

Agata Słowik-Krogulec (ORCID 0000-0002-5530-3880)
Uniwersytet Wrocławski, Poland

Pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching English to older adults: The case of motivation

1. Pre-service teachers' beliefs¹

Similarly to learners, pre-service teachers enter the university classroom with a set of assumptions about the process of Foreign/Second Language Learning and Teaching. As pointed out by Judith Castellanos Jaimes (2013:196), they might either be aware of them or not, but in both cases the beliefs stem from their understanding of what the process of teaching entails, which is not infrequently influenced by their previous learning experiences “and their reflection upon critical incidents in their first encounters with teaching”. Moreover, the assumptions about learning can at times be illogical and self-contradictory. They may also undergo certain changes or reach turning points due to the effect of professional educational courses, reflection, or personal development and teaching practice, as they are dynamic in nature (see Richardson 2003; Narváez/Ramírez/Vasco 2017). According to Deborah Busch (2010:319), however, there are studies showing that teacher training has little or no impact on pre-service teachers' opinions (see also, Peacock 2001) and that “experiential and reflective activities seem to have a stronger effect on the development of belief systems than declarative knowledge (theories and research) taught alone” (ibid.). Xu Li (2012), on the other hand, argues that novice teachers' opinions play a vital role in preparation for language teaching (qtd. in Gilakjani/Sabouri 2017:78). Hongying Zheng (2009) also notes that, if unchanged, these beliefs can affect lesson planning and the choice of techniques and methods, as well as classroom management (qtd. in Kandilla/Pebriyani/Meliana/Arbiansah 2018:64).

¹ It is not within the scope of this paper to distinguish between beliefs, opinions, subjective theories, assumptions, etc. Therefore, these terms are used interchangeably to refer to the views of pre-service teachers regarding foreign language learning and teaching.

2. Older adults and U3As

In the case of older adults, pre-service teachers' subjective theories regarding old adulthood, the process of ageing, and learning a foreign language later in life are rarely challenged during teacher training courses in Poland (see for instance Słowik-Krogulec 2020a). This is in spite of the fact that the beginning of the 21st century has seen a slowly increasing worldwide interest in the studies of "Foreign Language Geragogy" (FLG) which, until recently, had been developing as two separate fields: geragogy and Second Language Acquisition. In 1997, Annette Berndt introduced the term "Fremdsprachengeragogik", which was later translated by Anna Jaroszewska as "Glottogeragogika" in her book „Nauczanie języków obcych seniorów w Polsce” 2013 (Teaching foreign languages to older adults in Poland, my transl.). The English term, "Critical Foreign Language Geragogy", was first used three years later by Danya Ramírez Gómez in her book "Language Teaching and the Older Adult" (2016a; see also 2016b). So far, except for the two aforementioned monographs (see Jaroszewska 2013; Ramírez Gómez 2016a), only one other volume researching this age group has been published: "Third Age learners of Foreign Languages", edited by Danuta Gabryś-Barker (2018). One more, namely "Insights into Senior Foreign Language Education" by Marek Derenowski (2021), is pending publication. This demonstrates that, although there is a growing number of studies related to "Foreign Language Geragogy", there is a considerable need for more research to be done on older adult learners of foreign languages.

Yet, simultaneously, it should be pointed out that the so-called developed societies are ageing at an unprecedented rate, which has implications for nearly all aspects of our lives, including education (see Findsen/Formosa 2011; Schmidt-Hertha/Jelenc Krašovec/Formosa 2014). The growing interest in FLG of groups who are no longer vocationally active but are willing to continue their lifelong education in later years is reflected by the number of courses offered by private language schools, senior centres, and Universities of the Third Age, of which there are already 640 in Poland alone (GUS 2020:67). However, despite this positive trend that allows older adults to take part in cognitively engaging activities, such as learning foreign languages during their retirement, the quality of the courses varies significantly.

Many English classes are taught by peers who share their knowledge with others as volunteers, which is to be expected, especially in the British U3A

model. According to this model, the role of the U3A is to offer self-help and to provide “the friendly, fun way to learn new things and share your skills with others”, take part in local events, advertise positive ageing and challenge ageist stereotypes.² The French model of U3A, on the other hand, is found in most continental centres for older adults, including Poland, and is an educational offer for those who are interested in developing their skills and expanding their knowledge in later life. The classes can be taught by academic staff or other specialists/teachers/lecturers in the given field, but they do not exclude volunteer peer-teaching (see Formosa 2009; 2010). There are also four hybrid versions of U3A: the “culturally-hybrid”, “French-speaking North American”, “South American”, and “Chinese” models, that include elements of both the French and British models (Formosa 2009).

Irrespective of the prevalent model or the institution that provides lifelong learning opportunities for people of the age of 60 and older, educators often might not have the necessary knowledge of how to approach this age group and, as a result, do not equip their learners with techniques and strategies that would improve the learning process. By following solely their beliefs and subjective theories regarding senescence and old age teachers often do not respond to their course participants’ needs, cognitive abilities and preferences (to learn more about the learners’ expectations see Grotek 2018; Słowik-Krogulec 2019). In addition, the older the learners are, the more potential problems might be encountered by the educators due to natural age-related changes. The materials used in the classroom are also not adapted to suit this age group, both in terms of their quality (font size, easy-to-see colours, enough space to write the answers, easily understandable recordings without any background noise that is known to impede real-life communication let alone listening practice, to name just a few of the most common problems), and content (unprejudiced and non-condescending topics that are relevant and valuable to the learners) (see Słowik-Krogulec 2020a; 2020b). Nonetheless, so far in Poland programme providers rarely acknowledge the specific needs of this age group and, as of 2021, there are hardly any University courses introducing FLG, which would equip pre-service teachers with knowledge about the process of ageing and the specific character of late-life learning.³

² <https://www.u3a.org.uk>

³ For instance, at the Institute of English Studies (University of Wrocław, Poland), the first (elective) course related to lifelong learning in later life and “Foreign Language Geragogy” was introduced in winter term 2020/2021.

It should be highlighted that there is a necessity for such courses as older adults are and should be treated as a heterogeneous group with special educational needs (see Ramírez Gómez 2016b). The beliefs of teachers-in-training, as well as their (mis)understanding of the reasons behind learning foreign languages in later life, can affect not only the quality and usefulness of the course, but might even lead to stereotypical treatment of older adults and, consequently, their discouragement. In his recent analysis of U3As, Marvin Formosa (2009) notes that U3As have had a lot of positive impact in terms of the better physical, cognitive, social, and psychological well-being of its participants. However, there are also studies that show “strong gender, social class, ageist, and ethnic biases” (ibid.). Along similar lines, Simone Pfenninger and David Singleton (2019:419) argue that “L2 acquisition in the third age needs to be regarded not just as a goal in itself but as a means of promoting social interaction and integration, and that it is partly through the stimulation of social well-being that its cognitive effects may potentially be observed”. It is, therefore, the role of widely understood education not only to challenge and (as a result) end discriminatory practices, or to affect the way in which we see older adults and understand the process of ageing, but also to promote actively the role of foreign language learning in later years.

