <sup>†</sup> to language use practices
<i>Linguistic imperialism:</i> If defined including beliefs about language in ELT <sup>‡</sup> , associated: Positively with English use ( $\beta = 0.33$ , $p < 0.05$ ) Negatively with Spanish use ( $\beta = -0.41$ , $p < 0.05$ ) Negatively with multilingual use ( $\beta = -0.47$ , $p < 0.05$ ) No significant relationships if defined narrowly	Setting aside beliefs about ideal language use in ELTE <sup>†</sup> , no clear association of ideologies with language use practices	Both types of data suggest that beliefs about ideal language in ELT <sup>‡</sup> and ELTE <sup>†</sup> do not necessarily align with other beliefs theoretically linked to linguistic imperialism or multilingualism
<i>Native-speakerism:</i> No significant relationships	Belief that monolingual ELTE <sup>†</sup> is ideal is prevalent among teacher educators with almost-English only approaches, especially those who see fostering teachers' English proficiency as a high priority (11 of 14 teacher educators in the <i>purposefully</i> and <i>compromisingly English-only</i> groups)	Linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism are likely present in Ecuadorian ELTE <sup>†</sup> contexts, but it is not evident that they relate to specific language use practices
<i>Multilingualism:</i> If defined including beliefs about language in ELT <sup>‡</sup> , associated: Positively with Spanish use ( $\beta = 0.29$ , $p < 0.05$ ) Positively with multilingual use ( $\beta = 0.36$ , $p < 0.05$ ) No significant relationships if defined narrowly	Belief that ELTE <sup>†</sup> is ideally multilingual is prevalent among those with multilingual approaches who most highly value non-linguistic teacher capabilities (7 of 10 teacher educators in the <i>purposefully multilingual</i> group)	

*Note:* English use reported quantitatively on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represented no English use, 3 represented use during about half of a typical content class, and 5 represented always using English. Quantitatively, broad operationalizations of linguistic imperialism and multilingualism included values for two statements representing those ideologies, while narrow operationalizations excluded the first statement for each ideology, which pertained to

language use specifically. Analyses were conducted with both operationalizations due to discrepant responses to the two statements observed in the data. †ELTE = English language teacher education. ‡ELT = English language teaching.

comments total) (Holliday, 2017; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). More rarely, they made positive mention of multilingualism outside of ELT or ELTE specifically (three comments total).

However, no pattern relating these comments to language use practices was evident.<sup>48</sup>

While teacher educators' beliefs about ideal language use in ELT and ELTE contexts may not have been expressions of broader ideologies of linguistic imperialism or multilingualism, those beliefs *were* potentially influential factors shaping teacher educators' language use. Both the quantitative and qualitative data illustrated how teacher educators with different beliefs about ideal language also had different language use approaches. Quantitatively, when linguistic imperialism was defined broadly to include beliefs about language in ELT, it was associated positively with English use ( $\beta = 0.33, p < 0.05$ ) and negatively with Spanish use ( $\beta = -0.41, p < 0.05$ ) and with multilingual use ( $\beta = -0.47, p < 0.05$ ). Table 38 presents focus group participants who expressed beliefs that ELTE ought to be monolingual or multilingual, organized in groups by the type of link between language use practices and teacher capabilities. Eleven of 14 teacher educators in the *purposefully* and *compromisingly English-only* groups, linking almost English-only approaches to fostering English proficiency, appeared to believe in a monolingual ideal (one expressed a multilingual idea and three did not comment). Conversely, seven of 10 teacher educators in the *purposefully multilingual* group, linking multilingual approaches to fostering non-linguistic teacher capabilities, appeared to believe in a multilingual ideal (two—both of whom also use almost English-only approaches—expressed a monolingual ideal and one

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<sup>48</sup> Further discussion of various manifestations of language ideologies in teacher educators' discussions of their language use practices and valued teacher capabilities is beyond the scope of this dissertation but could be explored in future research.

**Table 38***Teacher Educators' Beliefs on Ideal Language Use in English Language Teacher Education, by**Type of Link between Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities (n = 33)*

Qualitative Group Characterizing Language Use Approach & Alignment with Highly Valued Teacher Capabilities	Monolingual Ideal (Presence of Coding for Qualitative Theme)	Multilingual Ideal (Presence of Coding for Qualitative Theme)
Purposefully English-only	Blanca Edison Franklin Julia Mario	<b>Pedro</b>
Compromisingly English-only	<b>Darwin</b> Laura Mayra Rosa <i>Sonia</i> Walter	
Flexibly English-only	<i>Alexandra</i>	<i>Alexandra</i> Alice Fernando Lindsay <i>Diana</i> <sup>†</sup> <b>Yolanda</b> <sup>†</sup> <i>Mark</i>
Selectively English-only	Olga <sup>†</sup> Verónica <sup>†</sup>	<i>Diana</i> <sup>†</sup> <b>Yolanda</b> <sup>†</sup> <i>Mark</i>
Reluctantly English-only		<i>Mark</i>
Purposefully multilingual	Olga <sup>†</sup> Verónica <sup>†</sup>	<i>Diana</i> <sup>†</sup> Félix Janet <b>Gloria</b> <i>Teresa</i> <b>Yolanda</b> <sup>†</sup> Zoila
Compromisingly multilingual	Jaime <i>Mariana</i>	<i>Mariana</i> Mercedes
Acceptingly Spanish-medium	<b>Milton</b> <i>Luz</i> Ricardo	<b>Daniel</b>

*Note:* This table presents qualitative coding for beliefs pertaining to ideal language use practices specifically in English language teacher education. Bold indicates this participant expresses a belief that ideal language use practices are the same in content and language courses. Italics indicate this participant expresses a belief that ideal language use practices differ between content and language courses. Four participants (Johanna, purposefully English-only; Robert, purposefully English-only and reluctantly Spanish-medium; Nancy, purposefully multilingual; Miguel, compromisingly multilingual) are not included in this table because they do not clearly indicate beliefs

about ideal language use, commenting only on usefulness. †Participants belong to both the *selectively English-only* and the *purposefully multilingual* groups and are therefore repeated.

did not comment). All the teacher educators in the *flexibly English-only* group—with almost English-only approaches given their students' high English proficiency but openness to multilingual approaches—spoke of multilingualism as the ideal in ELTE (one also expressed a monolingual ideal). Teacher educators who valued both English proficiency and non-linguistic teacher capabilities but used multilingual approaches because of constraints were divided (two expressed a monolingual ideal, one expressed a multilingual ideal, one expressed both and one did not comment), as were those who taught only Spanish-medium subjects (two to one).

Regardless of language use approach, teacher educators appeared divided on whether ideal language use practices were the same between content courses for teachers-in-formation and language courses, which have different objectives. Darwin (compromisingly English-only) believed that “it doesn't matter if it is an EFL class or a specific class like linguistics or literature,” English-only was the ideal approach. Sonia (compromisingly English-only) also advocated for almost English-only practices in ELTE but made the distinction that “in the case of general English, I could do this part of translanguaging.” Both Yolanda and Teresa (purposefully multilingual and selectively English-only) expressed strong support for multilingual approaches to their ELTE content courses, but while Yolanda believed that “linguistically, it's proven that the mother tongue...helps to learn a second language,” Teresa implied her approach was only appropriate for content courses, saying “when I've had to teach English [language] subjects... then, yes, it's a different story.” While this study focuses on language use within content courses (most often, courses on teaching methods, research methods, teaching practicums, and linguistics) beliefs about ideal use within ELT more generally could potentially influence teacher

educators' language use choices in those content courses; however, there is no consistent pattern to teacher educators' beliefs in that regard.

It is unsurprising that teacher educators' language use practices often coincided with their beliefs about ideal language use; nonetheless, both types of data call attention to the role of beliefs in language use choices. Further research could examine the extent to which these beliefs result from teacher educator practice or shape teacher educator choices regarding language in ELTE courses. Beliefs about ideal language use arise in a social context but are likely also related to personal characteristics of educators such as their identities and prior experiences.

### **Teacher Educator Characteristics**

The survey and focus group data consistently suggested that personal characteristics of teacher educators had a role in their language use practices (see Table 39), though it may have been minor compared to consideration of their ELTE goals, contexts, and students. Blanca, Robert (purposefully English-only), Rosa, Sonia, and Walter (compromisingly English-only) expressed personal preferences for using English, explaining that "I'm not a native speaker of English and because of this, speaking in English is also good for me, I mean, it's a good exercise for me" (Robert) and that using almost only English "is also a benefit for us, since it is not our native language" (Sonia). Five of 14 educators in the *purposefully* and *compromisingly English-only* groups reported such preferences, in contrast to only 2 of the 23 in other groups reporting personal preference as a reason for their language use practices. Notably, the idea of the 'native speaker' was prominent in comments expressing language preferences—preference for English was closely related to teacher educators' identities as 'non-native' English speakers. Given the pressures that 'non-native speakers' can be subject to in ELT (Holliday, 2017; Kamhi-Stein, 2016), that preference may overlap with the quantitative finding of greater English use among

**Table 39**

*Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing the Relationship between Teacher Educators' Language Use Practices and Characteristics*

Quantitative Findings ( <i>n</i> = 115)	Qualitative Findings ( <i>n</i> = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta-inferences
Higher mean English use, compared to teacher educators who did not select this reason, among those with a primary reason of <i>credibility</i> ( $\bar{x} = 4.75$ vs. $\bar{x} = 4.29$ , $t = 2.06$ , $df = 113$ , $p < 0.05$ )	5 of 7 comments expressing personal language preferences relate to almost English-only approaches	Integration of survey self-reporting of English level with focus group descriptions of language use shows a high intermediate (CEFR B1) level for 9 of 15 teacher educators with multilingual approaches and for just 2 of 23 with almost English-only approaches (the remainder reported higher levels)
Lower mean English use, compared to teacher educators who did not select this reason, among those with a primary reason of <i>clarity of expression</i> ( $\bar{x} = 4.05$ vs. $\bar{x} = 4.42$ , $t = 1.85$ , $df = 113$ , $p < 0.05$ )	The idea of being 'non-native speakers' appears frequently in teacher educators' personal language preferences	
<i>Teacher educator English level:</i> Positively associated with English use ( $\beta = 0.39$ ; $p < 0.001$ ) Negatively associated with Spanish use ( $\beta = -0.47$ , $p < 0.001$ )	Some teacher educators with both almost English-only and multilingual approaches connect their language use to personal learning experiences, describing how experiences shaped their beliefs and practice	Quantitative data indicates teacher educators' own language capabilities relate to their language use; the qualitative data indirectly illustrates how educators' language proficiency may relate through personal preferences and experiences, though not addressed directly
<i>Choice of Spanish on survey:</i> Positively associated with Spanish use ( $\beta = 0.67$ , $p < 0.01$ ) Positively associated with multilingual use ( $\beta = 0.57$ , $p < 0.05$ )	No comments made during focus groups on teacher educators' own English proficiency or language capabilities; concern over teacher educators' own English proficiency evident in data collection process	
	Some teacher educators with multilingual approaches may have experienced (or even currently experience) similar challenges with English-medium instruction as they perceive their ELTE <sup>†</sup> students to have	

*Note:* English use reported quantitatively on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represented no English use, 3 represented use during about half of a typical content class, and 5 represented always using English. <sup>†</sup>ELTE = English language teacher education.



teacher educators motivated by credibility compared to those who did not consider credibility a primary motivation ( $\bar{x} = 4.75$  vs.  $\bar{x} = 4.29$ ,  $t = 2.06$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), though focus group participants did not mention credibility. Only four focus group participants identified English as their first language, limiting how much that aspect of language speaker identity could be explored in this study, though it is interesting to note that all four held inclusive views towards Spanish use within English-medium instruction.

Teacher educator personal preferences for multilingual or Spanish use were also evident and those preferences may have also been connected to teacher educators' identities. For instance, Zoila (purposefully multilingual) personally found a multilingual approach "more natural" as "native speakers of Spanish and... obviously teachers of English." Quantitatively, teacher educators motivated by desire to express themselves clearly tended to use less English compared to those who did not consider it a primary motivation ( $\bar{x} = 4.05$  vs.  $\bar{x} = 4.42$ ,  $t = 1.85$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), though both groups still reported using English during more than half of a typical class, on average. In the focus groups, Luz (acceptingly Spanish-medium), who was teaching Spanish-medium subjects, evoked the ambivalence of teacher educators who may believe content courses should be taught in English but also personally feel more comfortable in Spanish:

We have been gradually changing a little that routine that was such a part of our education, that the English teacher didn't speak English... A change is happening, but it also depends a lot on us... that English form part of their lives in the different subjects that they have to manage. But maybe there is also the excuse that because the documents are in Spanish, they're prepared, written and approved in Spanish, and we make use of that...

Luz's comment also points to the role of personal learning experiences in shaping teacher educators' language use choices.

