Motivational Strategies in Teaching Speaking

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Motivational Strategies in Teaching Speaking

Diplomski rad

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Summary

The present study deals with motivational strategies in teaching speaking. For the purpose of this study, fifteen practicing teachers of English were interviewed. Some of those teachers work in primary schools, some in high schools and some at a university. As the instrument of this research, a semi-structured interview was used and it contains nine items. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, analysed and discussed. The first part of the research paper is theoretical. The theoretical part, based on relevant literature, attempts to define the general concept of motivation, motivational strategies in general and motivational strategies used for speaking activities. After that, it deals with the development of the speaking skill and with the problems connected with speaking activites. The second part of the paper describes the study. It explains the aim of the study, describes the sample (the participants), the instrument and the procedure. The aim of the study, i. e. research questions are defined, the participants' demographic data outlined, and then the instrument (the interview) and the procedure is described. After that, the results are listed and discussed. The discussion is based on the results and is divided into categories according to specific motivational strategies. In the end, conclusions are drawn on the basis of the results and the discussion.

Key words: motivation, motivational strategies, speaking, interview, English as a foreign language

Sažetak

Predmet ovog istraživanja su motivacijske strategije u poučavanju vještine govora u engleskom jeziku. U svrhu ovog rada provedeni su intervjui s petnaest učiteljica engleskog jezika. Neke od tih učiteljica rade u osnovnim, neke u srednjim školama, a neke na fakultetu. Kao instrument istraživanja korišten je polustrukturirani intervju koji sadrži devet pitanja. Intervjui su snimani, transkribirani, analizirani i zatim se o njima raspravlja. Prvi dio istraživanja je teorijski. Teorijski se dio temelji na relevantnoj literaturi i definira motivaciju kao općeniti pojam, motivacijske strategije općenito i konkretne motivacijske strategije koje koristimo u govornim aktivnostima. Nakon toga, teorijski se dio bavi razvojem govornih vještina i problemima povezanih s govornim aktivnostima. U drugom se dijelu rada opisuje istraživanje. Cilj istraživanja, odnosno pitanja koje istraživanje postavlja su definirana, izneseni su demografski podaci sudionika, te su opisani instrument (intervju) i postupak. Nakon toga se navode rezultati o kojima se zatim raspravlja. Diskusija se temelji na rezultatima i podijeljena je na kategorije s obzirom na specifične motivacijske strategije. Na kraju se izvode zaključci na temelju rezultata i diskusije.

Ključne riječi: motivacija, motivacijske strategije, govor, intervju, engleski kao strani jezik

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1. Introduction

As a future teacher of the English language, still at the stage of training, I have realized how important motivation in the second language classroom really is. It is in my view the most important factor that influences the learning of a second language. It can even outweigh aptitude. I have always been motivated to learn to speak English, but I have also always had the problem of speaking anxiety. This anxiety has slowly diminished through my years of education, but it still persists in a certain amount. For these reasons I have chosen the topic of motivational strategies in teaching speaking for this research. Through it, I hope to learn how to motivate my future learners to participate more in speaking activities. However, there are some limitations to this research. The number of participants is small, so this is a small-scale study and therefore the results are not conclusive. Also, only teachers are participants in this research, not learners. The research is qualitative and there is only one method, a semi-structured interview.

2. Motivation and motivational strategies

2. 1. Definition of motivation

With the term 'motivation', we try to explain why people think and behave in the way they do. Since the existence of the term motivation, scholars have tried to find a definition for it, but it is a complex phenomenon for which no clear-cut definition can be offered. As Dörnyei (2001b) points out, motivation is a hypothetical and abstract concept. This is probably why so many people are interested in it. If we wanted to explain why a person behaves in a certain way, we would have to take a lot of factors into account, e. g. the social background, the financial status, idealistic beliefs etc. All these individual differences have to be looked at carefully in order to be able to answer the question why some person behaves as he/she does, and the answer still would not be good enough. In spite of these problems in defining motivation, it can be stated that motivation concerns the direction and magnitude of human behaviour. In other words, motivation is responsible for the choice of a particular action or why people decide to do something, the persistence with this activity or how long people are willing to sustain it, and the effort expended on it or how hard people are going to pursue this activity (Dörnyei, 2001b:8). The following is an example of a definition of motivation:

> ”In a general sense, motivation can be defined as the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out.“ (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998:65)

In the field of motivation, there are a lot of different theories, which can be put into two categories: the first one is motivational psychology, which links behaviour to motives stemming from human mental processes, and the second one is social psychology, which looks at action in the light of a broader social and interpersonal context, as reflected primarily by the individual's attitudes (Dörnyei, 2001b:18,19). Both categories should be recognised and integrated into our understanding of the complexity of motivation.

Motivation is probably the key concept for understanding the process of language learning and has to be taken into account in every second language classroom. Being an expert in the field does not guarantee success in the second language classroom, because without knowledge about motivation and motivational strategies even the best linguist cannot create a

good atmosphere for learning a language. A distinction has to be made between the teaching of a language and the teaching of other school subjects. Being able to speak a foreign language is not just about knowing facts, like for example with history, it is about having the ability to understand and communicate with a whole other culture. It does not involve just knowing the rules, but also altering your identity. This is why special motivational strategies have to be developed and discussed within the field of second language acquisition.

2. 2. Demotivation

Two more terms have to be mentioned here, demotivation and teacher motivation. These two concepts have not been researched to the extent learner motivation has, but they are still vital in understanding the general notion of motivation. Demotivation represents all the specific external forces that lower learner motivation, many of which we are still not aware of. These factors have the power to reduce or even remove the existing motivation, even if it is strong. We can speak about 'demotives', which decrease an action tendency. However, not every type of negative influence should neccessarily be labelled as a demotive. The following example could illustrate this point: instead of writing his/her homework, a learner chooses to watch a good movie, which is an attractive alternative action that serves as a powerful distraction (Dörnyei, 2001b:142). According to Dörnyei (2001b:152, 153), there are nine main demotivating factors in the second language classroom, and those are as follows: the teacher (personality, commitment, competence, teaching method), inadequate school facilities (group is too big or not the right level; frequent change of teachers), reduced self-confidence (experience of failure or lack of success), negative attitude towards the second language, compulsory nature of the second language study, interference of another foreign language being studied, negative attitude towards the second language community, attitudes of group members and the course book. These factors were identified by Dörnyei's research, in which he interviewed fifty particulary demotivated secondary school learners of English and German. He concluded that teachers have a significant responsibility when it comes to demotivation, but that one cannot be sure if the factors mentioned are the causes of lost of intererst or just side effects of another demotivating factor. Dörnyei (2001b:155) emphasizes that his research on this matter is just an introduction to future reseach, because a lot of questions are still open to study and discussion.