As pointed out by Craig A. Talmage, Rob Mark, Maria Slowey and Richard C. Knopf (2016:1), “[w]hile traditionally geared towards provision for younger adults, [...] universities have the potential to play a major role in innovation for later life learning for older adults. [...] Universities as major educational providers can and should adapt to fully address the challenges and barriers faced by older adults through the creation of appropriate opportunities for later life learning. Universities have the potential to bridge disciplinary and geographic barriers to overcome the intellectual compartmentalisation that has often impeded later life learning research and practice”. Therefore, since foreign languages are among the most popular courses at the U3As in Poland (see GUS 2020), it is crucial to introduce FLG courses to pre-service teachers of English as a Foreign Language in order to ensure a better quality of teaching, as well as new and innovative techniques that will be used to promote lifelong education in later years. Indeed, as Formosa (2010:5) argues, “[i]t is argued that in future years the U3A movement will continue to be relevant to incoming cohorts of older adults only by embracing a broader vision of learning; improving the quality of learning, instruction, and curricula; as well as including a wider participation agenda that caters for older adults experiencing physical and cognitive challenges”.

3. Motivation and older adults

To date, a lot has been written about the individual learner differences and Second Language Acquisition, but it is the study of motivation that has been of particular interest to researchers since Gardner and Lambert's (1959) publication that marked the beginning of the *social-psychological period* (see also Gardner/Lambert 1972; Gardner 1982). In the 1990s, which are termed the *cognitive-situated period*, the interest shifted to (as the name suggests) cognitive theories, which were originally developed outside of L2 research. Then, the beginning of the 21st century saw a growing interest in the way contexts affect the individuals and vice versa, which was the beginning of the *process-oriented period* that lasted until recently (see Dörnyei 2020:23-33; Dörnyei/Ushioda 2021:40-66).

Zoltán Dörnyei (2020:72) notes that we have now entered a new *socio-dynamic phase*, which is “characterised by a concern with the situated complexity of the L2 motivation process and its organic development in dynamic interaction with a multiplicity of internal, social and contextual factors”, and adds that “[t]he move towards more socially grounded, dynamic and complex interacting systems in the analysis of L2 motivation is also in keeping with wider contemporary trends within the field of applied linguistics that has highlighted emergentist and dynamic system approaches to understanding SLA” (ibid.; see also Dörnyei/Ushioda 2009; Dörnyei/MacIntyre/Henry 2015; Dörnyei 2020; Dörnyei/Ushioda 2021:76-81). The author (Dörnyei 2020:72) also remarks that English has become a global language, a lingua franca that is used by various speakers from numerous cultural backgrounds, and its role has moved away from a communication tool between “native and non-native speakers”. As a result, the role of motivation has also changed and it can no longer be seen solely in terms of integration with, or the learners' attitudes towards, target language speakers and their culture, but has become “a basic educational skill” (ibid.).

However, even though there is a significant growth in the research output associated with the topic of L2 motivation, older adult foreign language learners' motivation, similarly to other issues related to this age group, still lacks a thorough analysis and remains understudied. This reluctance may be explained by an inconsistent and fragmented research related to late life learning and FLG or, in other words, teaching foreign languages to older adult learners, but also by a divergent understanding of age boundaries and terminology related to older adulthood. The problems with defining the precise age brackets seem to stem from a variety of factors, such as the

stereotypical treatment of this age group (both positive and negative), subjective perceptions of one's own age, and the highly heterogeneous character of older adults as a group (see Findsen/Formosa 2011; Ramírez Gómez 2016a; Gabryś-Barker 2018; Słowik-Krogulec 2020a).

There are two ways of categorising older adults: numerical and descriptive. The former allows for a precise and clear division, but it does not take into account different trajectories of age-related biological, psychological, cognitive, neurocognitive and social changes that affect our understanding of this period of human ontogeny, and the aforementioned subjective theories related to chronological and biological age. Moreover, due to the lack of one unified distinction, the age division is often based on the researchers' subjective understanding of the term. The latter, on the other hand, allows for older adults to be viewed as a separate group, and does not have the majority of drawbacks associated with the age brackets, but it is more fluid and imprecise, which once again, leaves a lot of room for interpretation.

Identifying the motivations for entering or, in some cases, re-entering foreign language education in later life ought to be of utmost importance to teachers/educators and programme providers, as it should influence the curriculum design. Although there are undeniably various individual differences among the group of older adults due to the highly heterogeneous character of older adulthood and the multiplicity of previous life and learning experiences, the current state of research shows that, when it comes to the learners' motivation to study a foreign language, there are clear similarities between the respondents' answers (see Kim/Merriam 2004; Duay/Bryan 2008; Grotek/Kiliańska-Przybyło 2012; Jaroszewska 2013; Parks/Evans/Getch 2013; Gabryś-Barker 2018; Słowik-Krogulec 2020b). That said, larger-scale longitudinal research is needed in this area to draw more valid conclusions.

According to an almost 30-year old statement by Peter Grundy (1995), older adults always have a clear aim when starting learning in later life. Furthermore, Friedemann Pulvermüller and John H. Schumann (1994:682-683) argue that motivation is by far the most significant factor that affects the process of foreign language learning in adults (see also Cox 2013). In their book, Brian Findsen and Marvin Formosa (2011:120) refer to two early empirical studies related to motivation which, according to the authors, could be applied to older adult cohorts: Cyril Houle (1961), and Barry Morstain and John Smart (1974). The former research divided the

learners into three groups: goal-, activity-, and learning-oriented. The latter study divided learners into six categories: social relationships, external expectations, social welfare, professional development, escape/stimulation and cognitive interest (see also Słowik-Krogulec 2020b). Next, based on Houle's (1961) Education Participation Scale (EPS), Sherman Sheffield (1964), created a list of "58 reasons for participation in education" and developed an instrument to measure the learning orientations of adults. An analysis of the questionnaire results revealed five factors: (1) learning orientation, (2) desire-activity orientation, (3) personal goal orientation, (4) societal goal orientation, and (5) need-activity orientation" (Kim/Merriam 2004:443).