Teacher educators cited their own learning experiences to support both almost English-only and multilingual approaches. Thus, Darwin (compromisingly English-only) explained it was important to him to use English because in his own undergraduate experience, "I didn't have that time exposure to the language." Franklin (purposefully English-only) emulated "a very good professor I had at university who never accepted that we speak in Spanish, and that example... is something that I have maintained in my classes." In contrast, Pedro—the only teacher educator in the *purposefully English-only* group with an inclusive attitude towards Spanish, which he used minimally for certain purposes—attributed his language use attitude to

My experience as a student [when] I also had those professors who said, 'only English in the classroom,' but many of those professors didn't really speak English well themselves. So, I said, I'm not going to be like that, I'm going to teach [my students] well so that they understand, so that they learn.

Diana (purposefully multilingual and selectively English-only) referred to her own difficulties with English-only ELTE in explaining her multilingual approach: "For me, it was very, a lot of the time it was very difficult, so now that I'm a teacher I don't want there to be that barrier, but rather that there be a move closer,<sup>49</sup> that there be trust..." The way these teacher educators connected experiences of their professors' language use when they were ELTE students to their current beliefs and practices illustrates the potential impact of language use experiences in ELTE on teacher functionings.

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<sup>49</sup> In the original Spanish, "un acercamiento."

Quantitative findings indicated that teacher educators' own English proficiency related to their language use practices in teaching ELTE content courses, a connection indirectly supported by qualitative findings as well. In the regression analysis, participants' self-reported English level was consistently positively associated with English use ( $\beta = 0.39$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) and negatively associated with Spanish use ( $\beta = -0.47$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Furthermore, that variation was not only attributable to teacher educators with minimal English proficiency who likely taught foundational, Spanish-medium courses. The difference between having a high intermediate English level (Common European Framework of Reference [CEFR] B2) versus advanced or academic English levels (CEFR C1 or C2) was significant to teacher educators' reported English use ( $\bar{x} = 4.14$  vs.  $\bar{x} = 4.71$ ,  $t = 4.69$ ,  $df = 103$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), Spanish use ( $\bar{x} = 2.28$  vs.  $\bar{x} = 1.57$ ,  $t = 4.08$ ,  $df = 103$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and multilingual use ( $\bar{x} = 2.34$  vs.  $\bar{x} = 1.76$ ,  $t = 2.76$ ,  $df = 103$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

That teacher educators with a high intermediate level (CEFR B2) reported less English use and greater Spanish and multilingual use on average than those reporting *higher* levels of English proficiency is particularly noteworthy. The B2 level—the fourth of six language levels described by the CEFR, the measurement framework generally adopted in Ecuador and the region—is the legally required standard for public school English teachers in the country (Reglamento General a La Ley Orgánica de Educación Intercultural, 2012). Teacher educators in this study's focus groups referred repeatedly to the B2 level when they described the desired teacher competency of English proficiency (see Chapter 6) and when they pointed to their ELTE students' ability to access course content in English (see Chapter 7). For instance, Mario (purposefully English-only) explained that “the students' level of English is rather high, at least B1+, B2. So... they are supposed to learn in English.” Given that the CEFR B2 level is a widely

recognized marker of English capability in the Ecuadorian ELT context, it is notable that teacher educators with that level tended to take more multilingual approaches than those with higher levels of English proficiency.

Qualitative data support the quantitative finding that teacher educator language proficiency was relevant to language use, though teacher educators did not address that connection directly. The qualitative data collection process itself revealed some concern among teacher educators over their English abilities. Two potential focus group participants declined invitations to participate (in Spanish) on the grounds that they felt their English levels were insufficient. When participants had the choice of either English or Spanish, preference for Spanish was so uncommon as to make me think that proving the ability to use English was important to many participants.<sup>50</sup> In the focus groups, only one teacher educator (Ricardo, acceptingly Spanish-medium, whose background was in educational psychology rather than ELT) commented obliquely on his own language abilities.<sup>51</sup> It is hardly surprising that teacher educators would not bring up any personal difficulty with a highly valued teacher capability like English proficiency in front of peers and even colleagues, if indeed they perceived themselves to have any. That focus group participants did not discuss their own English language capabilities as relevant to their language use approaches may point to the sensitivity of this teacher educator characteristic rather than lack of relevance.

However, integrating results from the focus groups and the survey shows a clear pattern in teacher educators' English levels and language use approaches. Table 40 summarizes the survey-reported CEFR English levels of focus group participants, as grouped by qualitative

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<sup>50</sup> See Chapter 4 for a discussion of language use during the data collection process.

<sup>51</sup> "I like to see [the students] when they talk to each other in English...because it makes their lives easier and, in my case, a lot of the time it closed on me because of the difficulty of not having had the language at the right time" (Ricardo, acceptingly Spanish-medium).

**Table 40**

*Teacher Educators' English Language Level, by Type of Link between Language Use Practices and Valued Teacher Capabilities (n = 37), Based on Integrated Data*

Qualitative Group Characterizing Language Use Approach & Alignment with Highly Valued Teacher Capabilities	Low intermediate (CEFR B1) or below	High intermediate (CEFR B2)	Advanced (CEFR C1)	Academic (CEFR C2)
<i>Almost English-only approaches</i>				
Purposefully English-only	0	1	4	3
Compromisingly English-only	0	0	5	1
Flexibly English-only	0	0	1	3
Selectively English-only	1 <sup>†</sup>	2 <sup>†</sup>	1 <sup>†</sup>	0
Reluctantly English-only	0	0	0	1
<i>Multilingual approaches</i>				
Purposefully multilingual <sup>†</sup>	1	5	3	1
Compromisingly multilingual	0	4	1	0
<i>Spanish-medium subjects</i>				
Acceptingly Spanish-medium	1	1	1	0
Reluctantly Spanish-medium	0	0	1 <sup>‡</sup>	0
<i>Total individual participants</i>	2	11	15	9

*Note:* Language use approach and alignment with highly valued teacher capabilities are based on focus group data. English language level is based on self-reported survey data. <sup>†</sup>These participants are also part of the *purposefully multilingual* group, as they have two language use approaches. <sup>‡</sup>This participant overlaps with the *purposefully English-only* group, as he has two language use approaches.

categories for language use approach and how those approaches align with valued teacher capabilities. Nine of 15 teacher educators with multilingual approaches self-reported a high intermediate (CEFR B2) level, in contrast to just two of the 23 with almost English-only approaches. The discrepant proportions of high intermediate English (as opposed to advanced or academic) is especially notable in comparing the *compromisingly English-only* and *compromisingly multilingual* groups, which are similar in their valued teacher capabilities but differ in their language use approaches.

Given that teacher educators with multilingual approaches still reported using English during at least half of a typical class—and almost always closer to 75%—it seems unlikely that

different language use practices lead to different levels of teacher educator proficiency, even though it may be true for many teacher educators that ELTE classes are the time when “the kids, just like us, can practice [English]” (Sonia, compromisingly English-only). More likely, the challenge of addressing complex academic topics with a high intermediate level of English may have contributed (perhaps unconsciously) to a personal preference for using their full range of linguistic resources as a “more natural” (Zoila, purposefully multilingual) approach. Perhaps teacher educators who themselves are not at the most advanced levels of English proficiency are particularly aware of how own-language use might support students at a similar or lower level, as suggested by how Diana (purposefully multilingual, selectively English-only) related her multilingual approach to her perception of a “barrier” as a student. Similarly, Nancy (purposefully multilingual) expressed empathy for the linguistic challenges many of her ELTE students face and related those to her own experience:

There are a lot of English teachers who come with a [language] gap from the elementary or high schools because they used to have physical education or natural science, social science teachers teach English. I say that because it happened to me at the time when I studied in high school.

Nancy’s comment not only suggests that she identifies with her students, but also illustrates how teacher educators’ own capabilities may be shaped by the same broad social structures and teaching circumstances that can impact ELTE students’ learning.

### **Teaching Circumstances**

The focus group findings illustrated the major role of social context and teaching circumstances in teacher educators’ language use practices and in the ways that they related those practices to ELTE student learning. The survey data, on the other hand, provided little

**Table 41**

*Joint Display of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings Describing the Relationship between Teacher Educators' Language Use Practices and Teaching Contexts*

Quantitative Findings ( <i>n</i> = 115)	Qualitative Findings ( <i>n</i> = 37)	Mixed Methods Meta-inferences
Lower mean English use, compared to teacher educators who did not select these reasons, among those with primary reasons of: <i>Student understanding</i> ( $\bar{x} = 3.94$ vs. $\bar{x} = 4.57$ , $t = 4.04$ , $df = 113$ , $p < 0.001$ ) <i>Student comfort</i> ( $\bar{x} = 4.14$ vs. $\bar{x} = 4.44$ , $t = 1.78$ , $df = 113$ , $p < 0.05$ )	ELTE <sup>†</sup> student characteristics mentioned by 36 participants  11 of 15 teacher educators with multilingual approaches (the <i>purposefully</i> and <i>compromisingly multilingual</i> groups) referred to structural challenges affecting ELTE <sup>†</sup> ; 5 of 14 teacher educators who related almost English-only approaches to valuing English proficiency (the <i>purposefully</i> and <i>compromisingly English-only</i> groups) did so	<i>Expansion:</i> The qualitative findings on the importance of context confirm and expand on the hypothesis that the quantitative result of race/ethnicity relating to multilingual use represented a university-based effect or perhaps regional differences in context
Higher mean English use, compared to teacher educators who did not select this reason, among those with a primary reason of <i>policies or expectations</i> ( $\bar{x} = 4.56$ vs. $\bar{x} = 4.22$ , $t = 2.11$ , $df = 113$ , $p < 0.05$ )	Teacher educators with both almost English-only and multilingual approaches referred to overuse of Spanish in Ecuadorian ELT <sup>‡</sup>  Teacher educators with a variety of language use practices refer to institutional administrative factors; including 4 of 4 teaching Spanish-medium subjects	
Non-mestizos positively associated with multilingual use in one model ( $\beta = 0.53$ , $p < 0.05$ ), attributable to <i>university-specific effects</i> (given geographic differences in demographics)	4 of 5 teacher educators working at private universities (the <i>flexibly English-only</i> group) perceived enabling factors and no constraining factors for learning through English-medium instruction, unlike other teacher educators	Teacher educators with different approaches likely both teach within materially different realities and experience those realities differently
No significant relationships of <i>type of university funding</i> (public, private) to language use	15 of 18 teacher educators from Highlands universities described almost English-only approaches and 7 reported multilingual approaches; 10 of 19 from Coast universities described almost English-only approaches and 10 described multilingual approaches (some overlap)	

*Note:* English use reported quantitatively on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represented no English use, 3 represented use during about half of a typical content class, and 5 represented always using English. <sup>†</sup>ELTE = English language teacher education. <sup>‡</sup>ELT = English language teaching.

insight into the role of context, though some quantitative indicators seem to match the focus group findings (see Table 41 for a joint display of both types of results).

By far the most important contextual factors that teacher educators perceived were student characteristics. All but one of the focus group participants mentioned characteristics of their particular groups of students as a reason for their language use, always including reference to students' English level. Student level was not accounted for in the quantitative analysis as this information was not collected in the survey.

However, it may be inferred that teacher educators who indicated on the survey that student understanding or student comfort was a major motivator in their choice of language likely worked with students who had some difficulty with English-medium instruction. Those teacher educators tended to use less English than others (e.g., participants who indicated student understanding as a language use reason had mean English use of 3.94 versus mean 4.57 among those who did not [ $t = 4.04$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ]). Teacher educators with multilingual approaches tended to characterize challenges related to their students' English level as broader social issues, relating language level to prior access to English learning, effects of the pandemic, and university entrance procedures (see Chapter 7 for examples). Eleven of 15 teacher educators who used multilingual approaches that they related to non-linguistic goals (the *purposefully* and *compromisingly multilingual* groups) spoke of structural challenges affecting ELTE, in contrast to five of 14 teacher educators who related their almost English-only approaches to English proficiency (the *purposefully* and *compromisingly English-only* groups).

Whether or not teacher educators spoke of structural challenges in ELTE was not necessarily only a matter of perception but might have reflected different social contexts and teaching circumstances. Though there was no quantitatively significant difference in language



use between teacher educators working at public versus private universities, qualitatively, those at private universities seemed to have distinct circumstances informing their practices. Specifically, the *flexibly English-only* group (comprised of four of the five focus group participants teaching at private universities) was the only group where every participant perceived factors enabling their students' learning through English-medium instruction and none perceived constraints.

University-specific contextual factors likely differed among public universities as well. Given that the survey sample included one to 14 teacher educators from 21 universities and the focus group sample included teacher educators from 18 different universities, with only five universities represented by more than two participants, it is impossible to ascertain patterns specific to individual universities.<sup>52</sup> However, it is noteworthy that 15 of 18 teacher educators from Highlands universities described using almost English-only approaches and just seven described multilingual approaches (with three using both), in contrast to ten teacher educators with each approach (including one using both) among the 19 focus participants teaching at universities in the Coast region. Teacher educator race/ethnicity was included as a control in the quantitative analysis rather than region, as the two were significantly related in the survey data ( $\chi^2 = 5.04$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $n = 115$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), and the results of one regression model suggested that non-mestizos had greater multilingual use ( $\beta = 0.53$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). The greater prevalence of multilingual approaches in the Coast region that appeared in the focus group data supports the idea that the apparent quantitative significance of race/ethnicity was attributable to university-specific effects given geographic differences in demographics.

