RESEARCH ARTICLE

Practices, Purposes, Ideologies: A Quantitative Study of Language Use in English Language Teacher Education

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Abstract

Higher education programs in the Global South are increasingly adopting English-medium instruction in a variety of multilingual contexts, where language use practices often diverge from language of instruction policy. Language use practices are particularly relevant in Latin American English language teacher education, where programs may struggle to develop teachers' English proficiency and other learning outcomes simultaneously. This quantitative study conducted in Ecuador examines teacher educators' use of English, Spanish, or multilingual approaches in teaching content courses (e.g., pedagogical methods, research methods, teaching practicums, linguistics). Survey data from 115 teacher educators at 21 universities and OLS regression were used to examine the relationship of language use practices to valued purposes of teacher education, prevalent language ideologies, and teacher educator characteristics. Findings show that English predominated, but an English-only approach was not the norm. How much teacher educators incorporated Spanish in English-medium instruction was significantly related to prioritizing teacher empowerment, to beliefs about language, and to their own English proficiency. This study of English-language teacher educators may help educators across English-medium instruction higher education critically (re)examine how they use language, justify their approaches, and advocate for appropriate administrative and pedagogical support.

Keywords: English-medium instruction, English-only, multilingual, language ideologies, teacher education

Introduction

English-medium instruction (EMI) in education systems where English is not the home language of most students arose in some contexts as a direct legacy of British colonization and expanded in others as vehicle for the internationalization of higher education (Richards & Pun, 2021; Tikly, 2016). Especially in strict English-only forms, EMI has been critiqued for its roots in colonial hegemonies and dominant ideologies rather than evidence of academic effectiveness (Block, 2022; Kedzierski, 2016; Sah & Fang, 2024). Nonetheless, higher education programs in various Global South contexts are increasingly adopting EMI with the aim of helping local students gain access to a powerful international language (Macaro et al., 2018; Griffiths, 2023). The expansion of EMI in such contexts reflects a complex interplay of sociocultural, political, and economic factors and responds to the varied motivations of students, institutions, and policymakers (Gabriels & Wilkinson, 2024).

In a systematic review of research on such programs, Macaro et al. (2018) found that professors in many EMI higher education programs were "deeply concerned about their students' inability to survive, or better still thrive, when taught through English" (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 52), particularly in contexts with significant structural challenges and inequities in secondary education. The challenges associated with English proficiency, as well as the use of local languages within EMI, remain salient themes across global contexts today (Kök, 2023). Burgeoning research on EMI and multilingualism highlights translanguaging—a fluid rather than strictly separated approach—as an emerging trend in global contexts where students' and instructors' English proficiency levels and learning goals vary across and within EMI programs (Sahan & Rose, 2021; Zhu & Wang, 2024). Actual language use often diverges from institutional policy on language of instruction.

This expanding EMI literature has been largely descriptive and sometimes critical (Mirhosseini & De la Costa, 2024). Some authors frame multilingual practices as problem-solving, as in an overview of global EMI research that calls for study of "how effective [is] translanguaging or 'parallel language use' in counteracting the difficulties students and/or teachers experience" (Kök, 2023, p. 242). Others take social justice standpoints, as in a call to decolonize EMI in the Global South that recommends "translanguaging pedagogy… for increased participation and belongingness as well as to counter the perception that local/Indigenous languages and multilingualism are the cause of the problem" (Sah & Fang, 2024, p. 573). From a critical perspective, language use in EMI is never simply a practical issue. Mirhosseini and De la Costa (2024) argue that critical EMI praxis should address ideology, policy, identity, justice, and the sociopolitics of English in "the problematisation of human practices as social acts" (p. 5). To help educators, administrators, and policymakers decide which language use practices are effective, just, or otherwise desirable, scholarship needs to interrogate the purposes, ideologies, and other contextual factors involved.

In Latin America, EMI has expanded through top-down and bottom-up initiatives justified by both instrumentalist aims (e.g., developing workforce competitiveness) and social justice aims (e.g., expanding access for underserved populations) (Aliaga Salas &

Pérez Andrade, 2023). While English-medium higher education is not as widespread in South America as in other regions, EMI is common and widely accepted in English language teacher education (ELTE) there, including in Ecuador (Barahona & Darwin, 2021; Cajas et al., 2023; Ortega-Auquilla et al., 2021). Ecuadorian ELTE has experienced reforms and challenges common to the region (Díaz Maggioli, 2017; Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017) that evidence broader trends in EMI policy and practice. A series of reforms between 2009 and 2016 sought to expand access to both English learning and higher education, while also adopting international standards of quality and accountability (Díaz Maggioli, 2017; Schneider et al., 2019). The official use of EMI varies by ELTE program and both responds to—and is constrained by—top-down reforms that have set English proficiency standards for teachers, required certain content courses, and standardized program hours (Cajas et al., 2023). Teacher educators in Ecuador and the region face tensions between developing language proficiency and meeting other instructional goals, given limited time and the often beginning English levels of entering teachers-in-formation (Abad et al., 2019; Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019). While the English language is especially relevant to the field of study, these tensions in ELTE content courses are a microcosm of tensions in EMI in Latin America more broadly, where language learning is a major concern within ostensibly content-focused classes (Aliaga Salas & Pérez Andrade, 2023).

ELTE programs therefore offer a revealing context to examine language use in Latin American EMI. Since graduates may teach in traditional English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) classrooms or in the expanding content-based English-medium educational sector, ELTE also serves as a model for language use in those spaces. Yet, few studies have explored language use within ELTE in contexts where most teachers-in-formation are also multilingual learners of English, though such contexts are the norm globally. Existing studies have analyzed the practices of small numbers of participants in specific sites qualitatively (Morales et al., 2020; Ubaque-Casallas, 2023; Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2024).

This paper examines language use in ELTE based on quantitative data from a closed-question survey of 115 teacher educators at 21 universities in Ecuador. By offering a broad view of teacher educators' practices and how they relate to both pragmatic and ideological considerations, the paper seeks to illuminate and question the status quo surrounding language use in this context. EMI educators, administrators, and scholars across contexts may find inspiration here to work towards practices, policies, and supports that align with what they value.