It should be noted, however, that the aforementioned studies grouped adults and older adults together as a homogenous group and, therefore, did not differentiate between the two. The study of older adult motivation started in the 1990s. In 1991, once again drawing on Houle's (1961) model, Roger created its new version that was supposed "to clarify certain basic parameters associated with learning among older adults". The new EPS consisted of seven factors, the last group of which included "(1) Communication improvement, (2) Social contact, (3) Educational preparation, (4) Professional advancement, (5) Family togetherness, (6) Social stimulation, and (7) Cognitive interest" (ibid.:444). Ahjin Kim and Sharan B. Merriam (2004:446) remark that the motivation of older participants to start learning in later life can be divided into two main groups: (1) "cognitive interest (intellectual curiosity) and a desire to learn' (which suggests that older students are likely 'to learn for the sake of learning' and 'to seek knowledge for its own sake'), and (2) 'personal growth and satisfaction, which includes the following items: enrichment, enjoyment, self-satisfaction, and sense of accomplishment". The authors (Kim/Merriam 2004:446) further argue that these motivations "are arguably complicated and multidimensional. Rarely does a single motive lead older adults to participate in educational activities. Generally, both external and internal forces influence the decision of older adults to pursue learning," which could be also seen in the results of the study by Słowik-Krogulec (2020b) of ninety two learners of English at the U3A in Wrocław.

The research results pointed to social contact (including travelling and keeping in touch with family members living abroad), communication skills (once again, especially while travelling), and cultural aspects as the most important motivations to attend English classes, followed by language improvement, and personal and intellectual curiosity. Along similar

lines, Su Sheng-Chu/Lee Tsai-Ju/Chang Jen-Chia (2018:208) state that older adults seek to maintain their past abilities and want to learn new things for the sake of cognitive development and personal growth: “the educated mind seeks to satisfy intellectual curiosity. Highly educated elderly people who want stimulating activities participate in learning activities because they are interested in knowledge itself and find learning joyful”. Monika Grotek and Grażyna Kiliańska-Przybyło (2012:113-114) enumerated memory practice and the development of cognitive skills as the most popular answers given by older adults. The authors also observe that in late adulthood it is typical to view learning in terms of maintaining one’s intellectual abilities. Two other categories chosen by the respondents were participation in modern reality and catching up with those who already know how to speak the language, as well as the usefulness of English when travelling, which, once again, is in line with the previously presented studies.

According to Dian-Fu Chang and Sung-Po Lin (2011:576), “Older adults’ attitudes toward ageing are intricately connected with their motivation to participate in social activities. Those who hold positive attitudes are more willing to participate in social activities, and consequently, enjoy a richer lifestyle” (see also Hori/Cusack 2006). There are three theories of ageing that determine older adults’ involvement in social activities and can affect the learners’ motivation: the disengagement theory, first developed by Elaine Cumming and William E. Henry (1961); the continuity theory of normal ageing of George L. Maddox (1968); and activity theory (also known as normal or implicit theory of ageing), described by Robert J. Havighurst (1961). The disengagement theory assumes that following their retirement, older people are no longer willing to participate in society and feel withdrawn from it and its regular activities. However, its critics argue that it is rarely present in developing countries, in which older people often readily engage in social activities (Chang/Lin 2011:576). The continuity theory posits that, despite being no longer vocationally active, individuals continue to engage (as much as possible) in activities similar to those they did earlier in their lives (Pinto/Neri 2017:259). Finally, the activity theory “brings together an extensive amount of empirical data that corroborates practical applications such as policies to encourage health promotion through the practice of physical activities, voluntary work and, more recently, the active aging policy proposed by the World Health Organization” (ibid.). In addition, there are mutual benefits to social activity, as it is advantageous both for the individuals and for the society to which

it contributes. These theories are also further explored in the systematic literature review provided by Juliana M. Pinto and Anita L. Neri (2017:259), the aim of which is to “identify patterns of social participation in old age and the theories used to explain them” (see also Chen 2020:1-2). According to the authors, the most frequent trajectory of social participation was that of disengagement, with limited participation in social actions and family events. However, as pointed out by Aleksej Bukov, Ineke Maas, and Thomas Lampert (2002:513), who examined individual differences and changes in social participation over time in a cross-sectional and longitudinal study of very old age, this time of human ontogeny can simultaneously be a period of “stability, reactivation, and reduction”, as the analysis of the research data indicated the degree of participation stability. Older individuals who were already active remained active after four years; on the other hand, those who were inactive at the beginning took part in the activities with time. The reduction in activity was caused by social death that was viewed as preparation for biological death.

Moreover, the authors highlight the value of social participation and its complex quality and argue that there is a visible interdependence between health and social activities. This relationship is explained by the feeling of usefulness to others, personal fulfilment and self-respect, all of which are said to be the result of taking part in productive activities. As Bukov, Maas and Lampert (2002) point out, individuals who are productive participants “are challenged in their abilities and competencies, and the influence of this challenge is shown to be stimulating even on the cellular level of human organism” (ibid.; see also Old/Naveh Benjamin 2008; Blanchard-Fields/Horhota/Mienaltowski 2008; Mast/Zimmerman/Rowe 2009). Finally, the dynamic nature of older adults’ engagement in social activities “is accepted, and includes as determinants personal motivations and preferences for activities and institutional factors” (Pinto/Neri 2017:260).

4. Research

The aim of the study presented in this paper was to find out whether the “Older adults and SLA” MA seminar and elective course influenced the pre-service teachers’ beliefs regarding older learners, their motivation to learn English, and “Foreign Language Geragogy”. The goal of the course was to draw students’ attention to the problems related to teaching and assessing learners of age 60 and older, and to the specific needs, cognitive abilities and learning preferences of this age group. The main focus of the

course was on the following aspects: problems in defining senescence, “middle age” and “old age”, the role of age and the process of ageing, the importance of individual differences, classroom interaction patterns and group dynamics in enhancing the learners’ motivation, the use of the learners’ mother tongue, as well as techniques applied in teaching English to older adults. The course was divided into the following parts:

1. Older adults: the historical perspective; differences and problems in defining the age group.
2. Older adult education: the theoretical perspective (Gerontology, Andragogy, Geragogy, Critical Educational Gerontology and Critical Geragogy, Critical Foreign Language Geragogy).
3. Age and ageing: the ageing body (Sensory Impairment, Vision, Hearing, Dual Impairment, Touch, Taste and Smell, Motor Impairment).
4. Ageing and sociological differences: (The Consensus Approach; The Conflict Theory Approach; Interpretive Approaches; Postmodernist Perspectives).
5. The ageing brain and the ageing mind (1/2): cognitive, neuro-cognitive, structural, functional, and psychological differences (Lifestyle-cognition hypothesis; Cognitive reserve; Cognitive re-training; memory - STM, LTM, Episodic Memory; Crystallised and fluid intelligence; Processing speed; Attention; Visuospatial abilities; Executive functioning; Selection, optimization, and compensation model; Language processing in older adults; Second language learning in later life; Personality, Motivation).
6. Techniques used in teaching English to older adult learners (Peer-teaching; E-learning; Intergenerational learning; Storytelling).
7. Approaches, methods and techniques used in teaching adult learners and their application to older adults (GTM; DM; ALM; The Silent Way; Desuggestopedia; Community Language Learning; TPR; CLT; CBI; TBLT).
8. Problems related to teaching and assessing older adult learners: The classroom environment; the qualities of a good language teacher; the expectations of a language course; Interesting topics; the form of classes; Own activity; Error correction; Observation study; Teaching materials; Grammar; Vocabulary; Pronunciation; Own-language use; Interaction; Assessment techniques; Rapport; Treatment of language skills (Speaking; Listening; Reading; Writing).