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<sup>52</sup> Nor did this study aim to do so. Requests for permission to collect data with professors at these universities specifically indicated that there would be no university-specific findings.

Teacher educators with both almost-English only and multilingual approaches spoke of a specific issue in Ecuadorian schools as a factor in their language use choices: the prevalence of Spanish in English language teaching. For educators like Franklin, Robert, Blanca (purposefully English-only) and Darwin (compromisingly English-only), the problem of teachers who “basically explain grammar of English in Spanish” (Robert) motivated almost English-only practices that prioritized developing future teachers’ English proficiency. Those with multilingual approaches perceived a similar problem but did not view an English-only approach as the solution. Gloria (purposefully multilingual) and Verónica (purposefully multilingual and selectively English-only) described an “adverse reality” (Verónica) in schools, where trying to speak strictly English only might cause conflict with students and parents. Yolanda (purposefully multilingual and selectively English-only) and Zoila (purposefully multilingual) differentiated their multilingual approaches from either extreme, as when Zoila contextualized her multilingual ideal: “the traditional traditionalist method is something that hasn’t totally disappeared and, to the extent possible, we obviously shouldn’t use 100% [Spanish], but yes some part in the L1... is a big help.” Thus, the idea that Spanish is or has been overused in teaching English in Ecuadorian schools factored into the ways that teacher educators understood their language use choices but did not necessarily lead them to the same practices.

Teacher educators also indicated that institutional or administrative factors were relevant to their language use choices. Focus group participants such as Milton (compromisingly multilingual), Olga and Verónica (purposefully multilingual, selectively English-only), and Luz (acceptingly Spanish-medium) described how working with university or government guides written in Spanish “makes me make the class be in English and in part in Spanish” (Verónica), while Julia (purposefully English-only) and Lindsay (flexibly English-only) referred to using

English with English-language material. Julia also referred to English as the language of instruction indicated in the program curriculum, arguing that content classes “should be taught in the language that is planned in the curriculum.” Mayra and Franklin described English use as “part of a policy that we got when we are assigned these courses” (Mayra) and as a consideration in “quality control” observations (Franklin). All the teacher educators who taught only Spanish-medium subjects also explained their language use as following what is “intended and programed and planned in Spanish” (Luz). However, while teacher educators cited institutional policies, they almost always mentioned those as further support for choices they also professed to find desirable and practical for other reasons (such as fostering valued capabilities and aligning with ideal practices, as described in the previous sections). In a university context, professors often have voice in pedagogical policies, which might explain why the teacher educators in this study rarely spoke of institutional policy as discrepant from their own preferences. Mark (reluctantly English-only) was the only focus group participant to express disagreement with policy, stating he used only English “not always because that’s what I would like to do, but often because that’s the policy of whichever institution I’m working with.”

Quantitatively, institutional policy appears to favor English use (if we compare reported use of those who selected policy or expectation as an important reason [ $\bar{x} = 4.56$  vs.  $\bar{x} = 4.22$ ,  $t = 2.11$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ]), but it is unclear how many of the 39% survey respondents who said they follow policy would use the same practices regardless. Some teacher educators said they adjusted their language use to avoid student complaints, especially regarding assignments and grades (e.g., Edison’s [purposefully English-only] explaining exam instructions in Spanish “just to be 100% sure that they have been understood, that it can’t be said later that I hadn’t told

them.”) However, those cases involved only small amounts of Spanish within almost English-only approaches and cannot be said to importantly drive teacher educators’ language use.

In summary, teaching circumstances seemed to shape teacher educators’ language use practices at least to the same extent and likely to a greater extent as did valued teacher capabilities, though the two were closely intertwined. Teacher educator beliefs also appeared implicated in language use, though whether those beliefs were indicative of broader ideologies of linguistic imperialism and multilingualism is debatable, as is the extent to which those beliefs drive or result from language use practices. Finally, characteristics of the teacher educators themselves likely informed their language use approaches, though participants seemed to see those considerations as secondary. Overall, fostering valued teacher capabilities seemed to have a prominent but not unique role in shaping language use in ELTE content courses.

## **Discussion**

### ***Contexts Shaping Language Use Practices***

The integrated findings presented in this chapter consistently showed context as central to teacher educators’ language use practices. That context included the enabling and constraining individual factors that teacher educators perceived in their students’ ELTE experiences, as well as structural constraints on ELTE where material resources are limited, particularly in public institutions, and prior access to English language learning is related to socioeconomic status and geography (Cardona-Escobar et al., 2021; Mackenzie, 2021; Ortega Auquilla & Fernández, 2017). Notably, this study describes quite varied perceptions of teaching circumstances among public university ELTE educators that may reflect material differences as well as individual educators’ ways of thinking about constraints. Data from the Ministry of Education’s latest nationwide assessment of English teachers’ proficiency (Ministerio de Educación, Ecuador,

2019) indicated higher-than-average mean results in most provinces of the Highlands region and lower-than-average mean results in provinces of the Coast. Thus, it may be that teacher educators in certain parts of the country and at certain universities face greater structural challenges affecting ELTE. On the other hand, different universities have taken on different approaches to language of instruction and provision of English language classes to ELTE students (Cajas et al., 2023) so there may be different institutionally determined enablers and constraints on teacher educator choice. The importance of these local contexts further underscores the need for contextualized teacher education that connects with practice (Buendía & Macías, 2019; Calle et al., 2019) and suggests that differentiated language use practices within English-medium instruction models are an important characteristic of contextualizing teacher education.

Administrative factors and institutional policies also played a role in teacher educators' language use practice, though that role appeared secondary to considerations of both valued teacher learning outcomes and ELTE student abilities and needs. The meaningful but often secondary role of these institutional factors in the language use choices of teacher educators as they appeared in this study can be understood by “recognizing the agency of actors to enact or resist a policy [which] demonstrates why students' and teachers' classroom languaging practices often do not necessarily reflect restrictive language policies” (Bettney, 2022, p. 257).

The role of context in shaping language use, as well as its relationship to valued teacher capabilities, goes beyond the specifics of institutions and regions of Ecuador to the dynamics of the broader sociopolitical context of ELT in the (post)colonial Global South. The ways that some teacher educators linked multilingual approaches to inclusion of diverse ELTE students, teacher identity and inclusion, and contextualized pedagogies is evocative of the social justice potential that many advocates of translanguaging see in multilingual approaches (Alarcón et al., 2022;

Robinson et al., 2020; Wei, 2022). At the same time, links between language use and justice goals need to be contextualized. Much of the literature on translanguaging, for instance, relates to “the unique social justice aim of promoting pedagogical translanguaging practices in the US” (Alarcón et al., 2022, p. 56). Bettney (2022), in applying international literature on language use to Colombian international schools, notes “the need to consider the context in which language policies are created and appropriated as well as the particular language goals of the actors within each school context.” Ramadiro (2022), in his publication on a teacher education program deliberately employing multilingual strategies for the benefit of dual-language elementary education teachers-in-formation in South Africa, further specifies contextual distinctions from translanguaging as conceptualized in the United States and the United Kingdom, which

assumes that minority students, in the course of their daily lives, have adequate access to the language of power ... In contrast, in post-colonial societies ... where standard varieties of the high-status ex-colonial language, in particular, are not widely available... deliberate efforts are required to teach and learn home languages and additional languages of power. (p. 7)<sup>53</sup>

In Ramadiro’s (2022) conceptualization, this context calls for both “vertical and hierarchical (noun-like) and horizontal and fluid (verb-like) dimensions of multilingualism” (pp. 7-8), the former involving separate use of distinct, named languages and the later involving translanguaging’s conceptualization of a unique repertoire where students and teachers move freely across named languages. It could be that in the Ecuadorian ELTE context, where ELT teachers-in-formation have limited access to standard English as the language of power, some

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<sup>53</sup> It should be noted that Ecuador’s colonial relationship to English is distinct from South Africa’s and that Spanish is itself a colonial language in this context. Nonetheless, the distinction Ramadiro (2022) makes from translanguaging in US or UK contexts is also relevant to Ecuador.

teacher educators with almost English-only approaches take the former view of multilingualism and nonetheless see their approaches as disrupting language-related power differentials by redistributing access to a language that has traditionally been the purview of elite education. That is not to say that translanguaging or, more generally, practices that embrace fluid movement between languages do not have a potential social justice role in EFL contexts, as Rabbidge (2019) illustrates in relating English-only practices in EFL classrooms to marginalization of socioeconomically disadvantaged students. Ecuadorian ELTE educators in this study who embraced multilingual approaches seemed to take Rabbidge's view. Thus, a just approach to language in Ecuadorian ELTE can be conceptualized in more than one way.

In conceptualizing language use practices from a justice perspective, it is essential to look beyond the facts of language use to educators' 'stance' or deeper beliefs on language, identity and power (Alarcón et al., 2022; Barros et al., 2021; Wei, 2022). As evidenced by both the survey and focus group data, teacher educators held varied attitudes and beliefs towards language use even when they shared similar practices. Those beliefs, in addition to valued teacher capabilities and intended just outcomes, appeared to have some bearing on teacher educators' language use.

### ***Ideologies and Beliefs Shaping Language Use Practices***

Beliefs about ideal or acceptable language use in ELT spaces have been tied conceptually and discursively to dominant ideologies of linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism (Bettney, 2022; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Mosquera Pérez, 2022). Prior literature observing the prevalence of those ideologies in South American ELT and ELTE (González Moncada & Llurda, 2016; Mackenzie, 2021; Mosquera Pérez, 2022; Perez Andrade, 2019; Zaidan, 2020) motivated examination of the role of those ideologies in this study. However, a clear empirical link between

language-in-ELT beliefs and broader beliefs about the supposed superiority of English or its ‘native speakers’ was absent in these findings. Rather than characterizing these teacher educators’ beliefs in relation to linguistic imperialism or native-speakerism, it seems more relevant to describe the views of those who idealized English-only practices as monoglossic (Bettney, 2022).

Ecuadorian ELTE educators were divided on whether ELTE ought to incorporate Spanish within English-medium instruction, under what circumstances, and how much. Almost equal numbers as those who held monoglossic ideals for ELTE found at least small amounts of own-language use to support the learning of teachers-in-formation. Thus, the idea that multilingual approaches are “taboo” in Latin American ELTE (Barahona, 2020, p. 6) may be an oversimplification in the Ecuadorian context or may be in a process of transformation. It is also possible that these findings reflect a longstanding discrepancy between practices and espoused rhetoric or idealized beliefs. Freeman (2020) reflects on that discrepancy over the course of his career in global ELT, explaining more favorable contemporary attitudes towards multilingual use as a change in thinking but not necessarily a departure from prior practice:

Multilingualism, ... equally the norm in ELT classrooms in 1998, was generally portrayed as a pedagogical problem. Rather than drawing on these linguistic resources, ‘good practice’ emphasized creating ‘English-only’ classrooms. (p. 9)

Nonetheless, the idea that Spanish should be minimized was prevalent among this study’s participants, and a number of teacher educators seemed conflicted on the value of own language. Even those who saw multilingual practices as desirable focused almost entirely on including Spanish as a comprehension support for struggling students, without seeming to consider broader potential benefits of multilingual approaches (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Chen et al., 2022) that



might benefit all teachers-in-formation and their future students. Indeed, the importance teacher educators placed on constraining individual and structural factors in explaining their multilingual practices suggests an implicit belief that English-only instruction is abstractly, if not contextually, ideal.

These findings echo other studies that observe “non-linear, often contradictory beliefs that individuals, communities and societies hold simultaneously around the power dynamics of language practices” (Alarcón et al., 2022, p. 68). As Barros et al. (2021) note, understanding the role of ideologies or beliefs in language use practices is seriously complicated by the fact that “it is not uncommon to find inconsistencies in the ways teachers justify their pedagogical stances depending on the conditions of the classrooms and the contexts in which their practices are situated” (p. 240). While varying teaching approach according to context is laudable, the shifting and multifaceted nature of educators’ language beliefs makes it difficult to pinpoint how such beliefs shape practices. In addition to being intertwined with contextual considerations, beliefs about language are rooted in teacher educators’ identities, personal experiences, and abilities.

### ***Teacher Educator Characteristics Shaping Language Use Practices***

Personal experiences as learners seemed to shape language use beliefs and practices for teacher educators with various approaches, as previously observed by Dang et al. (2013) and by Rabbidge (2019) in Asian contexts. That finding reinforces this study’s conceptual framing of the relationship between language use practices and language ideologies as bi-directionally interrelated; the students of these educators will likely form beliefs partly as a result of the language use practices they experience in ELTE and subsequently enact corresponding language use practices, just as some of these teacher educators did. That cycle highlights the importance for teacher educators to reflect on how their language use practices fit into a broader mission of

teacher education in society. As Wei (2022) articulates, “choice of the [language] medium cannot be value neutral” as language use both transmits and reflects ideologies (p. 178).