Literature Review

Language Use Practices

EMI is common in ELTE world-wide, reflecting broader trends in higher education and in English language teaching (ELT) (Dang et al., 2013). Instruction in English is thought to increase English proficiency because language development occurs when learners engage extensively with meaningful language input, output, and interaction (de

Jong, 2011; Rabbidge, 2019). Meaningful and extensive use of English does not, however, preclude the use of students' and teachers' own language(s) (de Jong, 2011; Galante et al., 2023). Mainstream cognitive and linguistic scholarship informing ELT has historically taken a subtractive view, where one's own language "interferes" with learning the target language and monolingual "native" speakers are uncritically made the model for language acquisition (de Jong, 2011; May, 2014). However, scholars with sociocultural and critical perspectives on language have long critiqued such views, centering multilinguals' experiences and arguing that pedagogies that leverage rather than suppress learners' full linguistic repertoires are more just *and* more effective (García et al., 2017; Lau & Van Viegan, 2020). Pedagogies that leverage own language and center actual language use practices, rather than idealized standard language, have become more widely accepted since the "multilingual turn" (May, 2014).

ELT research has increasingly pointed to the value of multilingual approaches for creating inclusive environments that support both content and language learning, including in global EFL contexts and in South America specifically (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Galante et al., 2023; Ortega, 2019; Rabbidge, 2019). Even in contexts where English-only norms dominate, many multilingual teachers employ some multilingual strategies (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Hall & Cook, 2013; Zhu & Wang, 2024). These strategies may be locally devised pedagogies that teachers do not necessarily connect with global ELT trends (Cruz Arcila, 2018; Sahan & Rose, 2021). However, some teachers' sense of guilt about own-language use, even when they believe it beneficial, is a common theme in EFL literature (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Galante et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019; Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2024). Many EFL teachers have received the message from ELTE that English-only approaches are best (Hall & Cook, 2013; Rabbidge, 2019).

Language use is particularly relevant in Latin American ELTE where programs struggle to develop teachers' English proficiency and broader teacher knowledge simultaneously through instruction in English (Argudo et al., 2018; Barahona & Darwin, 2021). Especially in public higher education, many teachers-in-formation enter ELTE programs without much prior English learning and have limited time to develop proficiency (Abad et al., 2019; Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Cajas et al., 2023). However, several scholars observe that multilingual approaches are "still treated as a taboo in second language teacher education in Latin America" (Barahona 2020, p. 5), where an English-only norm prevails (Zaidan, 2020). Much of this prior scholarship addresses language use practices as they relate to the purposes of ELTE or to prevalent language ideologies.

Purposes of English Language Teacher Education

Studies related to language use in Latin American ELTE often describe language of instruction in connection to teacher-learning outcomes (Argudo et al., 2018; Banegas, 2020; Barahona, 2015; Dávila, 2020; Martin, 2016; Morales et al., 2020). Research from one program in Ecuador suggests that attempts to develop both language and content learning through EMI may not be successful (Abad et al., 2019; Argudo et al., 2018). In other contexts where teachers-in-formation have had little prior English learning, Morales et al. (2020) recommend translanguaging to develop language proficiency, while Banegas (2020) recommends a content-and-language-integrated English-medium

approach to develop both proficiency and a theoretical knowledge of linguistics. While Banegas (2020) emphasizes English use as building confidence, Ubaque-Casallas (2023) argues that translanguaging can foster legitimate teacher identities in resistance to "native-speaker" norms. No clear consensus appears as to which language use practices align with what outcomes.

Broadly recognized teacher-learning outcomes of ELTE fall in general areas of *English proficiency* and *ELT content knowledge* (see Richards, 2017), *pedagogical knowledge* (see Barahona, 2015), and *teacher identity and cognition* (see Johnson, 2016). While tension between English language development and other outcomes is a central concern in Latin American ELTE, English proficiency is often prioritized (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019). Critical scholars in the region lament that decontextualized pedagogical skill and language proficiency tend to be prioritized over the development of teacher identity and cognition (Castañeda-Londoño, 2021; Mendes & Finardi, 2018).

Programs and teacher educators differ not only in the teacher-learning outcomes they prioritize, but also in the overarching purposes of ELTE they emphasize. ELTE may serve to improve education quality through *accountability to standards*, often externally and universally prescribed (Freeman et al., 2015; Sierra Ospina, 2016), or through *teacher empowerment* to define, enact, and differentiate quality teaching (Castañeda-Londoño, 2021; Kuchah et al., 2019). A focus on language proficiency outcomes is often associated with accountability (Sierra Ospina, 2016) but may be refocused on teacher empowerment and confidence (Faez et al., 2021; Freeman, 2020). ELTE may also serve purposes related to *prestige and income* for individuals and institutions (Sadeghi & Richards, 2021). While the nature of the relationship between ELTE purposes and language use practices is not clearly established, prior literature explicitly links language use practices and ideologies.

Language Ideologies

Language policy guiding university-based ELTE has been deficit- and accountability-driven (Sierra Ospina, 2016), often emphasizing language proficiency standards that some see as reinforcing dominant language ideologies (Bonilla Medina & Finardi, 2022; González Moncada, 2021). 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 ideologies of linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism are prevalent in Latin American ELT and ELTE (González Moncada, 2021; Perez Andrade, 2019), for instance in unsubstantiated suggestions that recruitment of "native speakers" will improve quality (González Moncada & Llurda, 2016). Zaidan (2020) describes the exclusive use of English in South American ELT and ELTE spaces, when access to learning English is unequal and speakers share another language, as a manifestation of these ideologies.

Linguistic imperialism represents English as inherently preferable to other languages (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Phillipson, 1992), while native-speakerism represents those perceived as "native speakers" of English as an idealized standard to which others are compared (Holliday, 2006). Phillipson (1992) described five fallacious "tenets" of mainstream ELT that evidence linguistic imperialism: the "monolingual fallacy," the "native speaker fallacy," the "early start fallacy," the "maximum exposure fallacy," and the

"subtractive fallacy." Language use is revealed as ideological rather than pragmatic when "a monolingual approach appears to be a common-sense concentration on the target language only, but is invalid cognitively, linguistically, and pedagogically" (Phillipson, 2016, p. 86). Phillipson's concept of linguistic imperialism aligns with Latin American decolonial scholars' critiques of coloniality as applied to ELT (Barrantes-Montero, 2017).