Forty two pre-service teachers of English from the Institute of English Studies at the University of Wrocław took part in the survey. Twenty two subjects, from now on referred to as Group 1, attended “Methodology of teaching English at the second stage of education” as part of their regular teacher-training programme in summer term 2020/2021 (March-June 2021) and never attended “Foreign Language Geragogy” classes. (This is with the exception of one subject who learnt about teaching older adults during a short session as part of her CELTA training; the content of the course, however, was different to the aforementioned University course. Therefore, this person was not excluded from the study). The remaining twenty participants, from now on described as Group 2, were extramural students of the MA seminar (n=15) and the elective course (n=5) titled “Older adults and SLA”, which, as mentioned earlier, introduced theoretical and practical knowledge related to FLG. Group 2 was also the only one in which participants had some prior experience in teaching students at the age of 60 and older. In future studies, this group should be analysed separately in order to see whether their previous teaching experience and more advanced age would affect the results of the study.

There were 7 men and 35 women (see Table 1). The majority of the participants were of age 20-30 (n=36), four were at the age of 31-40, and two were 41-50 (see Table 2).

Table 1: The total number of subjects. Level and gender distribution

	male	female	<u>total</u>
Group 1	3	19	22
Group 2	4	16	20
total	7	35	42

Source: own research.

Table 2: Age

	male	female	<u>total</u>
20-30	7	29	36
31-40	0	4	4
41-50	0	2	2
51+	0	0	0
total	7	35	42

Source: own research.

Table 3: Years of teaching experience

	male	female	<u>total</u>
0 (<i>I'm a pre-service teacher</i>)	7	27	34
1-5	0	4	4
6-10	0	2	2
11-15	0	1	1
16-20	0	0	0
21+	0	1	1
total	7	35	42

Source: own research.

Table 4: Years of teaching older adults

	male	female	<u>total</u>
0 (<i>I'm a pre-service teacher</i>)	7	27	34
1-5	0	7	7
6-10	0	1	1
11-15	0	0	0
16-20	0	0	0
21+	0	0	0
total	7	35	42

Source: own research.

The non-probability sampling technique, i.e., the convenience sample, was used to choose the participants of the study. All of the participants included in the research were students known to and taught by the researcher.

Two links to the Google Forms with identical questionnaires were sent to Groups 1 and 2 after their regular online classes on the MS Teams platform. The subjects were asked to specify their previous language teaching experience, that is, whether they had any (see Table 3), and if so, if it included teaching older adults (60+) (see Table 4). As already mentioned earlier, only the participants in Group 2 had some experience in teaching this age group (n=3 with groups, n=5 only with individual learners).

The subjects were also asked two open-ended questions: (1) Why, in your opinion, do older adults (60+) want to learn English in later life? (see Table 5); (2) What, in your opinion, motivates older adults (60+) to learn English in later life? (see Table 6). As could be seen from the answers given by the subjects, there were some limitations to the second question as it did not yield accurate results and elicit the same kinds of answers in

all the respondents. Participants interpreted it differently as, for instance, practising English outside of the classroom, or taking an active part in the process of learning. However, even though the research presented in this paper is original and has not been previously published, it is a part of a larger study. Hence, despite the aforementioned limitations, the same questions were asked of pre-service teachers in this questionnaire as were earlier posed to older adults, in order to compare the results and draw conclusions (see Słowik-Krogulec 2020b). Moreover, instead of pre- and post-course beliefs surveys, the participants were asked to give open-ended explanations about their beliefs at the end of their courses, as some of the learners in Group 2 already had some previous experience in FLG. Next, the answers of the two groups were compared.

The data collected from the questionnaire was grouped into the following categories (see Table 5 and Table 6). There were more answers than participants.

Table 5: Reasons for learning English
(Why, in your opinion, do older adults (60+) want to learn English in later life?)

	Group 1 n=22		Group 2 n=20	
<u>Social contact</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>60%</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>105%</u>
to communicate with family living abroad	9	41%	9	45%
to get to know new people	2	9%	7	35%
to share interests with 'the young'	1	5%	0	0%
to share interests with grandchildren	0	0%	2	10%
to keep in touch with classmates	1	5%	3	15%
<u>Communication skills</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>55%</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>55%</u>
to communicate while travelling	9	41%	9	45%
to communicate in the target language	3	14%	2	10%
<u>Language improvement</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>28%</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0%</u>
to learn new vocabulary	3	14%	0	0%
to learn grammar	3	14%	0	0%
<u>Personal growth</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>65%</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>90%</u>
to learn something new	6	27%	6	30%
to fulfil their dreams	1	5%	2	10%
to feel younger/stay active	1	5%	5	25%
to broaden their horizons	1	5%	1	5%
to spend free time	5	23%	4	20%
<u>Intellectual curiosity</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>14%</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>55%</u>
to maintain intellectual abilities	2	9%	11	55%
to enjoy the challenge	1	5%	0	0%

	Group 1 n=22		Group 2 n=20	
<u>Participation in modern reality influenced by English</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>46%</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>55%</u>
to understand linguistic landscape	6	27%	8	40%
to watch films, news/listen to music in the target language	1	5%	3	15%
to stay up to date	3	14%	0	0%
<u>Other</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>14%</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>45%</u>
to share their knowledge with others	1	5%	0	0%
to feel independent	2	9%	0	0%
to learn more about other cultures	0	0%	9	45%

Source: own research.

Table 6: Motivation

(What, in your opinion, motivates older adults (60+) to learn English in later life?)