For instance, Rajendram et al. (2023) observed how international students from the Global South studying education at a Canadian university often felt use of their own languages was not accepted, as professors generally did not explicitly endorse or employ translanguaging.<sup>54</sup> Furthermore, these education students’ “beliefs about the appropriateness of translanguaging for their future classrooms were influenced by what they observed in their graduate classrooms” (p. 274). Therefore, teacher educators would ideally adopt practices that reflect consistent ideas about how language supports learning for both ELTE students and ELT students. In that sense, it is noteworthy that there is no consistent view on whether ideal language use practices are the same or different for ELTE students as for ELT students, either among teacher educators with almost English-only approaches or among those with multilingual approaches.

Qualitatively, teacher educator personal preferences seemed particularly relevant to teacher educators who chose to use English almost exclusively. Though personal preference for multilingual or Spanish use was expressed less often in the focus groups than preference for English, it may be that a preference for English is more socially accepted in Ecuadorian ELTE, as elsewhere in the region (Barahona, 2020; Zaidan, 2020), and therefore more often expressed.

Quantitatively, personal characteristics seemed especially relevant to language use practices when it came to teacher educators’ own English proficiency levels, with lower levels (even at a self-reported CEFR B2 level) corresponding to greater multilingual and Spanish use.

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<sup>54</sup> In rare instances where participants of Rajendram et al.’s (2023) study reported that their education professors *did* employ translanguaging, professors were not necessarily proficient in the variety of first languages spoken by international graduate students but nonetheless “used other languages to provide examples... allowed students to use any language during group work, diversified assignments, and incorporated various cultural perspectives in course material” (p. 267).

That professors' English proficiency would be a factor in their implementation of English-medium instruction is unsurprising and has been suggested outside of ELTE, though it is doubtless a more sensitive issue in ELTE where English proficiency is central to professional identity and competency. In a global survey of literature on English-medium instruction in higher education, Macaro et al. (2018) found that "a number of deep concerns have been expressed by lecturers and students and in virtually all studies consulted," most often "student English language proficiency, lecturer proficiency, or both" (p. 52). Ramadiro (2022) describes language use within a multilingual South African elementary teacher education program as "reflect[ing] language ideologies informing the programme, the current language requirements of teacher education programmes in the country, as well the competencies of students and teaching staff" (p. 13). In regard to language proficiency as well as beliefs, teacher educators are themselves (in most cases) a product of local ELT and ELTE, highlighting the cyclical nature of the relationships represented in this study's theoretical framework (see Figure 2 in Chapter 2, which illustrates linked capability sets of teacher educators, ELTE students, and ELT students) in creating some of the very enabling and constraining factors that make educational improvement possible.

### **Limitations**

The integrated findings highlight the importance of specific contexts to understanding how language use practices relate to valued teacher capabilities and ultimate values in teacher education. Yet, the case of university-based teacher education in Ecuador encompasses such diverse contexts that the role of context can only be superficially characterized here. This study's findings could be contextualized and deepened by further study of language use practices and valued teacher capabilities within specific programs or locations with a comparative case-study

approach. A comparative case study comparing teacher educator practices and priorities at two specific universities, for instance, could illuminate the extent to which educators' differing perspectives on student conversion factors described in this study may be attributed to material differences between contexts or to attitudes of the educators' themselves. Such an approach could include other forms of data collection, such as observations, that would not rely exclusively on the educators' perceptions and reporting.

Additionally, these integrated findings raise interesting questions about how monoglossic and multilingual language beliefs shape or are shaped by language use practices and how those beliefs relate to dominant language ideologies of linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism—questions which are barely addressed here. This study's examination of language ideologies was limited to teacher educators' stated beliefs. The role of ideologies as they relate to language use practices and valued teacher capabilities in ELTE could be explored more thoroughly through a discourse analysis approach. By identifying rhetoric and beliefs implicit in the ways educators' talk about language and teacher capability, discourse analysis could go beyond educators' stated beliefs to identify how ideologies may be involved in ELTE practices and priorities.

## **Conclusion**

It seems inevitable that our beliefs, experiences, and abilities as teacher educators shape our practices and priorities. Teacher educators' own beliefs, experiences, and abilities did appear meaningfully related to their language use practices in this study. Yet, importantly, those factors did not seem to dominate. For almost all the teacher educators in this study, considerations of how language use practices can contribute to changing education for the better seemed to be most present in explaining approaches to language use. Nonetheless, the complex and sometimes ambiguous ways we can conceptualize language use practices as contributing to teacher and

ultimately student learning merit deep reflection. As teacher educators, we may not be aware of the weight we give to those various factors and the potential impacts of our choices as we navigate daily practice with teachers-in-formation. The factors that *do* appear to dominate in choice of language use approach are enabling or constraining conversion factors perceived as impacting ELTE student learning. As conceptualized with a capabilities approach according to which, educational inputs are only valuable to the extent that they are converted into valued and valuable capabilities (Robeyns, 2017), those considerations *should* in fact be central to our language use decisions.

## **Chapter X: Conclusion**

The purpose of this dissertation study was to describe language use practices in university-based English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teacher education in Ecuador and the ways and extent to which those practices relate to valued teacher capabilities among teacher educators. It aimed to thus offer conceptual and empirical support for language use practices that suit the needs of specific English language teacher education (ELTE) contexts, as an alternative to practices that simply conform to dominant ideologies. The dissertation has been presented in nine chapters and closes with this tenth chapter of conclusions. Here, I briefly summarize the preceding chapters and then discuss contributions of the study, recommendations for policy and practice, and future lines of inquiry.

### **Summary of the Dissertation**

Chapter 1 introduced the study. Chapter 2 described the theoretical framework, a capabilities approach oriented by decolonial theory, and the conceptual framework, linking the three concepts of language use practices, teacher capabilities, and language ideologies. Chapter 3 presented relevant literature on education in Ecuador and on the study's three core concepts. Chapter 4 described the study's convergent mixed methods design and data collection employing a survey and focus groups, in which teacher educators from 21 of 24 Ecuadorian universities offering undergraduate and/or graduate ELTE programs at the time of the study participated.

Chapter 5 presented quantitative findings showing that most teacher educators reported teaching content courses (such as courses on pedagogy, linguistics, or teacher research) in English while incorporating some Spanish, though most believed in minimizing Spanish. Using ordinary least squares regression analysis, the chapter concluded that the amount of Spanish that teacher educators used and encouraged their students to use related to their prioritization of

teacher empowerment over accountability to standards and to teacher educators' own English proficiency levels. The next two chapters presented qualitative findings: Chapter 6 described teacher educators' language use practices, valued teacher capabilities, and contextual enablers and constraints in their own words, while Chapter 7 used thematic analysis to show how educators understood their language use choices to align with fostering teacher capabilities they believed were most urgently needed in Ecuadorian English language teaching. They linked English-only practices with fostering English proficiency and multilingual practices with fostering non-linguistic capabilities, especially capabilities related to teacher identity and cognition. While student language level was important to all the teacher educators, those with multilingual approaches more often perceived linguistic difficulties among teachers-in-formation as a structural issue reflecting problems in the program or the educational system, rather than as a problem of some individual students.

Finally, Chapters 8 and 9 offered integrated quantitative and qualitative findings. Chapter 8 highlighted points of convergence and divergence between the two sets of findings and expanded on the role of overarching capabilities that teacher educators value. It argued that a vision for improving English language teaching for all Ecuadorian students through best practices of English-medium communicative language teaching underlies teacher educators' choice of almost English-only approaches, while a vision for achieving the same ultimate goal through contextualized pedagogies and flexible approaches to language use underlies choice of multilingual approaches. Finally, Chapter 9 questioned the extent to which valued teacher capabilities shape language use in Ecuadorian ELTE. It noted that, while valued teacher capabilities were consistently linked to teacher educators' approaches to language use, that relationship was closely bound with the affordances and constraints of specific contexts. The

most salient constraint teacher educators perceived was ELTE students' English proficiency. Teacher educators' comments on their students' proficiency and some of the variation in reported language use pointed to how prior access to English learning varies between geographic locations as well as by socioeconomic status in Ecuador, further suggesting the role of context. Language ideologies and teacher educator characteristics—especially teacher educators' own English language proficiency—also appeared to have some role in shaping language use practices, though that role was less salient than explanations related to learning goals and context.

## **Contributions of the Study**

### ***Contribution to English Language Teaching Research***

With the multilingual turn (May, 2014), the English language teaching field has given increasing attention to the “issue ignored: ‘the elephant in the room,’” as Kerr described the topic of own-language use in 2016 (p. 519). However, that attention has rarely focused on language use practices within teacher education for English language teachers (Alarcón et al., 2022; Robinson et al., 2020; Tian, 2020), especially in EFL contexts (Barahona, 2020; Morales et al., 2020; Ubaque-Casallas, 2023), where such practices are of particular relevance. Several studies in Latin America have discussed how emergent bilingual teachers-in-formation learn both English language and other teacher education content simultaneously, highlighting methods and challenges (i.e., Abad et al., 2021; Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Barahona & Darwin, 2021; Dávila, 2020; Martin, 2016; Orosz, 2018). However, those studies have largely focused on specific university contexts and describing language use practices has not been their aim. Ubaque-Casallas' (2023) recent publication on two Colombian teacher educators' translanguaging practices within an ELTE pedagogy course does speak to some of the same



themes as this dissertation, describing South American teacher educators' language use practices as related to teacher identity and from a decolonial perspective. However, no previous studies have attempted to document at scale how teacher educators are approaching language use in ELTE. With a national-level survey of teacher educators' language use accompanied by qualitative description of how educators explain those practices, this study advances our knowledge of what kind of practices are common and how they are understood by educators.

**Multilingual Practices in English Language Teacher Education.** The findings presented here suggest that in Ecuadorian university-based ELTE, the attitude that Spanish use should be minimized is widespread but truly English-only practices are not. Rather than Spanish use appearing truly “taboo” (Barahona, 2020, p. 5), Spanish appeared in varying amounts and sometimes as situationally justified, in relation to teacher educators' aims and to social and personal factors. While some participants indirectly referenced scientific literature on own language in additional language learning, teacher educators in this study who described using multilingual approaches more often “intuitively endorse[d] the use of translanguaging” (Cruz Arcila, 2018, p. 71) on the basis of their situated experiences. By documenting multilingual language use in an EFL teacher education context as practically commonplace but philosophically divergent from the norm, this study provides empirical evidence of the paradox of such practices as “simultaneously unremarkable yet presented as revolutionary” (Alarcón et al., 2022, p. 65). Studies in the global English language teaching field such as those by Hall and Cook (2013) and Anderson and Lightfoot (2021) have similarly observed that multilingual educators commonly use students' own language in the classroom while also seeing own-language use as contrary to generally agreed-upon best practices. However, that paradoxical combination of typical practice and typical belief had not previously been documented in ELTE.

For teacher educators with multilingual practices who face resistance or doubt the legitimacy of their approaches, this study may provide affirmation. It illustrates how some teacher educators understand strategic use of a combination of English and Spanish (the local language in which both teacher educators and their students tend to be much more proficient) to help ELTE students develop valuable teacher capabilities, particularly students graduating from and heading for school contexts with substantial structural challenges. While few studies consider multilingual practices within ELTE, fewer examine how multilingual practices within ELTE might support the learning and inclusion of the teachers-in-formation and not only demonstrate such practices for the benefit of their students (e.g., Morales et al., 2020; Ubaque-Casallas, 2023). Understanding multilingual practices as potentially beneficial for the teachers-in-formation themselves is a valuable contribution. The idea may be relevant for teacher educators and teacher education programs in what the editors of *International Perspectives on Teaching English in Difficult Circumstances* describe as “the working conditions of the majority of English language teachers around the world, conditions which are not often included in the ELT literature in northern/western journals or books” (Kuchah & Shamim, 2018, p. 4). Those circumstances include contexts where EFL teachers have often had limited access to effective English language learning and are developing their own language proficiency along with other teacher capabilities. Multilingual approaches are likely an important component of contextualizing ELTE in many EFL contexts.

Furthermore, teacher education courses are spaces where language use practices and norms are modeled and passed on to future teachers (Rabbidge, 2019; Rajendram et al., 2023). As noted by some of the teacher educators in this study who adopted multilingual approaches, setting an example of inclusive or flexible language use practices prepares teachers-in-formation

to engage in similar practices when they go on to work in school settings where English-only approaches are counterproductive.

The idea that ELTE content courses can model multilingual practices is also relevant to contexts where English is the dominant local language. Advocates of translanguaging have pointed to a problem of perceived distance between the lived experiences of ELTE students and theoretical knowledge of translanguaging. For example, in the United States ELTE context, Robinson et al. (2020) and Tian (2020) observe that ELTE students are unlikely to develop a deep understanding of translanguaging when their ELTE courses use only English. Relatedly, Barros et al. (2021) found that “translanguaging as the doing of and for the ‘other’ emerged as a significant finding... one that merits attention as we seek a better understanding of the effects of the monolingual orientation of teacher preparation programs across subject areas” (p. 249). In their study of translanguaging experiences of international students from the Global South in the education department of a Canadian university (not specifically ELTE), Rajendram et al. (2023) found that multilingual students often employed translanguaging clandestinely and without the support of their professors. Teacher educators and teacher education programs in such contexts could learn from the ways that some teacher educators in Global South contexts like Ecuador engage teachers’ own linguistic repertoires beyond English.