2. 3. Teacher motivation

The other important aspect to be considered is teacher motivation, which, of course varies from one teacher to the other. Teacher motivation could be explained as the teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment to the teaching of the subject matter. Dörnyei (2001b) points out four factors that have to be taken into account when discussing teacher motivation: the intrinsic component of teacher motivation, social contextual influences, the temporal dimension of teacher motivation and negative influences on teacher motivation.

Dörnyei (2001b) argues that the intrinsic component of teacher motivation is very important and linked to the other three factors mentioned above. Intrinsic motivation is important for teaching, but also for doing any other job. Deci et al. (1997:57) points out the intrinsic reward of teaching:

> ”Guiding the intellectual and emotional development of students, whether in nursery school or graduate school, can be profoundy gratifying for teachers, satisfying their psychological needs and contributing to their growth as individuals.“ Deci et al. (1997:57)

Dörnyei (2001b:160) concludes that work (teaching English as a second language in this case) will be more motivationg if it is meaningful, if it allows autonomy and if it provides feedback.

When discussing social contextual influences, Dörnyei (2001b: 161) points out that there are micro- and macrocontextual influences on teacher motivation. Macrocontextual influences are connected to external factors which come from every layer of the society and teachers are exposed to them every day. Microcontextual influences, on the other hand, are related to the environment in which the teacher works. Some of those factors are the following: the school's general climate and the existing school norms, the class sizes, the school's resources and facilities, the definition of the teacher's role by colleagues and authorities, general expectations regarding student potential, the school's leadership and decision-making structure, etc.

The temporal dimension of teacher motivaton refers to the motivation to be a teacher as a lifelong career. Raynor (1974) defines the concept of a contingent path: ”a series of tasks where successfull achievement is necessary to be guaranteed the opportunity to perform the next task, that is, to continue in the path“. In every job, the worker's motivation rises if they are able to move up the career ladder. When there is no ladder, i. e. when the contingent path is closed, the level of motivation to do the job effectively lowers.

Last but not least, negative influences on teacher motivation have to be taken into account. Dörnyei points out five general demotivating factors: the stressful nature of most teaching jobs, the inhibition of teacher autonomy by institutional constraints such as set curricula, insufficient self-efficacy on most teachers' part due to inappropriate training, content repetitiveness and limited potential for intellectual growth and the inadequate career structure.

All of these factors have to be taken into account when dicsussing motivation as well as demotivation. Judging from the research done on demotivation, it seems that learners tend to blame their teachers for the low level of motivation, when it is obvious that being a teacher is not an easy job.

2. 4. Motivational strategies

In the realm of factors that influence motivation in the second language classroom, motivational strategies also have their place. According to Dörnyei (2001a), motivational strategies are motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect. The notion of motivational strategies is relatively new, since there have been no serious attempts to design specific motivational strategies for the application in the second language classroom until the mid-1990s. Now, however, the spectrum of these kinds of motivational strategies is very broad. Dörnyei (2001b) has therefore created a framework for motivational strategies, which is based on the process-oriented model by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998). The key units in this framework are the following: creating the basic motivational conditions, generating student motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation and encouraging positive self-evaluation. When discussing the creating of the basic motivational conditions in the second language classroom, Dörnyei (2001b) emphasizes three important motivational conditions, and those are as follows: appropriate teacher behaviours and a good relationship with the learners, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms. After the basic motivational conditions have been established in the second language classroom, teachers should generate positive learner attitudes towards learning the subject matter. The strategies that can be used to achieve this have been arranged into four groups in Dörnyei's (2001b) process-oriented framework, and they are as follows: enhancing the learners' language-related values and attitudes, increasing the learners' 'goal-orientedness', making the curriculum relevant for the learners and creating realistic learner beliefs. After this, we arrive at the stage of maintaining and protecting motivation. Without the

maintainance of motivation, teachers face the danger of the initial motivation gradually fading away because of external factors such as attractive distractions and many others. For the purpose of preventing this, Dörnyei (2001b) has proposed five particulary relevant areas for the maintainance and protection of initial motivation: setting 'proximal subgoals', improving the quality of the learning experience, increasing the learners' self-confidence, creating learner autonomy and promoting self-motivating learner strategies. Finally, we come to the last stage, namely encouraging positive self-evaluation. Dörnyei states that teachers should encourage their learners to take credit for their past accomplishments by attributing them to sufficient ability plus reasonable effort. The three areas of postactional strategies that Dörnyei (2001b) stresses are the following: promoting attributions to effort rather than ability, providing motivational feedback and increasing learner satisfaction and the questions of rewards and grades.

As illustrated above, there are a lot of different motivational strategies concerning different stages, but this research will only focus on some motivational strategies connected with the speaking skill. In the following section, these strategies will be explained. It has to be emphasized here that these strategies have been formulated with the help of Dörnyei's book *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom* (2001a). Some of those strategies have been thoroughly explained by Dörnyei, whereas some have only been mentioned. Also, the strategies mentioned by Dörnyei (2001a) are general strategies for the second language classroom, however, in this paper they will be adapted to refer to speaking activities.

2. 4. 1. Strategy 1: Choosing varied tasks

This strategy attempts to address the problem of monotony of the speaking activities. Sometimes the level of motivation in speaking activities decreases because the same forms of speaking activities are being repeated over and over again. As Dörnyei (2001a) points out, monotony is inversely related to variety. In order to break the monotony of speaking activities, they have to be as varied as possible. According to Dörnyei, four aspects of tasks can be varied: linguistic focus of the tasks, main language skills the tasks activate, channel of communication and organisational format. One aspect has to be ruled out, and that is the main language skill the task activates, since the focus is only on the speaking skill. Dörnyei (2001a:76) gives a list of characteristics which make tasks more motivating, and those could easily be used for making speaking activities more varied. Firstly, the tasks should be challenging, e. g. activities in which learners have to solve a problem, discover something, overcome an obstacle, find hidden

information etc. Secondly, the contact of the task should be interesting to the learners. This can be done by connecting the topic to something the learners like and are interested in. Tasks should also have the novelty element. A detail of a familiar activity could be changed so that the whole activity is different. Furthermore, some tasks could deal with controversial, ambiguous or problematic material to intrigue the learners and stimulate thier curiosity. Also, the tasks could also use the fantasy element, e. g. acting out something, making up stories, etc. One should keep in mind that learners like to talk about themselves, so the personal element should also be included. A certain amount of humour should also be present in the tasks in order to make them more interesting. There are many more ideas on how to make the tasks more varied.