	Group 1 n=22		Group 2 n=20	
<u>Other people in the class</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>18%</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>70%</u>
Teacher	3	14%	9	45%
Other learners	1	5%	5	25%
<u>Communication</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>81%</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>105%</u>
The ability to communicate abroad (when travelling)	8	36%	12	60%
The ability to communicate with English-speaking family/friends	10	45%	9	45%
<u>Class environment</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>5%</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>60%</u>
Good atmosphere	1	5%	7	35%
Interesting topics	0	0%	3	15%
Interesting materials	0	0%	2	10%
<u>Other people outside the class</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>46%</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>35%</u>
Family	9	41%	3	15%
Friends	1	5%	4	20%
<u>Intellectual curiosity</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>27%</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>70%</u>
The need to learn new things	4	18%	5	25%
Cognitive development	2	9%	9	45%
<u>Social contact</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>23%</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>40%</u>
Social contact with peers	3	14%	8	40%
Loneliness	2	9%	0	0%
<u>Personal growth</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>14%</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>20%</u>
Sense of accomplishment	1	5%	4	20%
Self-satisfaction	2	9%	0	0%

	Group 1 n=22		Group 2 n=20	
	<u>12</u>	<u>55%</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>40%</u>
<u>Other</u>				
No tests	0	0%	3	15%
Tests (the ability to see the results)	6	27%	0	0%
The feeling of belonging	3	14%	0	0%
The changing society	1	5%	3	15%
Being independent	2	9%	1	5%
Course for free	0	0%	1	5%

Source: own research.

5. Presentation and discussion of the results⁴

The results presented in this paper are the first in a series of reports concentrating on foreign language pre-service teacher beliefs regarding FLG and, as mentioned earlier, are based on the same questions that were asked of the group of older adult learners of English a year earlier (see Słowik-Krogulec 2020b).

In their answers to the first question (i.e. Why, in your opinion, do older adults (60+) want to learn English in later life?), Group 1, who did not attend any classes related to FLG, decided that personal growth (65%) and social contact (60%) are the most important reasons for learning English for this age group. These answers were also the most popular for participants in Group 2 (90% and 105%, respectively). Within these two categories “to communicate with family living abroad” was the most popular answer, chosen by 41% of the subjects in Group 1 and 45% in Group 2, while “to learn something new” was mentioned by 27% and 30%, respectively, and “to spend free time” by 23% and 20%. In Group 2, 25% of the respondents wrote that the reason is “to feel younger/stay active”, while in Group 1 it was only 5%. Both groups agreed on “communication skills” as an important reason for learning English, with 55% of the answers in both groups. Similarly, “participation in modern reality influenced by English” was written about by 46% and 55% of the respondents in Groups 1 and 2. On the other hand, while 28% of novice teachers in Group 1 mentioned language improvement, it was not present in any of the answers in the second group. The opposite was the case for “intellectual curiosity” that was noted by 14% in Group 1 and 55% in Group 2. Finally, the category of “other” answers also revealed some differences between participants in two groups as only Group 2 wrote about “learning more about other cul-

⁴ The original spelling is used in all of the examples.

tures” and no one in the first group saw it as an important reason to study the language.

Although, the answers of both groups could be said to recognise older adults’ reasons to study English in later life, there were some differences between them. Firstly, the answers of Group 2 were much longer, more detailed and concentrated on more aspects. Participants in Group 1 usually concentrated on one or two main motivations and justified their choice by adding a description. Group 2, on the other hand, enumerated more aspects (3 to 7), often in bullet points. Moreover, the language used to describe the given examples was more precise, the participants using some of the terminology related to the field of FLG, such as: *lifelong learning* (2S2), *cognitive decline* (2S20), *compensation strategies* (2S3), *vision and hearing loss/decline* (2S5, 2S10, 2S11), *motor impairment* (2S11), *processing speed* (2S10), or *older adults* (n=7, the only term used in Group 2, as opposed to *seniors* (1S2, 1S4, 1S7, 1S15), *the elderly* (1S8, 1S19), or ‘*grandparents*’ (1S1), which were used by some of the respondents in Group 1, and which are known to be seen as ageist and politically incorrect (*elderly*, *the elders*), or less appropriate (*seniors*) (see Słowik-Krogulec 2020a:42-45). The comments made by Group 1 were slightly shorter (n=22, 1277 words in total, 58 words/person) than opinions expressed by Group 2 (n=20, 1322 words in total, 66 words/person).

In Group 1, some of the answers also showed the pre-service teachers’ uncertainty,⁵ for instance: *Maybe because they didn’t get the chance to do so in their early life and they need it for e.g. work or because they have more free time and want to learn something new to experience the world better* (1S3); *Maybe, the reason is that some of their grandchildren do not speak Polish* (1S21); *I think they want to communicate with others, especially with their family who live abroad. (...). I believe some people might also like the challenge* (1S16); *Perhaps, they want to explore the world and need English to do so* (1S18); *I believe the elderly want to learn it since it is an international language, very common everywhere, useful in everyday communication with foreigners as well as in understanding messages on tv, films, music, news* (1S19). Altogether, there were 14 such expressions used in the answers of Group 1.

Group 2 seemed more confident in their answers. Only 2 respondents started their answer with *I think/believe that* and 3 respondents used *in my*

⁵ It should be noted, however, that, as mentioned earlier, in both cases these types of responses may have been induced by the questions asked of the respondents.

opinion (*I believe that older adults want learn English in order to train their brains by gaining new knowledge. They also want to belong to some type of group/society and English classes offer such opportunity* (2S7); **In my opinion** older adults want to learn English in later life due to many reasons (2S13)). Furthermore, two of the answers (2S13; 2S14) contained a modal verb expressing possibility, which was used more than once by both subjects: *Moreover, they may want to learn English simply because their members of family, e.g. children with grandchildren, live in English-speaking country and they would like to be able to communicate with their grandchildren* (2S13); *Another reason would be that they may want to keep up with the changing world where a lot of English words are used in everyday life even in non-English speaking countries* (2S14).

Other statements began with a verb in the infinitive, for instance: **To stay active, to exercise their memory, to be able to help their grandkids learn English, to communicate while travelling, to socialize with other people their age, to fulfil lifelong dreams** (2S17). Some were affirmative statements, such as: **They are eager to talk with foreigners abroad (e.g. on holidays)** (2S6); or were sentence fragments, for example: **Because they want to work on their cognitive skills, train their brain, meet new people at their age, or as a hobby** (2S2).

The answers to the second question, (i.e. What, in your opinion, motivates older adults (60+) to learn English in later life?) revealed more differences between the two groups of respondents. Firstly, both groups disagreed about the following categories: “other people in the class”, (19% of comments in Group 1, and 70% in Group 2), “class environment” (5%, and 60%, respectively), “intellectual curiosity” (27% vs. 70%), “social contact” (23% vs. 40%), and “other” (55% vs. 40%). On the whole, pre-service teachers in Group 1 seem to believe that teachers and other students are far less important sources of motivation for older adult learners than their family and friends (46%), while learners in Group 2 recognised the importance of one’s relatives and friends (35%), but also noticed the value of teacher (45%) and colleagues’ motivation (25%). The importance of communication was recognised as a motivating factor by both groups (81% in Group 1, and 105% in Group 2), however, the ability to communicate abroad was seen as more important to Group 2 with 60% of the answers, than to Group 1 with 36% of the responses. “The ability to communicate with English-speaking family/friends”, on the other hand, was equally important to both groups with 45% of the answers each.