Of course, such takeaways would also need to be contextualized to North American ELTE contexts and linguistic landscapes, just as teacher education research from North America needs to be contextualized to gain insights into ELTE in Ecuador. While most teacher educators in Ecuador may be expected to speak Spanish, most teacher educators in North America are unlikely to speak the wide variety of first languages spoken by linguistically diverse student bodies. Yet, multilingual approaches involve engaging *learners’* linguistic repertoires and do not

necessarily require multilingual proficiency on the part of educators. As Werner and Todeva (2022) argue, educators can most meaningfully implement plurilingual pedagogies with an inquiry-based approach as “co-explorers rather than knowledge transmitters” (p. 215).

Rajendram et al. (2023) note that simply explicitly inviting students to explore concepts cross-linguistically during course activities and including multilingual resources—strategies also described by Ecuadorian ELTE educators, like Teresa, in this study—can go a long way towards supporting multilingual students. They suggest teacher educators may prepare examples or materials for key concepts and assignments in non-English languages most common in their contexts, in collaboration with multilingual colleagues and students (Rajendram et al., 2023). Teacher education programs can encourage such collaborations and seek linguistic diversity among their faculty and student bodies as a whole.

While the findings of this study have relevance for teacher education in various settings, we cannot assume that language use practices mean the same thing to educators across contexts. The teacher educators in this study with multilingual approaches did not necessarily adopt translanguaging or plurilingual pedagogies as conceptualized and increasingly promoted from social justice perspectives, especially in the Global North. Those conceptualizations emphasize not only language use, but also a political stance on linguistic justice (Wei & García, 2022) and “a profound, encompassing shift of mind” (Werner & Todeva, 2022, p. 215) towards a more fluid, horizontal, and holistic understanding of language and learning. The notion that translanguaging can be a decolonial practice implying a deeper epistemological position has recently appeared in Colombian ELTE literature (Ubaque-Casallas, 2023) and is not necessarily incompatible with the Ecuadorian ELTE context. However, a similar stance on the potential

epistemological and political implications of multilingualism was not a notable part of how the teacher educators in this study articulated their practices and purposes.

While this study illustrated how some teacher educators saw multilingual approaches as contributing to justice in and through ELTE, it must be emphasized that, for many of those educators, multilingual practices were “reduced merely to coping with lack of proficiency” (Cruz Arcila, 2018, p. 72). Justice aims were oriented towards avoiding exclusion and marginalization of students who may not be able to participate fully in English-only content classes. However, participants tended to see multilingual approaches as motivated by constraints and challenges, rather than by assets and opportunities present among groups of emergent bilingual teachers-in-formation. The practices described by teacher educators in this study did not appear to imply a political or epistemological stance aiming to “honour rather than punish students’ existing language repertoires” (Alarcón et al., 2022, p. 54) and to move “beyond named languages as [they] have been socially constructed... to undo the process through which the knowledge base and linguistic/cultural practices of colonized people was obliterated” (Wei & García, 2022, p. 314). In that sense, the multilingual approaches to ELTE described in this study are akin to translanguaging as an inclusive practice reducing socioeconomic inequities in EFL (Rabbidge, 2019) but do not exemplify translanguaging as “intended as a decolonizing project” (Wei & García, 2022, p. 314).

Furthermore, the indigenous languages spoken by approximately four percent of Ecuador’s population (INEC, n.d.) are absent from this study, which focused on the use of English and Spanish. Languages like Spanish must be understood as contextually “dominant, colonial, Indigenous, and/or minoritized” (Meighan, 2023, p. 5). In this case, Spanish is a more local, accessible, and excluded language (as compared to English) within the English language

teaching and teacher education field, but also a dominant, colonial language in Ecuadorian education and society. Given both the typical intent (managing low English proficiency) and nature (Spanish-English) of the multilingual practices described here, it is evident that even within a decolonial theoretical framework that problematizes English-only practices, we cannot assume that multilingual approaches are inherently just or desirable (Meighan, 2023; Wei & García, 2022).

If certain language use practices are not necessarily just in and of themselves, how might we think evaluatively about language use within ELTE? A key contribution of this study is the idea, based in a capabilities approach (Robeyns, 2017), that language use practices in ELTE ought to relate to valued and valuable capabilities. Literature on multilingual practices tends to examine the beliefs and ideologies implicit in and perpetuated by educators' practices, qualifying these as more or less just, or to qualify the impact on students' learning experiences and outcomes (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Chen et al., 2022; Ooi & Aziz, 2021). The former may seem very abstract, while the latter requires a common understanding of what experiences and outcomes are desirable—in the case of teacher education, what becoming a good teacher entails. By focusing on the link between language use and valued capabilities within ELTE—which are not limited to knowledge or skills but include ways of knowing and being—the capabilities approach taken by this study foregrounds what is important to these teacher educators while including the decolonial concept that language use is ideological and potentially hegemonic or subversive (Wei & García, 2022). That focus seems more relevant to a context where Spanish is not a minoritized language, decolonial and critical approaches to ELTE are rare, and teacher educators' concerns for justice through language use principally involve access to linguistic and content knowledge. At the same time, I understand the multilingual language use approaches

described here—and their documentation in academic literature through this research study—as potentially valuable for disrupting dominant monoglossic, imperialist, and native-speakerist beliefs in ELTE; as Hornberger (2005) describes, “implementational spaces can also serve as wedges to pry open ideological ones” (p. 606). That ideological stances did not seem to be as present for the teacher educators in this study as consideration of the capabilities they seek to foster in their ELTE students has important implications for the almost English-only practices observed, as well.

**Almost English-only Practices in English Language Teacher Education.** Though this study found multilingual approaches among a notable minority of ELTE educators and found that truly English-only practices were uncommon, almost English-only approaches and efforts to minimize use of Spanish were more prevalent than tolerating or embracing inclusion of Spanish. While the use and potential value of multilingual approaches to ELTE are important takeaways from this study, there are also important implications for our understanding of the practices and motivations of teacher educators who reported using almost only English.

For teacher educators who attempted to carry out an English-only ideal, lack of English proficiency and English use among many Ecuadorian EFL teachers was a pressing concern as an equity issue primarily affecting students of public and rural schools—an unconvertible problem in Ecuadorian English language teaching (Burgin & Daniel, 2017; Calle et al., 2012; Ortega-Aquilla & Minchala-Buri, 2019). It was not ELTE students and their access to ELTE content learning that drew concerns for equity, but rather the ELTE students’ future students and their access to English language learning if teachers have low English proficiency. Those concerns evoke Tao’s (2010) observation that teacher capabilities do not always support student capabilities but rather, teacher and student capabilities may sometimes be competing or

contradictory. Some teacher educators with English-only approaches worried that including Spanish within ELTE content courses, while it might facilitate the educational access of some teachers-in-information, would do so at the expense of their future students' educational access. That concern is understandable but premised on the assumption that English-only practices are ideal for English learning and that multilingual approaches negatively impact English learning.

That Ecuadorian students need more opportunities—and more meaningful opportunities—to use English in their EFL classes is well-substantiated; however, the notion that English-only instruction is the best way to achieve that aim is not. The widespread assumption that English-only practices optimize learning is increasingly refuted by evidence that multilingual practices support *language* as well as content learning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Chen et al., 2022; Galante et al., 2023; Kerr, 2016; Paterson, 2021). In fact, the idea that the use of other languages is necessarily detrimental to English learning has been “demythologized as fallac[y]” (Barrantes-Montero, 2017, p. 7) and traced back to a history of linguistic imperialism (Kedzierski, 2016; Phillipson, 1992).

The teacher educators in this study who adopted almost English-only approaches, like international school educators who Bettney (2022) observed in Colombia, were against own-language use within English-medium instruction primarily because they were concerned about “the potential negative impact on students' English proficiency” (p. 261). Such concerns may be attributed to a lack of familiarity with or confidence in deliberately multilingual pedagogies that take an additive approach to languages (Chen et al., 2022) and to ‘all-or-nothing’ thinking about English use in class. However, beyond the belief that the less Spanish the better for English learning, beliefs associated with linguistic imperialism or native-speakerism did not appear prevalent among these teacher educators. Thus, it may be that English-only ideals in some EFL



contexts are based more on instrumental logic about exposure and immersion than on a deep ideological commitment to English-only practices. If teacher educators' commitment to English-only practices is primarily based in concern for fostering English proficiency rather than in ideological investment in the English-only ideal, and research suggests multilingual approaches support language learning, then educators may be open to revising their English-only practices.

**An Opportunity to Consider the Potential of Multilingual Practices.** Many of the participants in this study, regardless of their language use practices and their most valued capabilities, seemed to believe that multilingual approaches were mostly about using Spanish as a scaffold to support ELTE content learning for teachers-in-formation still developing their English proficiency. Even teacher educators who embraced including Spanish within English-medium content courses sometimes voiced that English *language* classes require a different, i.e., monolingual approach. The potential for multilingual approaches to foster both non-linguistic and linguistic capabilities in ELTE students and to support just outcomes for both teachers-in-formation and their students did not seem to have come into consideration for most teacher educators in this study.

The findings therefore suggest an opportunity for teacher educators to consider the full potential of multilingual practices in ways that many perhaps have not previously. As overviewed in Chapter 3 of this dissertation, various reviews of global literature on multilingual approaches point to benefits of multilingual approaches that go far beyond scaffolding comprehension and foster key elements of effective language learning (Chen et al., 2022; Kerr, 2016; Ooi & Aziz, 2021; Piccardo et al., 2022; Rabbidge, 2019). Chen et al. (2022) summarize these as: “language awareness and plurilingual (and pluri-/intercultural) competence... a positive orientation to language plurality and hybridity...[and] affirmed student identity, increased

agency and language learning motivation” (Chen et al., 2022, p. 15). Galante et al. (2023) further describe how multilingual approaches can encourage greater target language use in synchronous online language classes where students often tend to remain silent. A link between teacher educators’ multilingual practices and highly valuing teacher empowerment did appear in this study. However, participants only occasionally described encouraging student-led multilingual use and often focused on their own speaking of English and Spanish. While that focus certainly reflects the design of the study at least as much as the participants’ views and practices, there is potential for teacher educators to further explore how centering and facilitating students’ language use practices can enact more horizontal classroom relationships and broader benefits of multilingualism (Werner & Todeva, 2022).

In emphasizing the potential of multilingual approaches in Ecuadorian ELTE, I do not mean to dismiss the concerns of teacher educators who see limited use of English in many Ecuadorian EFL classes as a fundamental problem they need to address. Rather, I see an opportunity to move beyond dichotomous thinking where teachers too often see English-only immersion or Spanish-medium grammar translation as the only options. As Cenoz and Gorter (2020) note, “even if translanguaging and immersion see[m] like opposites, they need not be” (p. 6). Ortega (2019) has suggested, regarding the Colombian English teaching context, that “in a country where in most elite schools, the curriculum is offered in English as the medium of instruction..., translanguaging could potentially offer an instructional space for public school students to make meaning while discussing issues that are relevant” and thus “make learning more equitable, especially for students in public and underfunded schools” (pp. 165-166). Rather than being seen as an imperfection in English-medium instruction, multilingual practices could be seen as a contextualized approach that makes content learning through English-medium

instruction viable and accessible in Ecuadorian ELTE and similar contexts. This study points to the potential for teacher educators who view English proficiency as a highly valuable EFL teacher capability to revisit their approaches and consider how inclusion of students own language(s) could both create more equitable spaces in ELTE and also contribute to English learning.

### ***Contribution to Comparative and International Education Research***

This study took a vertically comparative and international perspective by relating ELTE in Ecuador to regional and global trends related to language use, teacher capabilities, and language ideologies. Its contribution to comparative and international education (CIE) research is in part theoretical. CIE scholars have innovatively used the capabilities approach to examine tensions surrounding language in education (Tikly & Barrett, 2011; Tikly, 2016) and surrounding teacher capabilities (Buckler, 2016; Tao, 2010; Tao, 2016), leveraging the strength of this theoretical approach for bridging instrumental and intrinsically valuable purposes. This study builds on and contributes to such uses of the capabilities approach, particularly with its theoretical and conceptual framework (Figure 2 in Chapter 2).

That framework not only links language use practices and valued teacher capabilities, but also lays out how the capability sets of teacher educators, teachers, and students may be seen as interrelated. Teacher educators, based on their own capabilities and intervening factors, make decisions in their instruction that result in particular functionings in teacher education (such as monolingual or multilingual language use practices). Those teacher educator functionings can also be thought of as resources in teachers' capability sets, which teachers-in-formation convert into their own capabilities and, eventually, teacher functionings. Finally, teacher functionings can also be thought of as resources for future students, in turn converted into student capabilities

and functionings. This study suggests that the ways teacher educators expect certain teacher educator functionings/teacher resources to be converted into teacher capabilities and eventually student capabilities, together with the conversion factors they foresee in that process, play an important role in informing teacher educator practices.