English-only practices are thought to manifest and perpetuate ideologies of linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism (Holliday, 2006; Jakubiak, 2020). The way "knowledge and use of local language(s) were made irrelevant for learning and teaching English" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 12) exemplifies how imperialism reifies knowledge from the English-speaking Global North as "universal" and marginalizes local knowledge, including the knowledge and practices of multilingual learners and educators globally (Cruz Arcila, 2018; Sahan & Rose, 2021). Alternatively, multilingualism represents multilingual speakers and practices as desirable and preferable to monolingual norms (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019). Deroo and Ponzio (2019) draw on the work of García et al. (2017) to explain that multilingualism "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). While these ideologies evoke recognizable representations of language in society, individuals' beliefs related to ideologies are complex, changeable, and sometimes incongruous (Bettney Heidt & Olson-Wyman, 2025).

The literature briefly summarized above suggests links between language use practices, valued purposes, and language ideologies in ELTE. To explore those links, I put forward the framework represented in Figure 1. It conceptualizes practices, purposes, and ideologies as bidirectionally interrelated, such that each influences—and is influenced by—the others.

Figure 1: Links Between Language Use Practices, Valued Purposes, and Language Ideologies in English Language Teacher Education
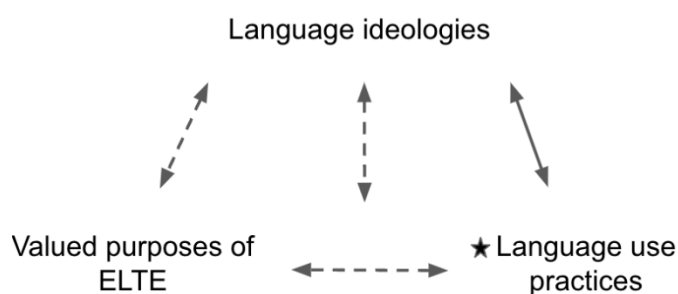
Note: Dotted lines indicate the nature of the relationship is not clearly established by existing literature, while the solid line indicates an established theoretical link. The star indicates the primary focus of this study. ELTE refers to English language teacher education.

Methodology

This paper presents the quantitative component of a larger mixed-methods study. That component was exploratory and descriptive, responding to the research question:

How much do English language teacher educators use English, Spanish, or a multilingual approach when teaching content courses and what factors (valued ELTE purposes, language ideologies, and/or educator characteristics) are associated with reported use of these approaches? The methods were grounded in the above literature and my own positionality.

Researcher Positionality

This study was shaped by my experiences living and working in Ecuador for over a decade, including leading teacher professional development as a full-time employee of a local non-profit and teaching part-time in ELTE graduate programs at three universities. I tended to adopt a multilingual approach and saw myself as prioritizing critical thinking and pedagogical skill. I sometimes encountered resistance, which I associated with linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism based on my reading of decolonial critiques of ELT. I recognized my approach and perspective as situated in my privilege in the Ecuadorian context as a U.S.-born, White, "native" English-speaking multilingual educator, and, throughout this study, I sought to be vigilant for evidence that did not align with my expectations.

Data Collection

Data were collected during spring 2023 after an ethics committee review and with appropriate permissions. Instructors of content courses (those not dedicated to English language learning) in undergraduate and graduate ELTE programs at 22 of 24 Ecuadorian universities offering such programs were invited to respond to an online survey. English-Spanish bilingual invitations were distributed by program coordinators at each university via their habitual channels of communication with program instructors (e.g., email list-serves or WhatsApp groups). One-hundred-and-nineteen teacher educators from 21 institutions responded (response rate = 34% [119/354]), for a total of 115 participants with valid responses. Seventy-four percent of respondents chose the English version of the survey, and 26% chose the Spanish version.

Most participants identified as female (63%), mestizo[1] (77%), and Ecuadorian (90%), with a first language of Spanish (89%). A small number reported first languages of English (5%), both English and Spanish (3%), or another language (3%). Most described their English proficiency as high intermediate or B2 on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (36%) or as advanced or CEFR C1 (36%). Participants mainly taught at public universities (84%) and in undergraduate programs (with only 8% teaching graduate courses exclusively). Eight-six percent taught at least one "core" ELTE subject, that is, subjects in which almost all ELTE programs in Ecuador offer multiple courses: pedagogical methods, research methods, teaching practicums, or linguistics. The remaining 16% exclusively taught less common ELTE courses or general education courses, like policy or psychology. Table 1 presents a summary of participant characteristics.

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[1] 'Mestizo' is the majority ethnic self-identification in Ecuador according to the census (see the Censo Ecuador website) and refers to identifying with both indigenous and European ancestry.

Survey questions addressed three topics: language use, valued purposes of ELTE, and language ideologies. In the absence of a relevant existing survey, I developed the questions based on previous surveys on own-language use in ELT (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Hall & Cook, 2013), exploratory focus-group interviews with teacher educators, and prior literature. The survey was reviewed by an Ecuadorian ELT professional and piloted with nine teacher educators. The pilot respondents confirmed the questions were relevant to the context and suggested minor edits, while I checked responses for consistency by individual and variety across individuals. When the full study's mixed-methods data collection was complete, 37 of the 115 respondents had also taken part in focus group interviews on parallel topics, and I checked the consistency of their comments with the survey responses. Those steps supported the validity of the survey for the exploratory aims of this study, especially regarding practices and valued purposes, which were directly reported experiences and opinions. However, readers should note that the survey was not formally validated or previously used at scale and the results—especially regarding language ideologies, which are abstract constructs—should be interpreted with caution.