Class environment was mentioned by only 5% of the teachers in Group 1, whereas Group 2, who have been sensitised to the problem of inadequate topics and materials and the value of a positive and supportive classroom atmosphere, mentioned this aspect in 60% of their answers. Similarly, intellectual curiosity and the need for continued self- and cognitive-development in later life were seen as a significant motivating factor by 27% of the subjects in Group 1, whereas in Group 2 as many as 70% of the respondents noted the connection. Another interesting observation can be made about the attitude of older learners towards testing: in Group 1, 27% of the answers pointed to older adults' need to be tested and to see the results, whereas no one in Group 2 mentioned it. At the same time, some of the pre-service teachers in Group 2 (n=15%) wrote that courses without any formal type of testing are more motivating for this age group.

Once again, Group 1 used some of the expressions that suggested uncertainty, such as *can be*, *I suppose*, *I guess*, *I would say* (there were, however, fewer such instances than in the previous question), for example: *They **can be** motivated by their children and grandchildren. They **can be** motivated by the time they have to spend. They also **can be** motivated by inner need to develop and learn new things.* (1S3); *I **suppose** they **would** feel motivated if they could see some actual results, even if small ones, e.g. they are now able to introduce themselves in English. Therefore, I **guess** frequent feedback would be a good idea, because the learner would realise that they are making progress, and feel more motivated to keep studying* (1S5); *I **would say** wanting to communicate with family? Especially grandchildren who live abroad. If they choose to learn English out of curiosity, the motivation will be more internal. They are doing it for themselves* (1S18).

There were only three such expressions used in Group 2 by two of the respondents: *may*, *can* and *I believe that*. The example answers of this group of respondents are as follows: *Older adults **may be** willing to seek opportunities to socialize while providing stimuli for the brain while learning a new language. (New occupation), (1) the necessity: if they want to be independent (e.g. on holiday in a foreign country, complete a form, do the shopping abroad) they have to understand English, (2) the opportunity to communicate with their English speaking family members (grandchildren), (3) intrinsic motivation - they want to learn something new, meet new people and feel satisfaction because of the new challenge* (2S16); *I **believe that** what **can** motivate older adults to learn English in later life may be the need of constantly developing themselves. They may want to*

learn new and challenging things for them. They **may** also have a family living in one of the English-speaking country so the need of communication with their children and grandchildren might be motivating as well (2S13). Other examples include affirmative statements such as: **They see other older adults who learn English, they see that it's possible so they want to do the same, they have got English speaking grandchildren** (2S15); **Sometimes they are motivated to learn when the language course is free of charge, or when their friends are learning too. Factors such as family influence/support, good teacher, satisfaction with their progress, also help to sustain their motivation. On the one hand their needs to learn a foreign language, or the other interesting topics, engaging activities, patient teacher** (2S17).

In Group 1 there were also four comments that could be understood as a stereotypical and slightly ageist treatment of older adults: **Seniors are like children, so they are happy to learn** (1S15); **They want to feel younger and up to date so they want to learn English and use the coursebooks to finally see what is important in our world** (1S22); **Learning English is fashionable, they can boast about it in a younger company** (1S1); **Freedom, boredom, the desire to belong to a multilingual society** (1S13); However, there were also instances of beliefs that expressed hope and understanding of the value of older adults' experience and their understanding of reality, such as: **Unfortunately, quite often it is loneliness. They miss their family, hence they want to learn a language to be able to communicate with their grandchildren living abroad. By attending an English course, they double benefit from it - they learn a language but they also meet new, exciting people. Learning a language is not like learning how to cook, sew or play with technology - it really brings people closer. By learning English, they can finally voice their opinions, share amazing stories and feel heard in their community because it is all a part of language learning.**

In Group 2 there were also comments that could partly have been based on the learners' knowledge from FLG classes: **It is often their desire to achieve something new life, something that for various reasons they could not do before. They are aware of their problems that are related to age, they experience vision and hearing loss, they have problems with moving, they use compensation strategies to deal with these changes, so they need something new in life, something to boost their energy, to be positive and motivating. Teacher, classmates, friends, the sense of achievement are all very important at this stage of life** (2S20); **Ageing has an effect on our memory (short and long) and processing speed, vision declines, hear-**

ing is worse, moving [is] painful. Being able to do something positive is important. Learning a language is great for the brain that thanks to it is younger for longer (2S10).

6. Conclusions

In short, although much more research is still needed to draw valid conclusions, there are some aspects related to FLG that can be noticed in the answers provided by both groups of respondents. The participants in Group 1 usually concentrated on 2-3 aspects, but they were followed by more detailed explanations. In Group 2, on the other hand, the pre-service teachers used more examples of motivating factors, usually 3-7, but they did not justify their opinions as precisely. In Group 1 there were more cases of language that could suggest some uncertainty, whereas in Group 2, although there were some examples of such structures present, there were fewer of them. The respondents in Group 2 more often used affirmative sentences “They want to..., They need to...”, sentence fragments beginning with “Because...”, or infinitive structures “to learn..., to study..., to self-develop...”, etc. Moreover, the vocabulary used by teachers-in-training in Group 1 was more descriptive and some of the terms were outdated and inappropriate, such as “the elderly”. By contrast, in Group 2 the subjects referred to the target group as “older adults” and used some of the terminology related to FLG, such as “processing speed, compensation strategies, etc”. Finally, in Group 1 there were four instances of slightly stereotypical treatment of this age group – out of which the comparison to children seemed especially harmful – which were absent in the answers of Group 2.

Although the answers to the first question showed relatively small differences between the two groups (except for the lack of noting cultural aspects in Group 1, which were recognised by Group 2 as a very important reason for learning a foreign language in later life), the second question elicited more varied beliefs. As described earlier, the opinions of the two groups differed on the majority of aspects, and the answers of Group 2 were closer to the answers given by older adults in the earlier study (see Słowik-Krogulec 2020b:162-163).

As pointed out by Virginia Richardson (2003), the assumptions made about the process of learning are dynamic, and can sometimes be illogical and even self-contradictory. They can also be affected by formal education, although Deborah Busch (2010) notes that the degree to which this takes place can vary. Indeed, some studies show that the role of university

courses in affecting pre-service teachers' beliefs may prove to be rather insignificant (Peacock 2001). It is, therefore, difficult to unequivocally state whether the "Older adults and SLA" MA seminar and elective course influenced the pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding older learners, their motivation to learn English, and "Foreign Language Geragogy", but based on the respondents' answers it might be possible to tentatively claim that, to some extent, their subjective theories were affected by the content of these two courses. However, more reflective activities and practice in teaching this particular age group would definitely be beneficial for future foreign language teachers as, according to Deborah Busch (2010), it is a more effective way of developing belief systems.