The use of the capabilities approach in this study builds on previous work suggesting that capability sets are interrelated. Robeyns (2017) has generally noted that people's capability sets affect each other. Tao (2010) has commented on the manner in which teacher capabilities may be expanded for the sake of thereby expanding students' capabilities or for the sake of the teachers themselves—raising the issue that teacher capabilities, especially those related to wellbeing, sometimes conflict with student capabilities. (For example, we may value teachers' opportunity to have favorable working conditions with a reasonable workload and also value students' opportunity to demonstrate learning through differentiated assessments, yet differentiated assessment may impose a burdensome workload on teachers if sufficient supports are not in place.) This study goes further in exploring how various educational actors' capabilities sets may relate, offering various examples of how teacher educators think about the 'trickle down' effects of their work and the ways in which their practices may impact both their ELTE students and their students' students' capabilities.

Furthermore, this study contributes theoretically to CIE scholarship inspired by decolonial theorists. It is unusual in combining decolonial theory with the capabilities approach. Yet, the idea of capabilities as beings and doings that one has the freedom to choose (Sen, 2004; Robeyns, 2017) fits with the decolonial call for thinking and being 'otherwise' (Walsh, 2015), not necessarily to replace Western modernity's ways of thinking and being but to challenge their universality and inevitability (Mignolo, 2009). As Mignolo and Walsh (2018) write,

“decoloniality is an option, not a mission” (p. 211) and should not become another orthodoxy. This dissertation’s treatment of language use practices contributes to scholarship inspired by decolonial theory by illustrating how we may question dominant practices, values, and ideologies in education—in this case, practices and beliefs based in a monoglossic English-only ideal—and expand possibilities ‘otherwise.’ Multilingual approaches, which have been gaining acceptance in recent years and are further supported by this research, should be understood as one such option for being and doing ‘otherwise.’ Approaches that encourage learners to explore how their multilingual repertoires may support them in reaching a variety of goals, taking control of their own languaging and learning, lend themselves particularly well to expanding decolonial options in and through teacher education. However, this study does not seek to prescribe multilingual practices. Rather, this research points to the option of accepting and enacting multilingual approaches while putting that option in dialogue with understandable fears about letting go of the English-only ideal.

The findings of this study also have relevance beyond the English language teaching field in that they contribute to understanding of English-medium instruction in a Global South higher education context. Many higher education programs in countries where English is not a widely spoken local language, including Ecuador (Ortega-Auquilla et al., 2021), have increasingly adopted English-medium instruction with the aspiration of helping their students access a globally powerful language (Macaro et al., 2018). The logic of adopting English-medium instruction with the aim of fostering students’ English proficiency through simultaneous learning of content and language is particularly relevant to the education of English language teachers, but is by no means unique to ELTE (Dang et al., 2013).

Like some of the teacher educators in this study, many professors of English-medium instruction programs in widely varied contexts are “deeply concerned about their students’ inability to survive, or better still thrive, when taught through English” (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 52). As found here, such concerns are particularly salient in contexts with significant structural challenges and inequities in secondary education. As Macaro et al. (2018) found in their systematic review, higher education students and professors are rarely consulted on how and in which content courses English-medium instruction should be implemented, and the language use practices they engage in to navigate English-medium instruction are also understudied. This study offers insight into how professors contextualize English-medium instruction in diverse contexts through their language use practices, contributing to a body of research on multilingual practices in English-medium higher education supporting students in and from the Global South (Islam & Melo-Pfeifer, 2023; Rajendram et al., 2023; van der Walt, 2013) as well as illustrating the underlying values that lead educators to both English-only and multilingual approaches. The insights of ELTE educators—who are uniquely positioned to appreciate the goals and related language practices of content and language integrated learning—may help educators across English-medium higher education reflect on how their practices align with goals they value.

Finally, this study contributes to global perspectives on teacher education in general. The link between valuing teachers’ becoming empowered decision-makers and using a more multilingual approach suggests that teacher educators who highly value that kind of teacher empowerment are likely to be non-conventional decision-makers themselves, teaching future teachers as they see fit in the context more than as suggested by norms or curricular designations. If we consider teachers’ “higher-thinking skills to take control of their own teaching development” to be important for education systems (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019, p.

198), we should encourage such approaches and explore educator-based rather than top-down accountability systems (Voisin & Dumay, 2020). That implication is just one of several recommendations for policy and practice arising from this study.

### **Recommendations for Policy and Practice**

In a study of the creative teaching practices of EFL teachers working in rural Colombian schools, Cruz Arcila (2018) argues for a bottom-up approach to teacher education that is underpinned on the premise that what teachers need to do is not necessarily completely different from what they already do. It could be argued that teachers need to learn how to better take advantage of what they already do and how to bring this into negotiation with other alternatives. (p. 76)

Cruz Arcila's argument encapsulates my primary recommendation on language use practices for ELTE educators and programs in Ecuador and similar contexts, based on this dissertation's findings.

Firstly, this recommendation applies to teacher educators' own practices. The ELTE educators in this study already employed a range of language use approaches in teaching their content courses and tended to have cogent reasons for seeing their approaches as aligned with valuable outcomes. This study invites such teacher educators to consider the perspectives both of peers who take the same approach and value the same teacher capabilities and of peers who use more or less Spanish and value different teacher capabilities. Furthermore, it encourages teacher educators to explore literature on language use practices that suggests the potential for multilingual approaches to advance *various* valuable teacher education goals (some recommendations are: Galante et al., 2023; Kerr et al., 2016; Ortega, 2019; Ubaque-Casallas, 2023; Werner & Todeva, 2022). In doing so, teacher educators may see ways "to better take

advantage of what they already do” or may see new possibilities through a “negotiation with alternatives,” as Cruz Arcila suggests.

Secondly, this study invites teacher educators to apply the same perspective that Cruz Arcila suggests to the language use practices of ELTE students and of EFL teachers and students in schools who may lean on their Spanish proficiency even when English is the expected language of interaction. One of the teacher educators in this study described English-only practices as his “ideal” but “a losing battle” (Edison, almost English-only approach). What if teacher educators made peace with Spanish within English language teaching and teacher education spaces and instead focused on ways to help students “better take advantage of” (Cruz Arcila, 2018, p. 76) their own language(s) and negotiate their language use choices in service of their learning and well-being?

Regardless of which approaches and priorities they adopted, the teacher educators in this study shared a common aspiration for their work to contribute to more equitable access to language education and a more equitable society. In his article “Phillipson’s Linguistic Imperialism Revisited at the light of Latin American Decoloniality Approach,” Barrantes-Montero (2017) argues that English language teaching “has a great potential to contribute to linguistic and social equality. However, a paradigmatic and epistemological transformation of teacher preparation and [the] teaching profession has to take place as a *sine-qua non* condition” (p. 14). Teacher educators and education programs can move towards such transformation by adopting a critical model of ELTE, rather than presenting teaching as an applied science (Barahona, 2015). ELTE courses should include exploration of how and by whom good teaching is defined, as well as how and by whom English proficiency is defined.



One way to encourage such exploration and critical thinking is to approach ELTE interdisciplinarily, including “the promotion of encounters with professionals of different fields related to education” (Barrantes-Montero, 2017, p. 17). Interdisciplinarity seems particularly needed in ELTE in Ecuador, which is the site of important scholarship on and practice in decolonizing education (Mignolo & Walsh, 2018) that the English teaching field does not appear to engage with. In his 2014 edited volume on the ‘multilingual turn,’ May also called for greater interdisciplinarity in language teaching scholarship, noting that the second language acquisition and TESOL fields have held on to a monolingual and static understanding of language even as critical applied linguists have persuasively described language as hybrid, fluid, dynamic, and sociocultural.

The English-only ideal in English language teaching is a classic example of the colonial epistemological foundation of much of ELTE, which leads “educated people in peripheral countries [to] internalize the values and points of view of the Center countries” (Barrantes-Montero, 2017, p. 7). Ecuadorian ELTE should not unquestioningly adopt the English-only approach long promoted by mainstream global ELT. Nor should it unquestioningly adopt multilingual approaches currently popular in critical global English teaching and applied linguistics scholarship. ELTE educators, program coordinators, and university administrators should put local educators at the center of specifying the ideas and practices they promote. This study brought together and explored Ecuadorian ELTE educators’ experiences and perspectives on language use and most valuable teacher capabilities to that end. I, myself, interpret the findings as pointing to the current value and future potential of deliberate multilingual approaches within English-medium instruction in ELTE contexts like Ecuador. I hope readers will seriously consider all the perspectives described in this dissertation and come to their own

conclusions regarding what kind of language use practices best advance wellbeing and justice for English language teachers and students in their own educational contexts.

These recommendations are relevant to ELTE both in Global South EFL contexts like Ecuador and in Global North contexts like the United States. ELTE educators and programs in contexts like the United States can take away practical lessons from this study and the experiences of teacher educators in Ecuador. The language use practices ELTE students experience within teacher education are powerful experiential learning opportunities that may shape their own practices and beliefs. In contexts like Ecuador, English language teachers-in-formation are almost always emergent bilinguals like their students and language learning necessarily occurs alongside learning of other teacher capabilities; thus, experiences where ELTE students draw on multiple linguistic resources to support their learning are built in. In contexts like the United States, where English language teachers-in-formation are often monolingual speakers of English, ELTE programs should seek to recruit a diverse student body that includes many multilingual students and should understand their multilingualism as an asset to their peers' learning. Brief language learning experiences and demonstration lessons are a classic element in language teaching workshops and methods courses but are rarely extended. For monolingual ELTE students, programs could consider making meaningful learning of another language a core element of ELTE, such as with an additional language requirement, and could build the experience of multilingual practices into content courses.

Finally, teacher educators across fields, as well as professors working in various types of English-medium higher education, could take inspiration in the example of Ecuadorian ELTE educators' language use practices as enacting and promoting contextualized pedagogies. If we value students' developing critical and adaptable thinking, we should understand quality teaching

by seeking out examples of what teachers in challenging local contexts are doing and putting those practices in conversation with ideas from other contexts, rather than assuming global models will address our situated needs.

### **Future Lines of Inquiry**

This study demonstrates that teacher educators' language use practices are shaped at least in part by desire to help ELTE students develop the teacher capabilities those educators consider most urgently needed in their local English language teaching contexts. Those capabilities included not only specific abilities, like demonstrating a high level of English proficiency or establishing a teacher identity, but also broader capabilities like being empowered as decision-makers to define and enact contextualized pedagogies. Yet, how teacher educators understand empowerment, accountability, or recognition-focused models to contribute to improving education could be specified further to appreciate the perceived importance of these overarching capabilities and their associated language use approaches. Moreover, specifically articulating the implied theories of change that teacher educators seem to ascribe to would allow for future research to examine the evidence behind those causal theories for improving English language teaching.

The links between language use practices and valued teacher capabilities in ELTE described in this dissertation are based solely on data collected from teacher educators. Future study of this topic from the perspective of ELTE students would provide valuable insight into whether students experience and learn from course content inputs in English, Spanish, or a combination of those languages in the ways that their professors perceive and intend them to. Furthermore, research with students participating in pre-professional service in the final semesters of their programs or recent ELTE graduates could corroborate or refute the ways that

the teacher educators in this study hoped their language use practices and the capabilities they valued fostering would impact teachers' classroom practice.

This study highlighted the importance of context in teacher educators' approaches to language use practices and future research could provide greater understanding of the role of contexts. Surveys on language use practices should gather information about students' language proficiency to the extent possible, a prominent theme in the qualitative findings of this study that was not accounted for in this study's quantitative data collection. Institutional case studies could provide greater insight into how specific contexts shape language use practices in ELTE and the link between language use and valued teacher capabilities. Such case studies could include classroom observation, as it is unclear from the present study to what extent teacher educator-reported language use reflects actual classroom practice. Furthermore, observations could explore whether almost English-only practices in ELTE content courses are accompanied by 'safe-talk,' which is "characterised by teacher volubility, learner taciturnity, and teaching and learning processes oriented to relatively easier aspects of content, low-order questioning, and face-saving but superficial pedagogical exchanges" and is common when the language of instruction is one in which teachers and learners have limited proficiency (Ramadiro, 2022, p. 9). Case studies could also account for the role of specific institutions' curricula and policies, allowing for a more nuanced exploration of how and why language use practices in ELTE may differ from prescribed language allocation of courses (Bettney, 2022).

Furthermore, future research on language use practices in ELTE that examines the use of indigenous languages and the experiences of indigenous language speakers would be valuable. In Morales et al.'s (2020) study of a translanguaging approach to teaching English to EFL teacher-candidates in Mexico, local indigenous languages were an important part of multilingual

practices. None of the participants in this study self-identified as indigenous, no focus group participants mentioned whether any of their ELTE students speak indigenous languages, and only three of 37 mentioned indigenous languages at all (nor were they prompted to). Yet, speakers of local indigenous languages are important participants in English language teaching and learning in Ecuador. Heras et al. (2023) described indigenous student teachers' motivations for studying ELTE and perceptions of discrimination in Ecuador but did not explore language use. Sevy-Biloon et al. (2020) and Orosz et al. (2021) noted that some Ecuadorian public school EFL teachers see "the influence of indigenous languages as L1" (p. 285) as a factor impeding English learning in their classrooms. Study of the inclusion or exclusion of indigenous languages in Ecuadorian ELTE would offer important insights that might support the learning of both teacher education students and EFL students who speak indigenous languages. For such study, researchers might focus on ELTE contexts where those languages are likely to be spoken in local schools and communities.