2. 4. 2. Strategy 2: Choosing relevant topics for the learners

The level of motivation can also be lowered if the learners perceive a certain topic to be dull. If a topic is interesting to the learners, it is more likely that they will participate. In order to make the topics more interesting, the teacher could find out what topics the learners want to learn about and then build them into the curriculum. Dörnyei (2001a:65) mentions some means of how to do gather information from learners: interviews and one-to one chats, group discussion and brainstorming, essay writing assignments, questionnaires with open-ended questions and questionnaires with sentence-completion items. After the information has been gathered, it can be submitted to further discussion so the teacher can come to an agreement with the learners. Also, the topics are more relevant if they are connected to learners' everyday experiences and background. This strategy is linked with the strategy of making the tasks more varied. The topics can be made more interesting and also address the linguistic needs of the learners by asking them questions like: what second language activities they are currently involved in, what second language contacts they have, what second language related situations they can visualise themselves in, etc.

2. 4. 3. Strategy 3: Giving positive information feedback

According to Dörnyei (2001a), positive information feedback involves positive, descriptive feedback regarding the strenghts, achievements, progress and attitudes of the learners. This kind of feedback provides learners with information instead of judgement and it does not compare them to their peers, but rather to their own previous achievements. Dörnyei

(2001a) points out that teachers should provide their learners with regular information feedback about the progress they are making and about the areas which they should particulary concentrate on. He also warns of three types of feedback which could backfire: communicating pity after failure, the offering of praise after success in easy tasks and unsolicited offers of help, such as supplying the answer. Also, feedback should not be restricted to error correction, but it should also be given for the positive attributions. Feedback should be regular, so that the learners are always informed about the progress they are making in certain areas.

2. 4. 4. Strategy 4: Creating specific rules for speaking activities

In order to avoid unacceptable behaviour in the classroom and motivate the learners to participate more in speaking activities, the teacher should establish group norms or group rules. These should be discussed with the learners at the beginning of a group's life, and also accepted by the learners. The importance of these group norms should be explained and the learners should have the chance to be involed in the discussion about rules and suggest additional rules. After the rules have been formulated by the group and the teacher, they should be displayed (and also the consequences for violating them). After the group norms have been formulated and agreed upon, the teacher should observe those norms consistently and also train the learners to do the same. In that way, learners can take charge of the classroom atmosphere and cope with those, who do not obey the rules.

2. 4. 5. Strategy 5: Appropriate error correction

Appropriate error correction is not only connected to the level of motivation in speaking activities, but also to the level of anxiety in speaking activites. Excessive error correction can indeed provoke anxiety. According to Dörnyei (2001a: 92, 93), making mistakes is one if the factors that cause anxiety in the second language classroom. The other factors are social comparison, competition and tests. In order to avoid anxiety in the second lnguage classroom, error correction should occur in an appropriate amount and the learners should also be made aware of the fact that errors and mistakes are a normal part of the language learning process. Modern methodologies suggest that error correction should occur when the message was not conveyed and communication has not been achieved. Still, error correction is inevitable in the

second language classroom, and the learners have to be taught that there is no secong language learning without making mistakes.

2. 4. 6. Strategy 6: Preventing the mocking of learners with poor speaking skills

This strategy is not mentioned by Dörnyei (2001a) in the way that it is mentioned in this research, but it still has relevance. Learners should not be mocked because of their poor speaking skills because it lowers their motivation. The teacher should prevent this from happening by explaining to the learners that second language learning is a process and that not all learners are at the same stage of this process. If it does happen, the teacher should react. This strategy could be incorporated into the establishment of group norms by creating a rule which would say for example, that making fun of colleagues is not acceptable or forbidden. When a learner is being mocked by his/her peers for making a mistake or being able to solve a task, this can lead to further problems in the classroom.

2. 4. 7. Strategy 7: Promoting cooperation among learners

Dörnyei (2001a) points out that a cooperative situation is far better that a competitive one. Learners should be taught to work together as a team and to help each other. When learners work together in order to achieve a certain goal, the level of motivation and the expectancy of success rises and the level of anxiety falls. Similary, a competitive atmosphere, where learners try to be better than others, can have negative effects on motivation. Some point out the term ”healthy competition“, but Dörnyei (2001a:93) argues that there is no such thing. He states that, unless in game-like activities that are not taken seriously, any kind of competition should be avoided, and instead, cooperation should be promoted. He mentiones some of the features of effective cooperative tasks: learners should work in small groups, they should be relying on each other to be able to complete the task, and they should be given some advance training of groups skill and reflect on the cooperative work.

2. 4. 8. Strategy 8: Dealing with anxious learners

Sometimes teachers are faced with the problem of certain learners not being willing to participate in speaking activities because of their high level of anxiety. Some of the ways of decreasing anxiety have already been mentioned as part of other strategies, namely avoiding excessive error correction and creating a cooperative atmosphere. Also, the teacher should avoid social comparison and make tests and assesments completely transparent. Social comparison involves an excessive emphasis on comparing successful and unsuccessful learners, i. e. achievement and ability grouping. Dörnyei (2001a:92) points out that even reading aloud grades or a display of selected papers can be harmful. Tests and assessment can be quite stressful and anxiety-provoking for the learners. This issue can be resolved by provoiding sufficient advance information about the test, including clear specifications of the criteria that will be used when grading. There should also be enough time to complete the test and a certain amount of self-evaluation and possibly peer-evaluation should be used when giving the final grade.