Of course, there is a need for larger longitudinal research to be carried out, with pre- and post-course beliefs surveys with more precise questions that would concentrate on a variety of aspects related to FLG. Nonetheless, at this point it can be stated that such courses as "Older Adults and SLA" are valuable, and pre-service teachers' opinions regarding foreign language learning and teaching to older adults should be challenged in order to offer a better quality of teaching and to promote the idea of lifelong learning. Finally, it should be highlighted that a role of widely understood education is to challenge and, as a result, end ageist practices, and affect our understanding of older adulthood and the process of ageing. After all, "scientia potentia est" (knowledge is power) and one never knows at which point it will become useful in our ageing societies to be aware of cognitive, neurocognitive, biological, psychological or social changes related to ageing and their relationship with foreign language learning.

References

- Berndt Annette, 1997, Fremdsprachenlernen in höheren Erwachsenenalter. Ansätze zu einer Sprachgeragogik, in: Informationen Deutsch als Fremdsprache 1, pp. 69-77.
- Blanchard-Fields Freda / Horhota Michelle / Mienaltowski Andrew, 2008, Social context and cognition, in: Scott M.H./Duane F.A. (eds.), Handbook of cognitive aging: interdisciplinary perspectives, Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publication, pp. 614-628.
- Bukov Aleksej / Maas Ineke / Lampert Thomas, 2002, Social participation in very old age: cross-sectional and longitudinal findings from BASE, in: The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences 57(6), pp. 510-517.

- Busch Deborah, 2010, Pre-service teacher beliefs about language learning: The second language acquisition course as an agent for change, in: *Language Teaching Research*, 14(3), pp. 318-337.
- Castellanos Jaimes Judith, 2013, The role of English pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching in teacher education programs, in: *PROFILE Issues in Teachers' Professional Development* 15(1), pp. 195-206.
- Chang Dian-Fu / Lin Sung-Po, 2011, Motivation to Learn Among Older Adults in Taiwan, in: *Educational Gerontology*, pp. 574-592.
- Chen Hui-Ling, 2020, Improving Older Adult Learners' Motivation: Developing A Model of Teaching and Learning through Art Activities in the UK, an unpublished doctoral dissertation, De Montfort University, Leicester.
- Cox Jessica, 2013, Older adult learners and SLA: Age in a new light, in: Sanz C./ Lado B. (eds.), *Individual differences, L2 development & language program administration: From theory to application*, Boston, MA: Cengage Learning, pp. 90-107.
- Cumming Elaine / Henry William E., 1961, *Growing Old*, New York: Basic Books.
- Derenowski Marek, 2021, *Insights into Senior Foreign Language Education*, Bristol/Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei Zoltán / Ushioda Ema (eds.), 2009, *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei Zoltán / MacIntyre Peter / Henry Alastair (eds.), 2015, *Motivational dynamics in language learning*, Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei Zoltán, 2020, *Innovations and challenges in language learning motivation*, London: Routledge.
- Dörnyei Zoltán / Ushioda Ema, 2021, *Teaching and researching motivation*, London: Routledge.
- Duay Deborah L. / Bryan Valerie C., 2008, Learning in later life: What seniors want in a learning experience, in: *Educational Gerontology* 34(12), pp. 1070-1086.
- Findsen Brian / Formosa Marvin, 2011, *Lifelong learning in later life: A handbook on older adult learning*, Rotterdam: Sense Publishing.
- Formosa Marvin, 2009, Renewing Universities of the Third Age: Challenges and visions for the future, in: *Recerca* 9, pp. 171-196.
- Formosa Marvin, 2010, Lifelong learning in later life: The Universities of the Third Age, in: *Lifelong Learning Institute Review* 5, pp. 1-12.
- Gabryś-Barker Danuta, 2018, Introduction, in: Gabryś-Barker D. (ed.), *Third Age learners of foreign languages*, Bristol/Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters, pp. 13-27.

- Gardner Robert C. / Lambert Wallace E., 1959, Motivational variables in second-language acquisition, in: *Canadian Journal of Psychology/Revue Canadienne de Psychologie* 13(4), pp. 266-272.
- Gardner Robert C. / Lambert Wallace E., (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner Robert C., 1982, Language attitudes and language learning, in: Ryan E.B./ Giles H. (eds.), *Attitudes towards language variation*, London: Edward Arnold, pp. 132-147.
- Gilakjani Abbas Pourhosein / Sabouri Narjes Banou, 2017, Teachers' Beliefs in English Language Teaching and Learning: A Review of the Literature, in: *English Language Teaching* 10(4), pp. 78-86.
- Główny Urząd Statystyczny [=GUS] [the Main Statistical Office of Poland], 2020, *Analizy statystyczne. Sytuacja osób starszych w Polsce w 2018 r.*, Warszawa / Białystok: Urząd statystyczny w Białymstoku, retrieved from <https://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/osoby-starsze/osoby-starsze/sytuacja-osob-starszych-w-polsce-w-2018-roku,2,1.html> on 01.05.2021.
- Główny Urząd Statystyczny [=GUS] [the Main Statistical Office of Poland], 2021, *Ludność według grup wieku i płci w 2018 r.*, Warszawa / Białystok: Urząd statystyczny w Białymstoku, retrieved from <https://bdl.stat.gov.pl/BDL/dane/podgrup/tablica> on 01.05.2021.
- Grotek Monika / Kiliańska-Przybyło Grażyna, 2012, Rola czynników afektywnych w procesie nauki języka obcego przez osoby w wieku senioralnym, in: *Teraźniejszość-Człowiek-Edukacja* 3(59), pp. 111-124.
- Grotek Monika, 2018, Student needs and expectations concerning foreign language teachers in Universities of the Third Age, in: Gabryś-Barker D. (ed.), *Third Age learners of foreign languages*, Bristol / Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters, pp. 127-144.
- Grundy Peter, 1995, *Beginners*, Oxford: Oxford UP.
- Havighurst Robert J., 1961, Successful ageing, in: *The Gerontologist* 1, pp. 8-13.
- Hori Shigeo / Cusack Sandra, 2006, Third-age education in Canada and Japan: Attitudes toward aging and participation in learning, in: *Educational Gerontology* 32, pp. 463-481.
- Houle Cyril, 1961, *The inquiring mind*, Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Jaroszewska Anna, 2013, *Nauczanie języków obcych seniorów w Polsce*, Kraków: Impuls.
- Kandilla Della Putri / Pebriyani Febi / Meliana Sinta Sri / Arbiansah Arbiansah, 2018, Recalling student teacher's beliefs on English language teaching: Evidence from a pre-service teaching program in Indonesia, in: *Journal of Teaching & Learning English in Multicultural Contexts* 2(2), pp. 63-69.