This study's findings also point to future lines of inquiry related to language ideologies. The conceptual framework described ideologies as likely shaping not only language use practices, but also valued teacher capabilities and the relationship between language use and capabilities. However, those relationships were not examined here and could provide a fuller empirical picture of the extent to which ideologies may influence ELTE. Additionally, the thematic analysis of this study's focus group data centered on teacher educators' stated beliefs about language; the role of ideologies could be further explored by analyzing the implicit presence of those belief structures in teacher educators' discourse. Such inquiry could potentially explain how the monoglossic beliefs expressed by some teacher educators in this study may relate to ideologies of linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism, which other scholars have

observed in Latin American ELTE (González Moncada, 2021; Perez Andrade, 2019; Zaidan, 2020) but which did not appear directly linked to language use practices here.

### **Concluding Remarks**

As Ramadiro (2022) notes in explaining the importance of language use in teacher preparation, “everything in education cannot be reduced to language, but without language there is no education” (Ramadiro, 2022, p. 9). Language use practices are a fundamental part of English language teacher education and have the potential to profoundly impact both teachers-in-formation and their students. Teacher educators tend to have clear reasons for employing the language use practices they do. Yet, it is easy for us to simply think of our use of language—when we think of it at all—as the most useful for our goals, the most practical in our contexts, or the most ideal in our field, and stop there. This dissertation invites educators and program leaders to go deeper and reflect on the full range of options for language use in their content courses, the variety of factors involved in why they select or discard certain practices, and the ways those choices could shape what all types of students in their courses have the potential to do and be. By engaging in a deeper conversation about how language use aligns with our aims and values—including dialogue with educators who approach language differently—we can broaden the possibilities for contextualized pedagogies that best support our students, and their students.

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## Appendix A: Survey Questions, English Version

### Formación docente para profesores de inglés / EFL Teacher Education

Estimado/a formador/a de docentes de inglés / *Dear EFL teacher educator:*

Agradecería mucho su participación voluntaria en mi investigación de tesis doctoral para SIT Graduate Institute sobre el uso del idioma dentro de la formación de docentes de inglés. Le invito a responder a esta breve encuesta de 15 minutos./ *I would truly appreciate your voluntary participation in my doctoral dissertation research for SIT Graduate Institute about language use in teacher education for EFL teachers. I invite you to respond to this brief 15-minute survey.*

-Adeline De Angelis, Academic Director of English Programs, EIL Ecuador

1. Prefiero / I prefer ...
  - a. ver esta encuesta en español (*automatically directs to question 2 of the Spanish language version*)
  - b. to see this survey in English
  
2. The purpose of the study is to describe how language use in teacher education for English as a Foreign Language teachers relates to valued purposes of teacher education.

Your participation is completely voluntary, and you may withdraw from the survey at any moment.

The data will be handled confidentially and when results are published, no information that identifies you or your university will be used. The anonymized data may be used for future research.

If you have questions or concerns, you can contact me ([adeline.deangelis@mail.sit.edu](mailto:adeline.deangelis@mail.sit.edu)) or SIT's ethics committee ([irb@sit.edu](mailto:irb@sit.edu)).

Do you confirm that you understand this information, that you are at least 18 years old, and that you give your consent to participate in this study by responding to this survey?

  - a. Yes
  - b. No (*automatically directs to end of survey*)
  
3. Do you teach EFL teachers (or future EFL teachers)?
  - a. Yes
  - b. No (*automatically directs to end of survey*)
  
4. Some courses for EFL teachers are language courses aimed at learning English. Do you teach courses on topics other than learning English (such as pedagogical methods, linguistics, research...)?
  - a. Yes, I teach non-language courses.
  - b. No, I only teach courses aimed at learning the English language. (*automatically directs to end of survey*)
  
5. What topic(s) do you teach (apart from English language learning)? (select all that apply)
  - a. educational policy or philosophy
  - b. educational psychology
  - c. pedagogical methods

- d. research methods
- e. sociology or history of education
- f. teaching practicum
- g. linguistics
- h. Other

6. When you teach these non-language courses, how much do you use each language? Consider how much time during a typical class.

	Never	Little (less than half)	Some (about half)	A lot (more than half)	Always (the whole time)
English					
Spanish					
Both English and Spanish, together					

7. When you teach these non-language courses, how much do you encourage your students use each language? Consider how much time during a typical class.

	Never	Little (less than half)	Some (about half)	A lot (more than half)	Always (the whole time)
English					
Spanish					
Both English and Spanish, together					

8. Choose the three (3) reasons that MOST influence your choice of language when you teach.

- a. For students to feel comfortable.
- b. For students to understand me.
- c. To be a credible professional.
- d. To express myself clearly.
- e. To follow policies or expectations about language use.
- f. To help students meet linguistic goals.
- g. To help students meet pedagogical goals.

9. What is your opinion about the following ideas?

<b>EFL teacher education must ensure that EFL teachers...</b>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
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become critical thinkers about English Language Teaching.					
conduct educational research.					
develop a professional identity, attitudes and beliefs about education.					
understand theories of language acquisition.					
master teaching methods and classroom skills.					
have a high level of English proficiency.					

10. Please order these outcomes of EFL teacher education, from the outcome you consider MOST important to LEAST important.

Becoming critical thinkers about English Language Teaching.

Conducting educational research.

Develop a professional identity, attitudes and beliefs about education.

Having a high level of English proficiency.

Mastering teaching methods and classroom skills.

Understanding theories of language acquisition.

11. What is your opinion about the following ideas?

<b>EFL teacher education should...</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
hold teachers accountable to standards for language competency and pedagogical practice.					
empower teachers to differentiate their teaching according to their contexts.					

provide teachers and universities with prestige and increased income/revenue.					
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12. Please order these purposes of EFL teacher education, from the purpose you consider MOST important to LEAST important.

Holding teachers accountable to standards for language competency and pedagogical practice.

Empowering teachers to differentiate their teaching according to their contexts.

Providing teachers and universities with prestige and increased income/revenue.

13. What is your opinion about the following ideas?

Personally, I believe that...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use English only.					
in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use Spanish, or other languages participants know, as a resource.					
the best methods and resources for English language teaching come from English- speaking countries.					
native speakers are the ideal model in English language teaching.					
the goal of learning English is to become as similar as possible to a native- speaker.					
knowing other languages, such as Spanish, is valuable to students and teachers of English.					

14. What is your opinion about the following ideas?

<b>The majority of <u>my colleagues</u> believe that...</b>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use English only.					
in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use Spanish, or other languages participants know, as a resource.					
the best methods and resources for English language teaching come from English- speaking countries.					
native speakers are the ideal model in English language teaching.					
the goal of learning English is to become as similar as possible to a native- speaker.					
knowing other languages, such as Spanish, is valuable to students and teachers of English.					

15. What is your opinion about the following ideas?

<b>The majority of <u>my students</u> believe that...</b>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use English only.					
in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use Spanish, or other languages					



participants know, as a resource.					
the best methods and resources for English language teaching come from English- speaking countries.					
native speakers are the ideal model in English language teaching.					
the goal of learning English is to become as similar as possible to a native- speaker.					
knowing other languages, such as Spanish, is valuable to students and teachers of English.					

16. Which statement do you agree with most?

Allowing Spanish in EFL teacher education...

- a. ...does not help learning. An EFL teacher education program should be like an English-speaking country. Skilled teacher educators can exclude Spanish.
- b. ...does not help learning. However, perfect conditions for EFL teacher education do not exist and so sometimes we have to make a little use of Spanish.
- c. ...can improve learning. But we should keep it to a minimum, and maximize English language usage.
- d. ...can improve learning significantly. We should make use of Spanish.

17. Would you be willing to participate in an approximately 1-hour focus group conversation to talk about this topic further?

- a. Yes
- b. No (*automatically directs to question #23*)
- c. Maybe

### Focus group contact information

This information is collected purely for the purpose of organizing focus group interviews. It will be kept confidential and will not be shared or associated with your responses in the publication of results.

18. Name:

19. Email address:

20. Phone number:
21. A convenient time and day of the week for me to participate in a focus group would be...:
22. I would prefer that the focus group conversation be in...
- a. Spanish
  - b. English
  - c. No preference

### **Final questions**

23. Please select your gender:
- a. Female
  - b. Male
  - c. Other
24. Please select your ethnicity or race:
- a. Mestizo
  - b. Indigenous
  - c. Afro Ecuadorian or Black
  - d. Montubio
  - e. White
  - f. Asian
  - g. Other
25. Where are you from?
- a. Ecuador
  - b. South or Central America, aside from Ecuador
  - c. North America
  - d. Europe
  - e. Africa
  - f. Asia
  - g. Oceania
26. What is your first language?
- a. Spanish
  - b. English
  - c. Both Spanish and English are my first languages
  - d. Other
27. How would you describe your English proficiency?
- a. Beginner / CEFR A1
  - b. Basic / CEFR A2
  - c. Lower intermediate / CEFR B1
  - d. Upper intermediate / CEFR B2

- e. Advanced / CEFR C1
  - f. Academic / CEFR C2
28. How would you describe your Spanish proficiency?
- a. Beginner / CEFR A1
  - b. Basic / CEFR A2
  - c. Lower intermediate / CEFR B1
  - d. Upper intermediate / CEFR B2
  - e. Advanced / CEFR C1
  - f. Academic / CEFR C2
29. What is your highest degree?
- a. High school diploma
  - b. Technical degree
  - c. Undergraduate degree
  - d. Masters degree
  - e. Doctoral degree
30. How many years of teaching experience do you have?
31. At what university do you or did you teach English teachers most recently?
32. In what type of program do you or did you most recently teach?
- a. Undergraduate
  - b. Graduate (Masters)
  - c. Both undergraduate and graduate
33. What type of position (time) do you have at the university?
- a. Full-time
  - b. Half-time
  - c. Part-time (less than half-time)
34. What type of position (contract) do you have at the university?
- a. Tenure
  - b. Contract

*(End of survey)*

## Appendix B: Survey Questions, Spanish Version

### Formación docente para profesores de inglés / EFL Teacher Education

Estimado/a formador/a de docentes de inglés / *Dear EFL teacher educator:*

Agradecería mucho su participación voluntaria en mi investigación de tesis doctoral para SIT Graduate Institute sobre el uso del idioma dentro de la formación de docentes de inglés. Le invito a responder a esta breve encuesta de 15 minutos./ *I would truly appreciate your voluntary participation in my doctoral dissertation research for SIT Graduate Institute about language use in teacher education for EFL teachers. I invite you to respond to this brief 15-minute survey.*

-Adeline De Angelis, Academic Director of English Programs, EIL Ecuador

### Idioma / Language

1. Prefiero / I prefer ...
  - a. ver esta encuesta en español
  - b. to see this survey in English (*automatically directs to question 2 of the English language version*)
  
2. Esta investigación tiene como objetivo describir cómo el uso de idioma dentro de la formación de docentes de inglés como lengua extranjera se relaciona con los propósitos valorizados de la formación docente.

Los datos serán manejados con confidencialidad y al momento de publicar los resultados, no se utilizará ninguna información que le identifique a usted o a su universidad.

Su participación es completamente voluntaria y puede retirarse de la encuesta en cualquier momento.

Si tiene preguntas o preocupaciones, puede comunicarse conmigo (adeline.deangelis@mail.sit.edu) o con el comité de ética de SIT ([irb@sit.edu](mailto:irb@sit.edu)).

¿Confirma que entiende esta información, que tiene por lo menos 18 años, y que da su consentimiento para participar en la investigación por medio de esta encuesta?

  - a. Sí
  - b. No (*automatically directs to end of survey*)
  
3. ¿Enseña usted a docentes de inglés (o futuros docentes de inglés)?
  - a. Sí
  - b. No (*automatically directs to end of survey*)
  
4. Ciertas cátedras para docentes de inglés son asignaturas del idioma enfocadas a aprender el inglés. ¿Dicta usted asignaturas sobre otros temas, aparte del aprendizaje del idioma (por ejemplo, métodos pedagógicos, lingüística, investigación...)?
  - a. Sí, dicto asignaturas sobre otros temas.
  - b. No, únicamente dicto clases enfocadas en el aprendizaje del idioma. (*automatically directs to end of survey*)
  
5. ¿Cuál(es) tema(s) enseña? (seleccione todos que apliquen)
  - a. políticas o filosofía de la educación

- b. psicología educativa
- c. métodos pedagógicos
- d. métodos de investigación
- e. sociología o historia educativa
- f. prácticum de enseñanza
- g. lingüística
- h. otra

6. Cuando dicta estas asignaturas no relacionadas al aprendizaje del idioma, ¿cuánto utiliza cada idioma? Piense cuánto tiempo durante una clase típica.

	Nunca	Poco (menos de la mitad)	Algo (cerca de la mitad)	Mucho (más de la mitad)	Siempre (todo el tiempo)
Inglés					
Español					
Inglés y español, juntos					

7. Cuando dicta estas asignaturas no relacionadas al aprendizaje del idioma, ¿cuánto anima a sus estudiantes a utilizar cada idioma? Piense en cuánto tiempo durante una clase típica.