2. 4. 9. Strategy 9: Promoting contact with native speakers

This strategy has been mentioned by Dörnyei (2001a) as a part of promoting the learners' awareness of the instrumental values associated with the knowledge of a second language. The level of motivation can be increased if the learners have contact with native speakers and have the opportunity to use their speaking skills this way. Sometimes it is hard to bring a real native speaker to class, but there are other forms of contact with native speakers, e. g. through the internet. If contact with a native speaker cannot be arranged, the teacher should use some kind of supstitution. In some cases, these supstitutions involve the development of another skill, such as writing, e. g. learners could have pen palls who are native speakers. Modern technology makes this possible.

3. The speaking skill and the problems connected to it

3. 1. The development of the speaking skill

In the world of teaching English as a foreign language (and teaching foreign languages in general) it is an accepted fact that the final goal of the process of teaching and learning a language is communication. The final outcome of this process is the students' ability to communicate in the target language. To achieve this goal, the speaking skill has to be developed adequatly. Although the other skills are just as important as speaking, without a developed speaking skill no oral communication could exist. The speaking skill is a productive skill and it takes the longest to develop. It is connected to all the other skills and also used for developing them.

3. 2. Functions of speaking

In this section important functions of speaking will be discussed. According to Brown and Yule (1983), the two functions of speaking are the transactional function and the interactional function. Richards (2008) has added one more, namely talk as performance. Richards (2008) points out that these three speech activities are distinct in form and function and there fore require different teaching approaches. The following is a list of main features and some skills involved in all three functions of speaking.

The following are the main features of talk as interaction (Richards, 2008):

- Has a primarily social function
- Reflects role relationships
- Reflects speaker's identity
- May be formal or casual
- Uses conversational conventions
- Reflects degrees of politeness
- Employs many generic words
- Uses conversational register

- Is jointly constructed

Some of the skills involved in talk as interaction are the following (Richards, 2008):

- Opening and closing conversations
- Choosing topics
- Making small talk
- Joking
- Recounting personal incidents and experiences
- Turn-taking
- Interrupting
- Reacting to others

We are mostly unaware of these skills in our mother-tongue, but they are essential to communication. Without them, communication in our mother-tongue would not be as successful. Similarly, learners need to develop these skills in order to be able to establish a successful communicative situation in their second language.

The main features of talk as transaction are the following (Richards, 2008):

- It has primarily an information focus
- The main focus is on the message and not the participants
- Participants employ communication strategies to make themselves understood
- There may be frequent questions, repetitions and comprehension checks
- There may be negotiation and digression
- Linguistic accuracy is not always important

As for the skills involved in talk as transaction, Richards (2008) lists the following:

- Explaining a need or intention
- Describing something
- Asking questions
- Asking for clarification
- Justifying an opinion
- Making comparisons
- Agreeing and disagreeing

Talk as transaction also has a high importance in the communication process. The learner may need the skills involved in talk as transaction in situations like asking for directions.

Furthermore, the main features of talk as performance according to Richards (2008) are:

- A focus on both message and audience
- Predictable organisation and sequencing
- Importance of both form and accuracy
- Language is more like written language
- Often monologic

Finally, some skills involved in talk as performance are the following:

- Using an appropriate format
- Presenting information in an appropriate sequence
- Maintaining audience engagement
- Using correct pronunciation and grammar
- Creating an effect on the audience
- Using appropriate vocabulary
- Using an appropriate opening and closing

Some of the skill involved in talk as performance may come in useful for the learners of a second language, even though they may never be required to give a speech in the second language.

A teacher of English has to be aware of these three functions of speaking in order to be able to develop the speaking skill of his/her students. The teacher has to determine which of these three functions will be focused on and to identify strategies to teach them (Richards, 2008).

3. 3. Problems with speaking activities

The most commonly recognized problems with speaking activities in second language classrooms are summarized by Ur (1991:121):

- Inhibition. Speaking activities are different from reading, writing and listening activities because they require a certain degree of real-time exposure to an audience, the audience being the rest of the class and the teacher. Learners often have inhibitions about saying

something in the target language because they are worried about making mistakes, receiving criticism or losing face or because they are shy of the attention their speech is going to receive.

- Nothing to say. Sometimes the problem is not inhibition, but the learners having nothing to say, which could mean that they have no motive to express themselves beyond the guilty feeling that they are supposed to speak.
- Low or uneven participation. If a learner's speech is to be heard, only he/she can speak, whereas the other learners have to be quiet. When the learner group is large, every learner will only have a short time to speak. Some of the learners might have the tendency to speak a lot and dominate speaking activities, and others speak very little or avoid speaking altogether.
- Mother-tongue use. When all the learners in a second language classroom share a common mother-tongue, they may tend to use it. This is so because it feels more natural to speak the mother-tongue, it is easier to do so and because this way they may feel less exposed. With less disciplined or motivated classes in particular, it is hard to make the learners keep to the target language when they are divided into smaller groups.

There are also some other problems which are somewhat inherent to teaching a foreign language (Byrne, 1976). These are all problems which teachers of English are not only aware of, but have to face them every day. Firstly, a classroom is not a natural environment for learning a foreign language. The best way of learning to speak English (i. e. developing the speaking skill) is learning it outside the classroom. Going to live in America, the UK or any other English-speaking country would be far more effective than learning English in an artificial environment such as a classroom. Secondly, teaching English as a school subject is extremely hard because of the size of the groups one has to teach. Realistically, most of the classrooms in our country have about thirty students each.

4. Exploring motivational strategies in teaching speaking

4. 1. Aim of the study

The aim of this diploma paper is to explore practicing English teacher's personal experience in the use of motivational strategies in speaking activities. These are the research questions:

1. Which motivatonal strategies do teachers of English use in their classrooms?
2. How do these strategies work? How are they being applied? Is the application of the motivational strategies successful?
3. Are there any difficulties in applying the motivational strategies? If so, what are the obstacles in applying the adequate motivational strategy?

4. 2. Sample

For the purpose of this research, fifteen practicing teachers of English were interviewed. They are all female, but different in terms of age, the type of school they work in (primary school, secondary school, university), the geographical region they live in (Osijek, Međimurje) and the number of years of experience. Some of these differences were not taken into account in this research, but the type of school was considered as a factor influencing the selection of motivational strategies, because it was expected that the problems with motivation in speaking activities may vary from school to school. The issues in primary schools are connected to the early stages of development of the speaking skill and are somewhat specific. Also, when it comes to secondary schools, a difference has to be made between different types of secondary schools, because different types of secondary schools put a different amount of emphasis on learning foreign languages. There are differences in the level of importance a certain school places on a school subject like English.