Table 1: Characteristics of Participating Teacher Educators (n = 115)

Characteristic	Number	Percent
Gender identity		
Female	73	63%
Male	42	37%
Race or ethnicity		
Mestizo	89	77%
White	12	10%
Montubio	10	9%
Afro-Ecuadorian or Black	2	2%
Other	2	2%
Origin		
Ecuador	104	90%
Other	11	10%
First language		
Spanish	102	89%
English	6	5%
Other	4	3%
Both Spanish and English	3	3%
English proficiency		
Academic (CEFR C2)	21	18%
Advanced (CEFR C1)	42	36%
High Intermediate (CEFR B2)	42	36%
Low Intermediate (CEFR B1) or below	10	9%

Spanish proficiency		
Academic (CEFR C2)	57	50%
Advanced (CEFR C1)	42	36%
High Intermediate (CEFR B2)	14	12%
Low Intermediate (CEFR B1) or below	2	2%
Highest degree		
Masters degree	85	74%
Doctoral degree	30	26%
Years of teaching experience		
30+ years	12	11%
20-29 years	59	51%
10-19 years	33	28%
<10 years	11	10%
Type of university employer		
Public	97	84%
Private	18	16%
Region of university employer		
Highlands	62	54%
Coast	53	46%
Level of program taught		
Undergraduate only	76	66%
Both undergraduate and graduate	30	26%
Graduate only	9	8%
Type of position at university		
Full time	94	82%
Half time or less	21	18%
Content courses taught (some teach various)		
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%

Variables

Survey responses were used to create three continuous dependent variables describing language use and two sets of independent variables describing valued purposes and ideologies respectively (see Table 2 for a list and descriptions). The language use variables represented the approximate amount of time during a typical class for English use, Spanish use, or multilingual use, respectively. Valued purposes were operationalized as binary variables indicating whether each of six specific teacher-learning outcomes and three broad purposes respondents ranked first in order of importance. While first-choice rankings cannot fully represent purposes teacher educators value, they suggest what a respondent prioritizes when time and resources are finite. The three language ideologies were operationalized as continuous variables indicating perceived prevalence, based on level of agreement that statements represented respondents' personal beliefs, their colleagues' beliefs, and their students' beliefs. Participants also selected the most influential reasons for their language use practices. Readers should note that participants were teacher educators, while their "students" were teachers-in-formation.

Analysis

A series of ordinary least squares (OLS) regression models explored the relationship between each language use dependent variable (English, Spanish, and multilingual use) and independent variables representing valued purposes, ideologies, and teacher educator characteristics. I used effect coding to include all the valued purpose variables in the regression models. Dummy coding would be a more typical approach, but it requires leaving a category out of the model as a reference group. Effect coding made it possible to compare each possible value of these categorical variables to the group as a whole, rather than comparing to a reference group, and to calculate coefficients and significance values for each (Mayhew & Simonoff, 2015).

I considered two ways of accounting for linguistic imperialism and multilingualism in separate models, due to inconsistencies between items representing each ideology that had not appeared in the survey pilot. The 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"—the "monolingual fallacy" (Phillipson, 1992) that is often theorized as evidence of linguistic imperialism in ELT (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Zaidan, 2020). However, only 37% agreed or strongly agreed that "the best methods… come from English-speaking countries." Similarly, only 40% of participants agreed or strongly agreed that "in spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use Spanish… as a resource," a key component of a multilingual stance (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019); yet, 84% agreed that "knowing other languages… is valuable to students and teachers of English." These inconsistencies suggested mean values for each ideology might be misleading. I therefore calculated "broad" and "narrow" versions of the prevalence variables for these two ideologies: the "broad" variables considered both statements as originally intended, while the "narrow" variables set aside the statements pertaining to language use.

Table 2: Summary of Variables

Variable	Description of Survey Item(s)	Construction of Variable
Dependent Variables		
English use Spanish use Multilingual use	5-point scale indicating during how much time of a typical class teacher educators use English, Spanish, or both English and Spanish together, and how much they encourage students to use these languages: 'never', 'little (less than half), 'some (about half)', 'a lot (more than half)', or 'always (the whole time)'	Responses for each language converted to values from 1 to 5, where 1 represents 'never' and 5 represents 'always'; teacher educators' own use and encouragement of students' use averaged for each language
Independent Variables		
Valued purposes Critical thinking English proficiency Pedagogical skill Professional identity Theoretical knowledge Research skill Accountability Empowerment Prestige & Income	5-point Likert scale indicating agreement with statements on 6 teacher learning outcomes (e.g., "EFL teacher education must ensure that EFL teachers become critical thinkers about English Language Teaching") and 3 broader purposes (e.g., "EFL teacher education should hold teachers accountable to standards for language competency and pedagogical practice") Ranking of teacher-learning outcomes and of broader purposes	Ranking of teacher-learning outcomes converted to binary variables indicating whether each teacher learning outcome and broad purposes was ranked first
Language ideologies Imperialism Native-speakerism Multilingualism	5-point Likert scale indicating personal agreement and perception of colleagues' and students' agreement with 2 statements for each ideology: linguistic imperialism ("The best methods and resources for English language teaching come from English-speaking countries" & "In spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use English only"), native-speakerism ("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"), multilingualism ("In spaces related to English language teaching, it is best to use… other languages participants know, as a resource" & "Knowing other languages… is valuable to students and teachers of English")	Responses for each statement converted to values from 1 to 5, where 1 represents 'strongly disagree' and 5 represents 'strongly agree' Six responses (2 personal, 2 for colleagues, and 2 for students) averaged for each ideology to indicate its perceived prevalence

Only the five control variables with a significant relationship to at least one language use variable were included in OLS models. Teacher 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 ($r = -0.21$, $p < 0.05$). There were also significant differences in language use between those whose chose English as a *response language* and those who chose Spanish, *t*-tests indicated (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 *teaching any core ELTE courses* and those only teaching other courses. *T*-tests indicated significant differences in multilingual use between those self-identifying as mestizo and those self-identifying with another race or ethnicity ($t = 2.35$, $df = 113$, $p < 0.05$) and significant differences in English use between those teaching in the Coast and Highlands regions ($t = 1.83$, $df = 113$, $p < 0.05$). Those regions have distinct geographic and sociocultural characteristics. In this study, non-mestizo participants most often identified as White or as Montubio, an ethnicity specific to part of the Coast region. A chi square test showed race/ethnicity and region were significantly related ($\chi^2 = 5.04$, $df = 1$, $n = 115$, $p < 0.05$); therefore, only *race or ethnicity* was included among the control variables.

I calculated the regression models in five steps, with A, B and C versions for English, Spanish, and multilingual use as dependent variables. Initially, I included only valued purpose independent variables (models 1A, 1B and 1C). The next models added language ideologies as independent variables, first using the 'narrow' linguistic imperialism and multilingualism variables (models 2A, 2B, and 2C) and then with the 'broad' versions instead (models 3A, 3B, and 3C). The final models added teacher educator characteristics as control variables, together with the narrowly defined ideology variables (models 4A, 4B and 4C) and, alternatively, with the "broad" versions (models 5A, 5B and 5C). These models appeared to meet the assumptions for OLS regression of linearity, non-collinearity, and homoscedasticity (Whatley, 2022).