- Kim Ahjin / Merriam Sharan B., 2004, Motivations for learning among older adults in a learning in retirement Institute, in: *Educational Gerontology* 30, pp. 441-455.
- Li Xu, 2012, The Role of Teachers' Beliefs in the Language Teaching-Learning Process, in: *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 2(7), pp. 1397-1402.
- Maddox George L., 1968, Persistence of life style among the elderly: A longitudinal study of patterns of social activity in relation to life satisfaction, in: Neugarten B.L. (ed.), *Middle Age and Aging: A Reader in Social Psychology*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press. pp. 181-183.
- Mast Benjamin T. / Zimmerman Jennifer / Rowe Sarah V., 2009, What do we know about the aging brain? Implications for learning in late life, in: Smith M.C./DeFrates-Densch N. (eds.), *Handbook of research on adult learning and development*, New York, NY: Routledge, pp. 695-731.
- Morstain Barry / Smart John C., 1974, Reasons of participation in adult education courses: A multivariate analysis of group differences, in: *Adult Education* 24(2), pp. 83-98.
- Narváez Norma Constanza Durán / Ramírez Sandra Patricia Lastra / Vasco Adriana María Morales, 2017, Beliefs of pre-service teachers about English language teaching: Reflection and practice, in: *Revista Folios* 45, pp. 177-193.
- Old Susan R. / Naveh-Benjamin Moshe, 2008, Age-related changes in memory: Experimental approaches, in: Scott M. H./Duane F.A. (eds.), *Handbook of cognitive aging: Interdisciplinary perspectives*, Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications, pp. 151-167.
- Parks Rodney / Evans Brett / Getch Yvette, 2013, Motivations and enculturation of older students returning to a traditional university, in: *New Horizons in Adult Education & Human Resource Development* 25(3), pp. 62-75.
- Peacock Matthew, 2001, Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study, in: *System* 29, pp. 177-195.
- Pfenninger Simone E. / Singleton David, 2019, A critical review of research relating to the learning, use and effects of additional and multiple languages in later life, in: *Language Teaching* 52(4), pp. 419-449.
- Pinto Juliana Martins / Neri Anita Liberalesso, 2017, Trajectories of social participation in old age: A systematic literature review, in: *Revista Brasileira De Geriatria E Gerontologia* 20(2), pp. 259-272.
- Pulvermüller Friedemann / Schumann John H., 1994, Neurobiological mechanisms of language acquisition, in: *Language Learning* 44(4), pp. 681-734.
- Ramírez Gómez Danya, 2016a, *Language teaching and the older adult: The significance of experience*, Bristol/Buffalo/Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

-
- Ramírez Gómez Danya, 2016b, Critical geragogy and foreign language learning: An exploratory application, in: *Educational Gerontology* 42(2), pp. 136-143.
- Richardson Virginia, 2003, Preservice teachers' beliefs, in: Rath J./McAninch A. C. (eds.), *Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Performance: The Impact of Teacher Education*, Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing, pp. 1-22.
- Schmidt-Hertha Bernhard / Jelenc Krašovec Sabina / Formosa Marvin (eds.), 2014, *Learning across generations in Europe: Contemporary issues in older adult education*, Rotterdam/Boston/Taipei: Sense Publishers.
- Sheffield Sherman B., 1964, The orientations of adult continuing learners, in: Solomon D. (ed.), *The continuing learner*, Chicago: Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, pp. 1-22.
- Słowik-Krogulec Agata, 2019, Developing efficient foreign language classroom environments for older adult learners, in: *Journal of Education, Culture and Society* 10(2), pp. 189-200.
- Słowik-Krogulec Agata, 2020a, Needs, abilities and preferences of older adult learners of English: their own and their teachers' perspectives, an unpublished doctoral dissertation, Uniwersytet Wrocławski, Wrocław.
- Słowik-Krogulec Agata, 2020b, What motivates older adult learners in Poland to study foreign languages in later life?, in: *Beiträge zur allgemeinen und vergleichenden Sprachwissenschaft* 9, pp. 153-171.
- Su Sheng-Chu / Lee Tsai-Ju / Chang Jen-Chia, 2018, A Study on Motivation Strategies for Elder Adults Continuing Learning, in: *9 Interdisciplinary Circle of Science, Art, and Innovation*, 2018-116, pp. 202-211.
- Talmage Craig Allen / Mark Rob / Slowey Maria / Knopf Richard C., 2016, Age Friendly Universities and engagement with older adults: Moving from principles to practice, in: *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, pp. 1-18.
- Zheng Hongying, 2009, A Review of Research on EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs and practices, in: *Journal of Cambridge Studies* 4(1), pp. 73-81.

Pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching English to older adults: The case of motivation

As of 2021, in Poland there are hardly any University courses preparing pre-service teachers to teach groups of the age of 60 and older. However, at the same time, it is estimated that in Poland older adults represent approximately 24% of the population and it is expected to increase to 40.4% by 2050.⁶ The number of private language centres and Universities of the Third Age⁷ (U3A) offering, among other subjects, foreign language education, is also constantly growing. In order to examine the value of introducing “Foreign Language Geragogy” (FLG, i.e. teaching foreign languages to older adults) to the curriculum, a qualitative study of forty two MA students from the Institute of English Studies (University of Wrocław) was carried out. Only half of the respondents attended the elective course and MA seminar “Older adults and SLA”, but both groups completed the same open-ended questionnaire, the aim of which was to explore pre-service teachers' subjective theories regarding older adults' motivation to learn foreign languages in later life, and to examine the extent to which they were affected by the content of the course. The results suggest that such courses are valuable, and pre-service teachers' opinions regarding foreign language learning and teaching to older adults should be challenged in order to offer a better quality of teaching and to promote the idea of lifelong learning.

Keywords: motivation, Foreign Language Geragogy (FLG), lifelong learning, the age factor, older adults, pre-service teachers' beliefs.

⁶ Population figure in total: 38 433 558 people (18 593 175 men and 19 840 383 women); population figure for older adults (age 60 and more) 9 293 592 (3 869 259 men and 5 424 333 women). Source: Central Statistical Office of Poland (GUS, 2018).

⁷ In 2007 there were already 125 U3As in Poland. Ten years later, in 2017, the number increased to as many as 476 places. In only three years' time, the number of Polish U3As grew to 640. As of 2020 there are 113 200 students (with 86.3% of the age of 61+, out of whom 70.3% are 61-75 years old, and 16% are of age 76+) (GUS 2020:67).