Two participants are professors of English at a university (Department of English language and literature), nine participants are teachers at six different high schools (grammar schools, school for catering and tourism, economy school), and the remainig four are teachers in three different primary schools. Since the participants were labeled with numbers in the results, they have to be listed here:

Interview 1 (T1): University, Osijek
Interview 2 (T2): Secondary school, Osijek
Interview 3 (T3): Secondary school, Osijek
Interview 4 (T4): University, Osijek
Interview 5 (T5): Secondary school, Osijek
Interview 6 (T6): Primary school, Mursko Središće
Interview 7 (T7): Secondary school, Osijek
Interview 8 (T8): Primary school, Osijek
Interview 9 (T9): Primary school, Osijek
Interview 10 (T10): Secondary school, Osijek
Interview 11 (T11): Secondary school, Čakovec
Interview 12 (T12): Secondary school, Čakovec
Interview 13 (T13): Secondary school, Čakovec

Interview 14 (T14): Primary school, Mursko Središće

Interview 15 (T15): Secondary school, Čakovec

4. 3. Instrument

The main research method used in the present research is a semi-structured interview. The questions for the interview were designed by the researcher, on the basis of Dörnyei's book *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom* (2001), which contains different kinds of motivational strategies, including those referring (directly or indirectly) to speaking activities (see 2. 4.). As speaking is an integral part of almost every lesson of English, different strategies that Dörnyei (2001a) lists can relate to speaking activites. The interview contains nine items, i. e. open-ended questions with the possibility of adding personalized subquestions. This method was chosen in order to get a truthful and individualised response from the participants. Although the interview was designed as an oral interview, three of the fifteen interviews were done by means of email, because the teachers expressed their wish to answer the question this way. The interview can be found in the Appendix.

4. 4. Procedure

Every teacher was asked (per email, cell phone or personally) to participate in the reasearch. The research topic was explained to the participants by the researcher in advance. This was done to relieve the participants of any possible anxiety and to make them aware that this was not a test of their teaching abilities and that they would not be evaluated. Beside the research topic, the research procedure was also explained to the participants in advance. The participants were also offered to read the research report. The interviews were recorded on a cell phone, copied into the personal computer, listened to and transcribed. As already mentioned, three of the interviews were done by email. After the interviews were transcribed, the answers were analysed and categorised. Frequently occuring answers were identified and counted. Also, some specific answers from individual teachers were extracted because they might provide interesting and relevant information. After the completion of the list of frequent and individual answers, all the information gathered was reinspected and compared to the literature. It must be noted that frequency of answers was not the only criterion important in this research, because it was assumed that teachers could not say everything in the ten minutes of the interview. For example, it was assumed that the fact that a teacher did not list role-play as a kind of activity she uses could not be taken as an indication that she does not use it at all.

4. 5. Results and discussion

In this section, the results of the interviews will be displayed in the form of tables. There are nine tables, one for each interview question. The answers are paraphrased and shortened. They have also been semantically adjusted, so that they are easier to compare.

After each table, the answers gained from the interviews are analysed. The discussion addresses the research questions and deals with the identification of the motivational strategies that the teachers use in their classrooms, but it also analyzes the application of the motivational strategies and the obstacles associated with it. The analysis will attempt to answer the questions of how different teachers apply the motivational strategies, and more importantly, examine the difficulties in the application. It is hard to tell how a particular motivational strategy influences the level of motivation in the second language classroom just on the basis of the interviews. All the strategies mentioned in this research are complex and the teachers have their own way of applying them. The strategies seem to be working in a positive way and there is no indication that they could backfire, but sometimes they do not give the expected results. There are also certain obstacles when trying to apply some of the strategies.

Table 1: The participants' answers to interview question 1

	(1) What kinds of speaking activities do you use? Which are Your favorites and which Your students favorites?
T1	Different kinds of activities. Activities in which speaking is the means of achieving another goal; speaking is a hidden aim. Activities in which there is some sort of competition. Activities in which the Ls are not aware that they are speaking English, but they have to. Telling a story with a lie in it or sth similar, so they have to listen to each other.
T2	Conversations on different topics. Dialogues (mainly between waiter and guest) – guided dialogues.
T3	Different types of activities. Short tasks from the book. Topics: leisure time, fun, different parts of the world, etc. Discussions. Expressing opinion about topic.
T4	Conversations in pairs and groups, role-play (these kinds of activities take up a lot of time and it is hard to follow every learner so they are not done too often). Group work is problematic because it is always one L who speaks and a lot of the other Ls are quiet – pair work and role-play are better in that sense.
T5	Speaking activities are integrated into every lesson. Varied tasks. Describing pictures, guessing something, discussions, giving opinion, answering questions.
T6	Role-play. Questions and answers. Summarizing. Games (e.g. a learner says a word, the other repeats and adds another and so on) - the aim of the game has to be explained, Ls learn better this way. Doing a task on their own and then presenting (teacher's favorite). Varied tasks.
T7	The speaking skill is assigned a very high importance. Every topic that is dealt with can be used for speaking. Ls do not like talking about topics on which they have no opinion because of their age. The teacher likes everything they do. Debates. Varied activities.
T8	Speaking activities are an integral part of every lesson. Very often reading and listening comprehension questions (question-answer). Debates (Ls with better speaking skills like them; whereas Ls with poor speaking skills like questions and answers). The T likes debates because she can not only examine Ls' speaking skill, but also their opinions and interests.
T9	Guided speaking activities because of their age (e.g. the beginning of the sentence is given, they have to fill in the rest, etc.). The T likes speaking activities with picture prompts, describing pictures, making up stories, guessing. The Ls like discussions, giving their own opinion motivates them.
T10	Most of the activities are from the coursebook. One-minute-speech – Ls do not like it. Questions and answers – Ls like them. Asking each other questions.
T11	Doing projects in groups and then presenting. The T likes the activities with real-life situations (eg. travelling – which vocabulary to use when you are at an airport). Speaking is integrated into every lesson, so are the other skills.
T12	Pre- and postreading discussions on the topic. Short dialogues. Doing projects in groups and then presenting. The T likes activities in pairs, where the topic is drawn from everyday life situations. Role-play. Speaking activities are intergrated into every lesson.
T13	A lot of different activites (already proposed by the coursebook). Describing pictures. Speaking activities in form of pre-listening and pre-reading tasks. Role-play. Discussions are very frequent because they are flexible – the T's favourite. Ls like one-minute-speeches. Turning writing assignments into speaking activities.