Findings

Descriptive Statistics
Language Use Practices

The findings quantify how much teacher educators used and encouraged their students to use English, Spanish, and a multilingual approach during content courses on a scale where 1 represented "never" using the language(s), 2 represented using it "a little" (less than half of a typical class), 3 represented using it "some" (approximately half of a typical class), 4 represented using it "a lot" (more than half of a typical class), and 5 represented "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 varied the least, with a standard deviation of 0.84 compared to a wider variety of Spanish ($sd = 1.13$) and multilingual use practices ($sd = 1.12$).

Some participants' reported language use across the three scales did not logically add up to the entirety of a typical class, perhaps because they understood the English, Spanish, and multilingual use scales as overlapping rather than as representing discrete amounts of class time. Responses suggested some of the reported Spanish and multilingual use overlapped with English use, which might indicate primary, but not exclusive, use of English during some class time. However, it is also possible some participants were not attentive to the scale or that desirability bias influenced reported English use.

Considering the three language use indicators together, the data showed 23% of participants using only English and 43% primarily using English. Seventeen percent reported a mainly multilingual approach with more English than Spanish use, and seven percent reported a mainly multilingual approach with approximately the same amounts of each. Another seven percent reported a mainly multilingual approach with more Spanish than English, and just three percent reported primarily using Spanish.

On the survey, teacher educators also selected the three most important reasons for their language use practices. Table 3 presents those 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 did not select it, based on two-sample t-tests. Most teacher educators reported that their desire to help students meet linguistic and pedagogical goals drove their language use (72% and 66%, respectively), though other reasons motivated a minority of these instructors (14% to 39%). Teacher educators selecting linguistic goals, policies or expectations, or professional credibility as a primary reasons reported significantly more English use than respondents who did not select those reasons, 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, t-tests showed that teacher educators with primary motivations of ensuring student understanding, making students comfortable, or expressing themselves clearly reported significantly less English on average than respondents who did not select those reasons (student understanding: $t = 4.04$, $df = 113$, $p < 0.001$; student comfort: $t = 1.78$, $df = 113$, $p < 0.05$; clarity of expression: $t = 1.85$, $df = 113$, $p < 0.05$). Notably, the lower means still suggest use of English during more than half of a typical class, on average. Teacher educators who were motivated by student understanding also reported greater use of Spanish than those who were not ($t = 3.15$, $df = 113$, $p = 0.001$).

Table 3: 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 *Selected by 72%*	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 *Selected by 66%*	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 *Selected by 39%*	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 *Selected by 34%*	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 *Selected by 30%*	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 *Selected by 18%*	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 *Selected by 14%*	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.*

Valued Purposes

Teacher educators broadly agreed ELTE should ensure the teacher-learning outcomes and broad purposes mentioned in the survey, with mean agreement ranging from 4.08 to 4.65 on a scale of 1 to 5. Rankings distinguished which outcomes teacher educators valued most highly and showed more variety, as summarized in Table 4. The specific outcome prioritized by the largest percentage of respondents was English proficiency (30%), and the broad purpose prioritized by the largest percentage was teacher empowerment (48%). Table 4 also presents the mean use of English, Spanish, and a multilingual approach among teacher educators who prioritized each purpose, as compared to those who did not.

Table 4: Teacher Educators' Mean English, Spanish, and Multilingual Use by First-ranked Purpose, for All Participants (n = 115)

Purposes	Mean Language Use by First-ranked Purpose		
	Language	First-ranked	Not First-ranked
Teacher-learning outcomes			
English proficiency *Ranked first by 30%*	English Use Spanish Use Multilingual Use	4.38 (0.76) 2.11 (1.32) 2.18 (1.20)	4.34 (0.88) 2.01 (1.05) 2.05 (1.09)
Critical thinking *Ranked first by 26%*	English Use Spanish Use Multilingual Use	4.30 (1.07) 2.05 (1.19) 2.17 (1.16)	4.37 (0.75) 2.03 (1.12) 2.06 (1.12)
Pedagogical skill *Ranked first by 17%*	English Use Spanish Use Multilingual Use	4.52 (0.75) 1.60* (0.53) 1.67* (0.81)	4.31 (0.86) 2.13* (1.20) 2.18* (1.16)
Professional identity *Ranked first by 17%*	English Use Spanish Use Multilingual Use	4.47 (0.51) 1.95 (0.74) 2.16 (1.15)	4.33 (0.89) 2.06 (1.20) 2.08 (1.12)
Theoretical knowledge *Ranked first by 5%*	English Use Spanish Use Multilingual Use	3.92 (1.11) 3.25** (1.57) 2.42 (1.56)	4.38 (0.82) 1.97** (1.07) 2.07 (1.10)
Research skill *Ranked first by 4%*	English Use Spanish Use Multilingual Use	3.80 (0.84) 2.10 (1.14) 2.00 (0.79)	4.38 (0.84) 2.04 (1.14) 2.09 (1.14)
Broad purposes			
Empowerment *Ranked first by 48%*	English Use Spanish Use Multilingual Use	4.24 (0.94) 2.19 (1.17) 2.26 (1.16)	4.46 (0.74) 1.90 (1.09) 1.93 (1.07)
Accountability *Ranked first by 43%*	English Use Spanish Use Multilingual Use	4.41 (0.79) 1.97 (1.16) 1.97 (1.13)	4.31 (0.89) 2.09 (1.12) 2.18 (1.12)
Prestige and income *Ranked first by 9%*	English Use Spanish Use Multilingual Use	4.70 (0.35) 1.55 (0.50) 1.75 (0.79)	4.32 (0.87) 2.08 (1.17) 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 purpose first and those who did not are significant at *p<0.05 **p<0.01.

Two-sample t-tests indicated that whether teacher educators first prioritized English proficiency, critical thinking, or professional identity did not appear to be significantly related to language use. Those who most highly valued pedagogical skill appeared 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—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 broad purposes teacher educators most valued, though some non-significant differences were observed.