	Nunca	Poco (menos de la mitad)	Algo (cerca de la mitad)	Mucho (más de la mitad)	Siempre (todo el tiempo)
Inglés					
Español					
Inglés y español, juntos					

8. Elija los tres (3) motivos que **MÁS** influyan en su elección de idioma cuando enseña.

- a. Que los estudiantes estén cómodos.
- b. Que los estudiantes me entiendan.
- c. Ser un profesional creíble.
- d. Expresarme claramente.
- e. Seguir políticas o expectativas sobre el uso de idiomas.
- f. Apoyar a que los estudiantes alcancen metas lingüísticas.
- g. Apoyar a que los estudiantes alcancen metas pedagógicas.

9. ¿Cuál es su opinión sobre las siguientes ideas?

<b>La formación docente para profesores de inglés debe asegurar que los docentes de inglés...</b>	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Neutral	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
se conviertan en pensadores críticos sobre la enseñanza de inglés.					
realicen investigación educativa.					
desarrollen una identidad profesional, actitudes y creencias sobre la enseñanza.					
tengan un alto nivel de dominio del idioma.					
dominen métodos de enseñanza y destrezas del aula.					
sepan sobre teorías de la adquisición del idioma.					

10. Ordene estos objetivos de la formación de docentes de inglés, desde el MÁS importante hasta el menos importante.

Volverse pensadores críticos sobre la enseñanza de inglés.

Realizar investigación educativa.

Desarrollar una identidad profesional, actitudes y creencias sobre la enseñanza. Tener un alto nivel de dominio del idioma.

Dominar métodos de enseñanza y destrezas del aula.

Saber sobre las teorías de la adquisición del idioma.

11. ¿Cuál es su opinión sobre las siguientes ideas?

<b>La formación docente para profesores de inglés debe...</b>	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Neutral	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
exigir que los docentes cumplan con estándares de competencia					

lingüística y práctica pedagógica.					
empoderar a los docentes a diferenciar su enseñanza según su contexto.					
proveer a los docentes y a las universidades prestigio y mayores ingresos.					

12. Ordene estos propósitos de la formación de docentes de inglés, del MÁS al MENOS importante.

Exigir que los docentes cumplan con estándares de competencia lingüística y práctica pedagógica.

Empoderar a los docentes a diferenciar su enseñanza según su contexto.

Proveer a los docentes y a las universidades prestigio y mayores ingresos.

13. ¿Cuál es su opinión sobre los siguientes enunciados?

<b>Personalmente, creo que...</b>	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Neutral	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
en espacios relacionados con la enseñanza de inglés, es mejor utilizar solo inglés.					
en espacios relacionados con la enseñanza de inglés, es mejor utilizar español, u otros idiomas que los participantes sepan, como recurso.					
saber otros idiomas, como español, es valioso para estudiantes y docentes de inglés.					
los nativos hablantes son el modelo ideal en la enseñanza de inglés.					
los mejores métodos y recursos vienen de países anglohablantes.					

el objetivo de aprender inglés es hablar lo más similar posible a un nativo hablante.					
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14. ¿Cuál es su opinión sobre los siguientes enunciados?

<b>La mayoría de <u>mis colegas</u> creen que...</b>	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Neutral	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
en espacios relacionados con la enseñanza de inglés, es mejor utilizar solo inglés.					
en espacios relacionados con la enseñanza de inglés, es mejor utilizar español, u otros idiomas que los participantes sepan, como recurso.					
saber otros idiomas, como español, es valioso para estudiantes y docentes de inglés.					
los nativos hablantes son el modelo ideal en la enseñanza de inglés.					
los mejores métodos y recursos vienen de países anglohablantes.					
el objetivo de aprender inglés es hablar lo más similar posible a un nativo hablante.					

15. ¿Cuál es su opinión sobre los siguientes enunciados?

<b>La mayoría de <u>mis estudiantes</u> creen que...</b>	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Neutral	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
en espacios relacionados con la enseñanza de inglés, es mejor utilizar solo inglés.					



en espacios relacionados con la enseñanza de inglés, es mejor utilizar español, u otros idiomas que los participantes sepan, como recurso.					
saber otros idiomas, como español, es valioso para estudiantes y docentes de inglés.					
los nativos hablantes son el modelo ideal en la enseñanza de inglés.					
los mejores métodos y recursos vienen de países anglo-hablantes.					
el objetivo de aprender inglés es hablar lo más similar posible a un nativo hablante.					

16. ¿Con cuál declaración está más de acuerdo?

Permitir que el español sea parte de la formación de docentes de inglés...

- a. ...no apoya al aprendizaje. La formación de docentes de inglés debe ser como un país anglo-hablante. Los educadores de docentes hábiles pueden excluir el español.
- b. ...no apoya al aprendizaje. Sin embargo, no existen las condiciones ideales para la formación de docentes de inglés así que tenemos que hacer uso de un poco de español a veces.
- c. ...puede apoyar al aprendizaje. Pero debemos limitar su uso y maximizar el uso del inglés.

17. ¿Estaría dispuesto/a a participar en un grupo focal (grupo de discusión) de aproximadamente 1 hora para hablar más sobre este tema?

- a. Sí
- b. No (*automatically directs to question #23*)
- c. Quizás

### Datos de contacto para grupo focal

Esta información se colecciona únicamente para el fin de organizar grupos focales. Se mantendrá en confidencialidad y no se compartirá ni se asociará con sus respuestas en la publicación de resultados.

18. Nombre:

19. Correo electrónico:
20. Teléfono:
21. Un horario y un día de la semana que sería conveniente para mi participar en un grupo focal sería...:
22. Preferiría que la conversación en el grupo focal sea en...
- Español
  - Inglés
  - No tengo preferencia

### **Preguntas finales**

23. Por favor seleccione su género:
- Femenino
  - Masculino
  - Otro
24. Por favor seleccione su etnia o raza:
- Mestizo
  - Indígena
  - Afroecuatoriano o Negro
  - Montubio
  - Blanco
  - Asiático
  - Otro
25. ¿De dónde es?
- Ecuador
  - Sud o Centro- América, aparte del Ecuador
  - Norte-américa
  - Europa
  - África
  - Asia
  - Oceanía
26. ¿Cuál es su primer idioma?
- Español
  - Inglés
  - Español e inglés ambos son mis primeros idiomas
  - Otro
27. ¿Cómo describiría su dominio del inglés?
- Principiante / CEFR A1

- b. Básico / CEFR A2
  - c. Intermedio bajo / CEFR B1
  - d. Intermedio alto / CEFR B2
  - e. Avanzado / CEFR C1
  - f. Académico / CEFR C2
28. ¿Cómo describiría su dominio del español?
- a. Principiante / CEFR A1
  - b. Básico / CEFR A2
  - c. Intermedio bajo / CEFR B1
  - d. Intermedio alto / CEFR B2
  - e. Avanzado / CEFR C1
  - f. Académico / CEFR C2
29. ¿Cuál es su título académico más avanzado?
- a. Bachillerato
  - b. Carrera técnica
  - c. Licenciatura
  - d. Maestría
  - e. Doctorado
30. ¿Cuántos años de experiencia en enseñanza tiene?
31. ¿En cuál universidad enseña o enseñó más recientemente a docentes de inglés?
32. ¿En qué tipo de programa enseña, o enseñó más recientemente?
- a. Programa de pregrado / licenciatura
  - b. Programa de grado / maestría
  - c. Programas de pregrado Y de grado
33. ¿Qué tipo de empleo (tiempo) tiene en la universidad?
- a. Tiempo completo
  - b. Medio tiempo
  - c. Tiempo parcial (menos de medio tiempo)
34. ¿Qué tipo de relación tiene con la universidad?
- a. Nombramiento
  - b. Contrato

*(End of survey)*

## Appendix C: Focus Group Guide

*Research Question: How do EFL teacher educators understand the relationship between their language use practices and the purposes of teacher education that they value, as described by qualitative data?*

The guide is written in both English and Spanish, and the language to be used depends on participants' stated preference upon volunteering to partake and may vary between groups.

First, I will screenshare the information sheet (shared with participants in advance), review it briefly, and invite questions. Then I will ask for verbal consent, as follows.

<p>If you confirm that you read and understand this information, that you are 18 years old or older, and you consent to participate in the study and to be recorded in this conversation, please say 'yes' and show me a thumbs up.</p>	<p>Si confirma que leyó y entiende esta información, que tiene por lo menos 18 años, y da su consentimiento para participar en la investigación y ser grabado en esta conversación, por favor diga 'sí' y muestre sus pulgares arriba.</p>
<p>Thank you for your time. I hope this conversation will be interesting for everyone. I'm going to ask questions, but I invite you to talk not only with me, but also with each other in this group. Also, if you want to express something in Spanish, that's no problem. I ask that we consider this a private space and not share what is said here outside this conversation.</p>	<p>Gracias por su tiempo. Espero que la conversación sea interesante para todos. Voy a hacer preguntas, pero invito a que conversen no solamente conmigo, sino también entre ustedes en este grupo. También, si desean expresar algo en inglés, no hay problema. Pido que consideremos esto un espacio privado y no compartamos lo que se comente aquí afuera de esta conversación.</p>
<p>1. So, everyone here teaches English teachers, or future English teachers. Let's each say what type of courses we teach and then choose the next person to share. For example, I most recently taught Language &amp; Culture in a Masters program. And I choose ... to continue and tell us which courses you teach.</p>	<p>1. Entonces, todos aquí enseñan a docentes de inglés, o a futuros docente de inglés. Digamos cada uno qué tipo de cursos enseñamos, y luego elijamos a la siguiente persona para compartir. Por ejemplo, recientemente enseñé Lengua y Cultura en un programa de maestría. Y elijo... para seguir y contarnos cuales asignaturas enseña.</p>
<p>Thank you all. We'll continue with an open conversation. If you want to say something, please turn on your mic and speak, or if you are waiting for a chance, you can raise your hand, too.</p>	<p>Gracias a todos. Continuaremos con una conversación abierta. Si quiere decir algo, abra su micrófono y hable, o si está esperando una oportunidad, también puede levantar la mano.</p>

<p>2. Let's talk about language use in those classes. How much do you use English, how much do you use Spanish, and how much do you use a combination of them in your teaching these courses?</p> <p><i>Follow up:</i> What do you hope to achieve by using languages in the ways you do?</p>	<p>2. Hablemos del uso de los idiomas durante esas clases. ¿Cuánto utilizan el inglés, cuánto utilizan el español, y cuánto utilizan los dos juntos en su enseñanza de esas asignaturas?</p> <p><i>Hacer seguimiento:</i> ¿Qué esperan lograr, usando los idiomas de las maneras que lo hacen?</p>
<p>3. Does your use of language help you achieve your goals as teacher educators?</p> <p><i>Follow up:</i> If it does help, how?</p>	<p>3. Su uso de los idiomas, ¿les ayuda a lograr sus metas como formadores de docentes?</p> <p><i>Hacer seguimiento:</i> ¿Si es que ayuda, cómo?</p>
<p>4. Does your use of language impede you in achieving those goals in any way?</p> <p><i>Follow up:</i> If it does impede you, how?</p>	<p>4. Su uso de los idiomas, ¿les impide a lograr sus metas de alguna manera?</p> <p><i>Hacer seguimiento:</i> ¿Si es que impide, cómo?</p>
<p>5. We were just talking about language and goals. What goals are most important to you in teaching English teachers?</p>	<p>5. Justo estuvimos hablando de los idiomas y las metas. ¿Cuáles metas les son más importantes en su enseñanza de docentes de inglés?</p>
<p>6. Teacher education is often seen as a way to improve the quality of education. How do you see the programs you work in as contributing to the quality of English teaching in Ecuador?</p>	<p>6. La formación docente frecuentemente se ve como una forma de mejorar la calidad de la educación. ¿Cómo ven los programas en los que trabajan contribuyendo a la calidad de la enseñanza del inglés en Ecuador?</p>
<p>7. How do you think your ideas about teacher education relate to the way you use languages in your teaching?</p>	<p>7. ¿Cómo piensa que sus ideas sobre la formación docente se relacionan con la forma en que utiliza los idiomas en su enseñanza?</p>
<p>8. Could you share anything more about your beliefs regarding the use of English and Spanish in English teacher education?</p>	<p>8. ¿Podría compartir algo más sobre sus creencias con respecto al uso del inglés y el español en la formación de docentes de inglés?</p>
<p>Thank you again for sharing your time and your ideas. As a reminder, please respect the confidentiality of the participation of each person here. During the next months, I will be</p>	<p>Gracias otra vez por compartir su tiempo y sus ideas. Como recordatorio, por favor respeten la confidencialidad de la participación de cada persona aquí presente. Durante los próximos</p>

doing more of these conversations and compiling an initial summary of the findings from them. I will share the initial findings with you by email and invite you to give me feedback, if you wish. I plan to finish the final report next year and I will also share that with you. Thank you so much!

meses, voy a estar realizando más de estas conversaciones y compilando un resumen inicial de los resultados. Voy a compartir los resultados iniciales con ustedes por correo e invitarles a darme retroalimentación, si desean. Planifico terminar el reporte final el próximo año y se lo compartiré también.  
¡Muchísimas gracias!