T14	Conversation. Discussion. Role-play. Ls with higher speaking skills like debates.
T15	Questions as an introduction to the topic. Guided dialogues in pairs (shopping conversation, telephone conversation, etc.). Conversations in groups using role-cards. Pre-reading and pre-listening questions (from coursebooks). Summarizing a text. Interview. Describing pictures. Guided writing of sentences and whole stories. T's favourite-giving opinion on the basis of questions. Ls like dialogues from real life because they are guided and the Ls do not have to work that hard.

The first strategy used by the teachers is varying the tasks, i. e. using different kinds of tasks for the development of the speaking skill. Although different answers were gained from the interviews, and some teachers list as many different activities as they could remember (role-play, discussion, conversation, describing, etc.), all of them use varied tasks. Not all the teachers answered this question in form of a list of all possible activities they could remember, which does not mean that they do not use varied tasks. As can be seen from Table 1, some teachers mention tasks in which speaking is the means, not the goal. All of them use these tasks, because they are inevitable in the language classroom. For example, speaking can be used as a basis for a written assignment, where the goal would be the finished text. A few teachers say that the speaking skill is integrated into every lesson in one way or another, which means that there is no lesson of English where the learners would not speak at all. Speaking activities are also used in developing other skills, for example, they are used as pre- or post-listening and reading activities. One teacher (T7) talks about the high importance the speaking skill has, and that it is very important for her that her learners are able to communicate in English after the four years of high school education. The learners in the primary schools like speaking tasks in the form of games, and one teacher says they learn better in this way. A teacher (T4) says that her learners like speaking activities in groups, but then only a few learners actually speak. A few teachers talk about activities, such as dialogues derived from everyday situations – and that they are very important. When asked what their favorite speaking activities are, most of the teachers answer that they like those activities that their learners like. One teacher (T8) says that she likes debates, because that way she can get familiarized with her learners' interests and beliefs. This information gained from debates is very valuable when choosing topics for different kinds of speaking activities. Another teacher (T9) also specifies the activities she likes, such as making up stories, guessing, activities with picture prompts, etc. These are all very creative activities which should be encouraged in schools. The learners, however, do not like talking about topics which they have no opinion about because of their age, which is logical. Learners who have better speaking skills like more demanding activities, such as debates, and learners who have poorer speaking skills like shorter and less demanding activities, such as questions and answers. The

results also show that in primary school guided activities are more often used because of the age of the learners. As they get older there will probably be more independent activities. It is also mentioned that learners like discussions because it motivates them to express their opinion.

Table 2: Participants' answers to interview question 2

	(2) Where do the topics for speaking activities come from?
T1	The topics are connected to the unit (topics come from the materials, course books). The topics are mainly chosen by the T. Some of the topics (mainly for debates or discussions) are chosen by the Ls, but that does not guarantee participation.
T2	The topics are connected to the unit (topics come from materials, course books). The topics are mainly chosen by the T (according to Ls' interests). The T finds additional topics on the internet (according to Ls' interests and type of high school).
T3	The topics are connected to the unit (topics come from materials, course books). The topics from the book are expanded through materials from other books, the internet, etc. (the T chooses it according to Ls' interests). The topics are always connected to the real world and to the Ls' personal lives.
T4	The Ls were asked what they are interested in and what they want to talk about, so the most frequent topics can be integrated into the speaking activities. The T uses the topics from the materials, the internet, (according to learners' interest).
T5	The topics are mainly connected to the unit (topics come from the course books). The topics from the course books are interesting to the Ls. Sometimes the T uses some topics from other books.
T6	The topics are mainly connected to the unit (topics come from course books). The T is not satisfied with her course book. The T uses the internet (mainly for gathering tasks). The T knows what is interesting to the students (from experience).
T7	Topics come from the course books. Other topics are also built in, e.g. when a day is being celebrated (Human rights day).
T8	Topics are mostly connected to the course book. The T knows what the Ls are interested in at what age and she chooses the topics accordingly.
T9	Topics are mostly connected to the course book. The T uses secondary literature. The T knows what the Ls are interested in at what age and she chooses the topics accordingly.
T10	Beside the course book, the T uses different sources for choosing topics (e. g. other course books). Secondary literature mostly used when the topic is not interesting to the Ls.
T11	Topics are mostly connected to the course book (the T thinks that the course books are good when discussing topics, even for Državna matura). When doing projects, the Ls are instructed to use certain web sites for their project.
T12	Topics are mostly connected to the course book (the T thinks that the course books are mostly good when discussing topics).
T13	Topics are mostly connected to the course book. Sometimes the T uses secondary literature when she thinks the topic should be expanded because it is important. The T thinks that the topics in course books could be more interesting for the Ls, but that the course book does not need to be perfect for the Ls. The course book has to make them talk about certain topics which are important.
T14	The topics are mostly connected to the course book (the T adds that she has to follow the curriculum). The T draws some topics from the celebrity world, situations in school, the world of film and music, etc. (those are all topics Ss can relate to).
T15	The topics are mostly connected to the course book. The T uses secondary literature. The T uses the internet (good material can be found there). The T chooses the topics herself.

The second motivational strategy which was discussed with the teachers is choosing interesting and relevant topics for speaking activities. A teacher can know what topics are interesting for the learners by asking them. Most teachers do not ask their learners at the beginning of the course about topics that interest them, but they learn it from experience. A lot of the teachers report that experience in teaching gave them an insight into their learners' interests and beliefs. As can be seen from Table 2, the majority of the topics come from course books and materials, but the teachers also use the internet and other books for finding interesting topics and tasks. Teachers say that the topics from course books are interesting to the learners (only one teacher (T6) found her course book to be bad). As said before, teachers also use the internet and other secondary sources to supplement the topics already existing in the course books, but very rarely to find whole topics which could cover a number of speaking activities. This is probably so because the topics in the course book are already interesting enough. The teachers supplement the topics for a number of reasons, e.g. expanding a topic which the teacher feels is important or simply because good material can be found if you look for it. A teacher (T1) says that she lets learners choose topics for discussions, but that it does not guarantee success.