<u>Language Ideologies</u>

The values representing language ideologies should be interpreted in light of the inconsistencies among items described previously. Table 5 presents mean values representing the prevalence of each ideology, including broad and narrow operationalizations of linguistic imperialism and multilingualism. All three ideologies appeared somewhat prevalent, as one-sample t-tests indicated 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 significantly higher than the neutral position of 3 (df = 113, p < 0.001). Considering the broad definitions as originally intended, linguistic imperialism was the most prevalent ideology; among the narrow constructions, multilingualism was most prevalent. Unsurprisingly, broadly defined 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 broadly defined 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, only linguistic imperialism retained a significant correlation in the narrow operationalization, negatively associated with multilingual use (r = -0.20, p < 0.05).

Table 5: Prevalence of Language Ideologies and Correlation with English, Spanish and Multilingual Use

	Mean Prevalence (1-5)	Correlations		
		English Use	Spanish Use	Multilingual Use
Language ideologies				
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 linguistic 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.*

Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results

<u>Variables Associated with English Use</u>

The regression analyses for English use found no significant relationships to specific teacher-learning outcomes (see Table 6). However, valuing empowerment as the

first broad purpose of ELTE was significantly negatively associated with English use (4A: β = -0.27, p < 0.05) in four of the five models (all but 3A). Linguistic imperialism was positively associated with English use only when broadly operationalized (5A: β = 0.33, p < 0.05). Across models, teacher educators' English level had a significant positive relationship to English use (4A: β = 0.39; p < 0.001).

Table 6: Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results Depicting the Relationship Between English Use and Valued Purposes, Ideologies and Teacher Educator Characteristics

	Model 1A	Model 2A	Model 3A	Model 4A	Model 5A
Adjusted R^2	0.028	0.042	0.125	0.367	0.406
Purposes					
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
Ideologies					
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
Teacher educator characteristics					
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 purposes. Model 2 includes valued purposes plus 'narrow' ideologies (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated excluding statements pertaining to language use). Model 3 includes valued purposes plus 'broad' ideologies (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated including 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*

Variables Associated with Spanish Use

Two specific teacher-learning outcomes had significant relationships with Spanish use (see Table 7). Theoretical knowledge was consistently positively associated with use of Spanish (4B: β = 0.94, p < 0.05), while pedagogical skill was significantly negatively associated with Spanish use when ideologies were defined broadly (5B: β = -0.41, p <

0.05) and in all models but 4B. Valuing empowerment as the first broad purpose of ELTE was positively associated with Spanish use (4B: β = 0.33, p < 0.05) in all but model 3B. In the case of Spanish use, both the ideologies of linguistic imperialism (5B: β = -0.41, p < 0.05) and of multilingualism (5B: β = 0.29; p < 0.05) had significant relationships with of Spanish use when broadly defined, but not otherwise. Finally, teacher educators' English level had a negative relationship with Spanish use (4B: β = -0.47, p < 0.001); furthermore, participants' choice of the Spanish version of the survey had a significant positive relationship with Spanish use (4A: β = 0.67, p < 0.01).

Table 7: Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results Depicting the Relationship Between Spanish Use and Valued Purposes, Ideologies and Teacher Educator Characteristics

	Model 1B	Model 2B	Model 3B	Model 4B	Model 5B
Adjusted R^2	0.082	0.103	0.240	0.439	0.499
Purposes					
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
Ideologies					
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*
Teacher educator characteristics					
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 purposes. Model 2 includes valued purposes plus 'narrow' ideologies (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated excluding statements pertaining to language use). Model 3 includes valued purposes plus 'broad' ideologies A (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated including 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

<u>Variables Associated with Multilingual Use</u>

Few independent variables were significantly associated with multilingual use (see Table 8). No significant relationships appeared between multilingual use and specific teacher-learning outcomes or broad purposes when control variables were included. Ideologies were significantly associated with multilingual use only in their broad definitions (5C: imperialism β = -0.47, multilingualism β = 0.36; $p < 0.05$). Teacher educators' own English proficiency did not appear significant to multilingual use, but participants' choice of the Spanish version of the survey had a significant positive relationship to multilingual use (4C: β = 0.57, $p < 0.05$). Finally, teacher educators who did not identify as mestizo seemed to have greater multilingual use in one model (4C: β = 0.53, p = 0.049).

Table 8: Ordinary Least Squares Regression Results Depicting the Relationship Between Multilingual Use and Valued Purposes, Ideologies and Teacher Educator Characteristics

	Model 1C	Model 2C	Model 3C	Model 4C	Model 5C
Adjusted R^2	0.000	0.030	0.139	0.151	0.221
Purposes					
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
Ideologies					
Linguistic imperialism	-	-0.329	-0.619**	-0.216	-0.468*
Native-speakerism	-	0.14	0.180	0.043	0.100
Multilingualism	-	0.145	0.447**	0.101	0.357*
Educator characteristics					
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 purposes. Model 2 includes valued purposes plus 'narrow' ideologies (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated excluding statements pertaining to language use). Model 3 includes valued purposes plus 'broad' ideologies A (imperialism and multilingualism variables calculated including 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*

Discussion

Language Use in English Language Teacher Education

This quantitative view across programs offers a sense of how common English-only, multilingual, and Spanish-dominant approaches are in local practice, information that teacher educators, policymakers, and scholars may use to interrogate norms and contextualize calls for change. For one, these findings suggest EMI predominates in Ecuadorian university-based ELTE. While Cajas et al. (2023) express concern over whether teachers-in-formation receive sufficient English-language input given how Ecuadorian ELTE programs vary in the language of instruction designated in curricula, only 10% of ELTE instructors in this study reported teaching primarily in Spanish. Spanish-medium instruction likely occurs in foundational classes not unique to the English teaching major and in core ELTE courses at a small number of universities. The primary use of English is consistent with discussions of language in Latin American ELTE (Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Barahona & Darwin, 2021) and in specific Ecuadorian ELTE programs (Argudo et al., 2018; Orosz, 2018) but has not previously been documented at scale.

Furthermore, these findings highlight that EMI is not necessarily English-only in practice (Aliaga Salas & Pérez Andrade, 2023). While almost a quarter of teacher educators reported always using English, a strictly English-only approach was not the norm. Most reported using and encouraging their ELTE students to use English during more than half of a typical content class, incorporating Spanish or a combination of English and Spanish minimally. That ELTE educators mostly use English but rarely enact a strictly English-only approach is consistent with survey data from global ELT and EMI research (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Hall & Cook, 2013; Kök, 2023). Here, too, English-only seems prevalent as a normative belief—also evidenced by widespread agreement with the ideological statement that "it is best to use English only"—more than a fully enacted practice. The prevalence of some own-language use raises the question of whether most teacher educators are truly falling short of best practice or whether what is "best" should be reframed.