As already mentioned in the theoretical part, the topics chosen for speaking activities should be relevant and interesting for the learners. Although this strategy seems to be easy to apply, there are certain limitations to it. One teacher (T14) makes a good point when she says that she has to follow the curriculum prescribed by the school system. The curriculum is the same for every teacher and this does not leave the teacher with a lot freedom when it comes to choosing topics. After meeting all the requirements of the curriculum, sometimes there is simply no space for using other topics for speaking activities. Teachers use an alternative, which is expanding already prescribed topics, and in that way making them more interesting. A teacher (T1) says that she lets learners choose topics for discussions, but that it does not guarantee success. Not all learners are motivated to participate, although they have chosen the topic for the discussion themselves.

Table 3: Participants' answers to interview question 3

	(3) What kind of feedback do You give Your students for their speaking skill?
T1	It depends on the topic. It depends on the aim of the activity. Sometimes there is no feedback (e.g. in conversations where the aim is speaking in English).
T2	Giving praise and criticizing. Almost no feedback to give, because the Ls do not speak at all. Individual feedback during oral testing.
T3	Feedback usually given after longer speaking activities (e.g. presentations). Giving praise for speaking correctly and after using a new word.
T4	Feedback given after presentations (frequent mistakes). It is not good to correct students during presentations in front of their collegues. Giving feedback individually.
T5	Feedback given after oral testing, individually.
T6	Giving praise. Individual feedback during oral testing.
T7	Positive feedback exclusively (because it is very important for the Ls to gain communicative competence during the 4 years of high school education). Positive feedback given during and after the speaking (e.g. „Nicely said“, „Great“, etc.). Every Ls has to be motivated to speak and be aware that what he/she says counts.
T8	The T gives feedback through grades. Different factors are taken into account when grading a speaking activity: content, grammar, communicational competence, the relationship the Ls have in speaking activities such as debates – how they treat each other, fluency and vocabulary. Ls know what is going to be expected from them in a certain speaking activity and what is going to be graded.
T9	Both positive and negative feedback. The T prefers positive feedback, especially for the shy Ls, that do not speak as much. Negative feedback: error correction (but only frequent and important errors).
T10	Feedback given during oral testing and during class. Error correction by the T. Error correction by the Ls (sometimes mocking).
T11	Both positive and negative feedback. The T gives motivational grades and tells her Ls that mistakes are not that important, it is more important to convey the message. Sometimes feedback given after oral testing.
T12	Error correction – depends on the focus of the speaking activity (fluency vs. accuracy). After a certain speaking activity or oral testing, feedback can be given (e. g. this was good, but try to work on this).
T13	During class, the T gives feedback through body language and facial expressions. The T does usually not interrupt the Ls when they are speaking. After oral testing, the T gives feedback, e.g. you have to use more new words, you have to pay more attention to grammar, etc. During oral testing, the T tells the Ls that when they do not know the answer, they should at least explain why they do not know it, then they have already said something. Some advice should be given to Ls after oral testing, so that they know what they have to work on in the future.
T14	Error correction (pronunciation). Help the Ls form sentences.
T15	The T thinks she gives detailed feedback about the speaking skill (pronunciation, fluency, etc.). Less feedback given during presentation and practice stage. More feedback when grading the speaking skill, the T explains the grade.

The strategy about giving feedback was very often mistaken for error correction in the interviews, so the teachers start to talk about that, because it is also a part of feedback. In primary and secondary schools individual feedback concerning the individual learner's skills is given after oral testing, and at the university after oral presentations. As can be seen from Table 3, praise is mentioned by two teachers, but they all probably use it. So, one can say that the frequency of feedback ranges from none at all to a lot of it, and that includes both positive feedback and negative feedback. In most cases positive feedback is given after oral testing, where the teachers give some kind of advice to the learners, in terms of what was good and what has to be worked on. Also, feedback is present during the class, where the teacher gives praise or corrects mistakes. A teacher (T7) stood out here, by saying that there is no negative feedback in her classroom:

> ”Dakle oni moraju steći tu komunikativnu kompetenciju, i meni je to jako važno. Tako da su moje povratne informacije isključivo pozitivne, bilo da se radi o tome da ja već tijekom njihovog iskaza ja njih ohrabrujem, kažem krasno, divno, baš si to lijepo rekao ili rekla, a negativnih nema. Negativnih nema. Znači, apsolutno svaki učenik se mora potaknuti na govor i svaki učenik mora biti svjestan da ono što kaže je vrijedno.“

When asked about feedback they are giving, some teachers start talking about grades for speaking activities and the criteria for those grades. Of course, grades are also a sort of feedback given to learners, but they are rarely connected to motivational strategies used for developing the speaking skill. A teacher (T11) mentions motivational grades which are given to learners for participation and they could be viewed as incentives. Incentives are a motivational tool which can be helpful. An interesting statement given by a teacher (T13) has to be mentioned. She says that she gives feedback through body language and facial expressions, without interrupting the learners when they are speaking. This shows that the learners know their teacher well.