Furthermore, this study visibilizes the practices of teacher educators who neither maximize English nor use solely Spanish, but draw on their own and their students' broader linguistic resources. Setting aside the few working *primarily* in Spanish, almost a quarter of participants reported using a multilingual approach during at least half of a typical content course, somewhat contradicting the idea that own language use is "taboo" in Latin American ELTE (Barahona, 2020, p. 6), as practiced in Ecuador. Teacher educators with multilingual approaches most often used and encouraged students to use more English than Spanish. Such approaches are consistent with a global tendency to implement EMI in ways that (often unofficially) incorporate students' and teachers' own non-English languages (Zhu & Wang, 2024).

Most teacher educators' language use was motivated by a desire to support students' reaching linguistic and pedagogical goals. Linguistic goals appeared to motivate the amount of English use, but what language use pedagogical goals motivated was unclear. Concern for professional credibility was an important reason for English use,

even more so than policies and expectations, perhaps indicative of pressures Latin American ELT professionals may face to establish legitimacy through proximity to monolingual "native speaker" norms (González Moncada & Llurda, 2016; Zaidan, 2020). Less than 40% of respondents indicated policies or expectations were a primary (one of up to three) reason for their language use choices, suggesting either that most instructors are not subject to firm language policies or that policies align with their more pressing motivations. Nonetheless, policies or expectations motivated some educators and may suppress multilingual use, as many global ELT professionals believe their colleagues and administrators disapprove of incorporating their own language (Hall & Cook, 2013).

The reason best explaining differences in language use was the desire to promote student understanding. This matches the observation that learning content in English is a challenge for many Latin American ELTE students (Abad et al., 2019; Banegas & Martínez Argudo, 2019; Morales et al., 2020), as with EMI in the region and globally (Kök, 2023). Interestingly, only about a third of teacher educators considered student understanding a primary motivator. Perhaps the others had not observed problems with understanding or considered it an implicit concern related to linguistic or pedagogical goals. Nonetheless, educators and administrators would do well to critically (re)examine how well their approaches and policies support student understanding, especially given that in Latin American EMI, "those who manage to overcome the linguistic barrier… in most cases, happen to be those who are privileged enough to receive quality English language education before starting higher education" (Aliaga Salas & Pérez Andrade, 2023, p. 149).

Scholars and practitioners should be cautious, however, of framing multilingual approaches only as a necessary support for those struggling with EMI, rather than as an inherently valuable and legitimate way of learning and communicating. Otherwise, educators and students "may feel translanguaging is not a resource but a crutch" (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021, p. 38) and may perpetuate the myth that multilingual practices reflect deficiencies (Sah & Fang, 2024). Critical EMI praxis requires connecting practices to other social and socially-constructed factors (Mirhosseini & De la Costa, 2024).

Linking Language Use Practices with Valued Purposes

The regression analyses explored whether valued purposes, prevalent language ideologies, or teacher educator's own characteristics were associated with reported language use when holding all else constant. Surprisingly, whether teacher educators ranked English language proficiency as the most important teacher-learning outcome appeared to have no relationship to their language use practices. Some teacher educators probably incorporate more Spanish because they feel their students' proficiency levels require it, which might make them as likely to prioritize English proficiency as those who enact English-only instruction without such challenges. Lack of consensus among educators on whether incorporating one's own language supports target language learning, which has been observed in surveys in other EFL contexts (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Hall & Cook, 2013), could also explain the lack of significant links between valuing English proficiency and language use. It is also possible

that ranking outcomes produced forced, but not meaningful, choices; however, some first-ranked purposes *did* appear meaningfully associated with practices.

Prioritizing future teachers' theoretical knowledge was associated with an increase in Spanish use of almost one point on the one-to-five scale, as compared to the group overall. Participants teaching linguistics, psychology, and "other" courses were most likely to rank theoretical knowledge first. Given some ELTE programs designate courses of these types for Spanish-medium instruction (Cajas et al., 2023), this finding can probably be attributed to differences in what participants taught not fully accounted for in the control variables.

Highly valuing pedagogical skill was associated with rather large differences in Spanish use before controlling for teacher educator characteristics. When characteristics were accounted for and language ideologies were defined broadly, 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 significant differences in English use. That is, where beliefs about ideal language were similarly prevalent, teacher educators who prioritized pedagogical skill tended to adhere more closely to an English-only approach. Teacher education may serve as a pedagogical model for teachers-in-formation (Banegas, 2020; Orosz, 2018), and teacher educators who highly value pedagogical methods may be especially conscious of demonstrating practices their community considers ideal. Notably, what these participants apparently chose to model was using *less* Spanish. Hypothetically, these mostly multilingual teacher educators *could* model translanguaging (Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2024). If accurate, this finding shows how teacher educators employ language to transmit stances that are ideological as well as pedagogical (Wei, 2020).

Language use was consistently linked to prioritizing the broad purpose of empowering teachers to differentiate their instruction according to context. Teacher educators who valued empowerment above accountability to standards or prestige and income tended to use less English and more Spanish than the group overall. The coefficients were not large—these participants still tended to use English during most of a typical class, as did the group overall—but gained statistical significance when teacher educator characteristics were held constant. Perhaps some teacher educators work in contexts where translanguaging pedagogy is particularly relevant in ELT, perhaps similarly to rural areas in Colombia (Cruz Arcila, 2018) or to Mexican communities where indigenous languages are spoken along with Spanish (Morales et al., 2020). A context-driven preference for language fluidity could lead some teacher educators to highly value the power to differentiate instruction by context. Or, teacher educators who prioritize empowering teachers-in-formation might feel incorporating Spanish in English-medium courses helps them do so, as suggested by Ubaque-Casallas' (2023) analysis of translanguaging as a decolonial practice in a Colombian ELTE program.

Linking Language Use Practices with Language Ideologies

The survey was informed by critical literature that theoretically links linguistic imperialism with a monolingual, English-only ideal and multilingualism with inclusion use of students' own languages (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Zaidan, 2020). Unsurprisingly, those ideologies were consistently associated with teacher

educators' language use when the ideologies were measured partly by statements related to language in ELT (i.e., the "broad" operationalizations). With both ideology and language use 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 overall. An additional point indicating greater prevalence of broadly defined multilingualism was associated with about 0.3 more Spanish and 0.3 more multilingual use.

However, setting aside beliefs about language in ELT (i.e., the "narrow" operationalizations), linguistic imperialism and multilingualism did *not* appear related to teacher educators' language use. That is important given how participants' opinions on the two statements for each ideology often diverged. Those inconsistencies point to the complex ambivalence 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 practices. This data supports the idea that educators' abstract beliefs about language and their specific beliefs about language use practice can be quite divergent (Bettney Heidt & Olson-Wyman, 2025; Haukås, 2016; Tian, 2020). Educators may believe local language and knowledge is valuable while also believing the right way to teach is the way monolingual English speakers do it.

Given the imprecision of the survey regarding ideologies, any links between ideologies and practices suggested by this study could be considered misconstrued and perhaps more accusatory than descriptive. While I do not claim clear evidence of such links, I believe this data is worth pausing over. Some teacher educators might reconsider their practices if they notice their views about language in society and in the classroom are incongruent (Haukås, 2016) and recognize linguistic imperialism as operating in both spaces. Recent research with international-school teachers in Colombia found that reading critical texts about dominant language ideologies led some to reevaluate their language use in light of concepts like linguistic imperialism (Bettney Heidt & Olson-Wyman, 2025).

The English-only ideal is also theoretically linked to native-speakerism (Holliday, 2006; Zaidan, 2020). The descriptive finding of significant differences in English use between those who selected credibility as a reason for their language use and those who did not is evocative of that link. However, no significant relationships to native-speakerism appeared in the regression analysis. Given that native-speakerism impacts those perceived as "native" and "non-native" speakers of English differently (González Moncada & Llurda, 2016; Kamhi-Stein, 2016) and English was a first language of only six of 115 participants, related variation might not be observable here.

The Role of Teacher Educator Characteristics in Language Use Practices

Teacher educators' own (self-reported) English proficiency related to their language use, in one of the most consistent findings. Each level of additional English proficiency (for instance, advanced or CEFR C1, rather than high intermediate or B2) 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. That difference was not only attributable to the minority (9%) of participants with low intermediate (CEFR B1) or lower English levels likely teaching Spanish-medium courses. Teacher educators with high intermediate

levels (CEFR B2) 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 advanced (CEFR C1) or academic (CEFR C2) levels, though both groups tended to use English during more than half of a typical class ($\bar{x}$ = 4.14, sd = 0.80; versus, $\bar{x}$ = 4.71, sd = 0.45). Notably, 36% of participants reported a high intermediate (B2) English level, which is also the mandated minimum level for public-school EFL teachers (Kuhlman & Serrano, 2017). This finding suggests some teacher educators may incorporate more Spanish into EMI because they themselves—and not only or necessarily their students—can better address some topics with the support of their first language. That interpretation is consistent with the significant difference in English use between those who did and did not select clarity of expression as a reason for their language use practices. Teacher educator English level was not significantly associated with reported multilingual use when holding all else constant, but *was* related to survey response language.

Choosing to participate in Spanish was associated with an approximately 0.6-point increase in Spanish use and an approximately 0.5-point increase in 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 proficiency. As a reminder, just 26% of respondents chose the Spanish version of the survey, though Spanish was the first language of 89% and only 18% reported their English level as academic or CEFR C2. That so many of these teacher educators opted for English rather than the dominant language in Ecuador hints at the social context of language use for ELTE professionals, as well as the "identity concerns" (Mirhosseini & De la Costa, 2024, p. 7) in EMI generally. While choosing English may reflect personal preference, it might also reflect linguistic imperialism and native-speakerism operating through implicit pressures on South American ELT professionals to prove their legitimacy as English users (González Moncada, 2021).

Other contextual factors surely shape language use, too. Participants who did not identify as mestizo seemed more likely to use a multilingual approach than the group overall when ideologies were operationalized narrowly. The non-mestizo group was diverse, including participants who identified as White, Montubio, Afro-Ecuadorian or Black, Asian, and "other," and tended to teach at certain universities. Given geographic demographic variation, this finding probably reflects university-specific effects on multilingual use.

Limitations

This study had several limitations that should be addressed in future research. It did not examine how multilingual practices include Ecuador's indigenous languages or other languages beyond English and Spanish. It was limited to teacher educators' survey responses and did not account for university policies or student English proficiency. The survey had flaws where it attempted to quantitatively measure the presence of broad

ideologies more commonly used as theoretical frames. Nonetheless, this approach served to broaden the conversation by connecting pragmatic and critical scholarship on ELTE and EMI.

Conclusion

As a first quantitative study of English language teacher educators' language use, this research provides empirical evidence on practices in Ecuadorian university-based ELTE. It confirms the prevalence of EMI in ELTE in the region (Banegas, 2020; Barahona, 2020) but shows that, while English predominates, a strictly English-only approach is not the norm, and a notable minority teaches multilingually. Student understanding appears as a compelling primary reason for educators incorporating some Spanish into EMI.

Furthermore, this study examined factors associated with teacher educators' language use when holding all else constant. Valuing English proficiency as the most important learning outcome did not explain how much English or Spanish educators used. Highly valuing pedagogical knowledge *was* sometimes associated with a more purely English-medium approach, depending on how ideologies were held constant. Thus, English-only approaches may be less about transmitting the English language and more about transmitting a pedagogical norm. Multilingual approaches do not necessarily reflect a lack of concern with English learning, but may be explained by valuing teacher empowerment over accountability or prestige. While the evidence on ideologies is ambiguous, the findings suggest that educators' beliefs about using non-English languages play a role. Finally, instructors' own English proficiency is key to how they approach language.

The findings contribute to critical study of ELTE and EMI in Global South higher education by questioning how practices relate to both purpose and ideology—a key aspect of critical language education and critical EMI praxis (Mirhosseini & De la Costa 2024). The logic of adopting EMI for the purpose of fostering English proficiency through the 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). Unexamined assumptions should not dictate language use in such spaces. Considering the practices of these ELTE educators may help educators across ELTE and EMI higher education (re)examine how they use language, justify their approaches, and advocate for appropriate administrative and pedagogical support.

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Ethics Addendum

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Data Availability Addendum

Data supporting this study cannot be made available because participants did not give permission for their data to be shared.

AI Statement

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