Table 4: Participants' answers to interview question 4

	(4) What rules do you have for speaking activities? Who developed them?
T1	No specific rules defined. These rules should have been acquired in childhood. Correcting unacceptable behaviour as it happens. Still, there are some Ls who do not know how to behave correctly during speaking activities.
T2	Rules were defined at the beginning (last year, when the T started teaching this generation), but the students do not obey them. It is hard to achieve order in speaking activities.
T3	Rules depend on the task. Using a new word. It is hard to teach them to listen to each other, but in time they learn (it would be easier if the groups were smaller).
T4	The T does not talk about rules with Ls, she thinks of them as adults. There are Ls whose behaviour is unacceptable, the T reacts in these situations. The T thinks that defining rules could be helpful.
T5	It is hard to teach them to listen to each other (the T thinks that this is also connected with the rigid seating arrangement in the classroom). It is a rule that they are not allowed to interrupt each other, but some Ls still do it, then the T reacts.
T6	No specific rules. It is hard to calm them down when the activitiy is dynamic, when they are very active.
T7	Rules for speaking activities are general rules for polite communication. E. g. when sb is speaking, the others are listening, when you want to say sth, you have to raise your hand. They have to be tought that communication is important in L1 and L2. They have to respect the person they are talking to, no matter what he/she is saying. Connected to the way the Ls were brought up.
T8	At the beginning of every school year, every class T has to discuss and define rules of conduct in the classroom, so these are then reflected upon speaking activities. E. g. we listen to each other, we let a person finish his/her sentence, we do not use inappropriate vocabulary, etc. A poster is made at the beginning of a school year. Sometimes Ls correct other Ls who do not obey the rules of conduct.
T9	The T develops the rules with the Ls at the beginning of every school year. These rules are built into the rule of conduct in the classroom. E. g. do not interrupt the person who is talking, carefully listen to the person talking, raise your hand when you want to say sth, do not speak at the same time, do not mock Ls who need more time to say sth, help each other.
T10	It happens often that they interrupt each other, the T also does that sometimes. The rules are developed during school year. The T mostly has to react to unacceptable behaviour. Ls do not obey the rules
T11	Ls speak in English more when they can rehearse. In group work, everyone has to cooperate. It often happens that only one L does all the work, the others do nothing. Rules like listen to each other, do not interrupt each other, etc. have to be repeated all the time. This is a problem in the classroom. Their behaviour probably correlates with the way they were brought up.
T12	The first rule would be to speak in English, although the Ls do not always follow that rule. Some classes obey it, and in some classes it has to be repeated all the time. In group work, everyone has to cooperate, but it happens that they do not obey this rule. The Ls' behaviour in the classroom is linked to their behaviour at home. Pairwork is therefore better than groupwork.
T13	No problems with behaviour in the classroom. Rules do not have to be pointed out.

T14	Rules have been defined by the T and Ls at the beginning of the school year – we do not interrupt each other, every L has to raise his/her hand if he/she wants to say sth and wait his/her turn.
T15	Firstly, the T would want her Ls to listen to the L who is speaking, but nowadays it is very hard to make them obey this rule. In most cases, when one L is speaking, the others use this time for other activities. Secondly, the T tries to encourage the Ls to use only English, even though they will make mistakes, but they still use L1 very often. If a native speaker would be the T, they would have to speak English to communicate, and this would lead to a better skill.

As can be seen in Table 4, most of the teachers do not have clearly defined rules for speaking activities, i. e. rules that are written down, displayed and discussed with the learners, most of them correct misbehaviour as it arises. There are exceptions and those are mostly connected to primary school teachers. A few primary school teachers say that at the beginning of every school year, general rules of behaviour in the classroom are defined and discussed with the learners, and those rules then reflect upon speaking activities. Most teachers mention the following rules:

-when somebody is speaking, the others are listening,

-when you want to say something, raise your hand,

-do not interrupt each other,

-speak English,

-do not use inappropriate vocabulary, etc.

When discussing the defining of rules for speaking activities, the teachers report that the rule they have to repeat the most is that the learners have to listen to each other and that this is a big problem in the classroom. Most learners engage in various other activities when somebody is speaking. There are two problems connected with this issue that come up in the interviews: the size of the group and the seating arrangement. Some teachers say that the groups are mostly big, with about thirty learners and that their job would be much easier if the groups were smaller. More time could be spent on each learner and the quality of the whole course would be better. Also, there are the rigid seating arrangements which are not suitable for a language classroom. Learners spend their years in schools looking at each other's backs and the teachers believe that this is one of the reasons why they do not listen to each other. Only a few schools have tried to change this, but this is not the case with any of the schools visited for the purpose of this interview. Everybody is aware of the problem, but nobody seems to be doing anything to solve it. And if the teachers wanted to rearrange the seating arrangement, it would take up the time

reserved for the lesson itself and the teacher would have to change it back after the end of the class.

A lot of teachers make a connection between the behaviour in the classroom and the way the learners were brought up by their parents. Some even say that those rules should have been acquired in childhood, so that there would be no need to point them out. A teacher (T7) says that the learners have to be taught how to communicate with each other in a polite and respectful way, as they would do in their mother-tongue. But there are a lot of learners who just do not respect such a way of communicating and this naturally projects into the classroom. Some teachers say that they can be taught, but some say that no matter what they do or say, some learners will just not obey the rules. There is only one teacher (T13) who says that she has no problems with misbehaviour in speaking activities, even though she never defined any rules.

There is an interesting rule that comes up in the interviews when discussing rule defining, and that is that in group work, everybody has to cooperate. Teachers report that this is very hard to achieve and that mostly one or two learners do all the work. Maybe a solution for some cases would be to have a learner in the role of a group monitor, but then the danger would arise that the other learners would label him/her a snitch. Teachers conclude that pair work is therefore better that group work.

Table 5: Participants' answers to interview question 5

	(5) How do You correct mistakes in speaking activities?
T1	It depends on the aim of the activity/task. For longer speaking activities (e.g. oral presentations) no interruptions, because it lowers motivation.
T2	It is better to correct after the activitiy, but the mistakes are so frequent that the teacher does not have time to correct them all. Correcting only those mistakes that interfere with communication.
T3	Correcting pronounciaton of new words immediately. For longer speaking activities no interruptions. It depends on the aim of the activity (e. g. drill – immediate correction).
T4	For longer speaking activities no interruptions. It depends on the aim of the activity (drill – immediately). Repeating the incorrect sentence with the emphasis on the incorrect word.
T5	It depends on the aim of the activitiy (drill – immediately). Sometimes, the Ls correct each other (interaction). Younger generations are not so self-conscious about their mistakes – the T thinks this is positive.
T6	It depends on the aim of the activitiy (drill – immediately). Ls correct each other. The T tells the Ls that making mistakes is normal. No error correction when the aim is speaking.
T7	The T tries to avoid error correctin, because she fears that it would put the Ls off. Error correction only in grammatical drills, but after the task, not during. The T does not interrupt Ls while they are speaking.
T8	It depends on the aim of the activity. The T encourages the Ls to correct themselves by repeating the incorrect part or repeating the question. When the aim is communication (e.g. in debates), the T does not correct.
T9	When the aim is communication, the T does not correct as long as the message has been conveyed. In other activities, the T corrects only those errors that influence the meaning of the message. In drills, correction is more frequent. During oral testing, corrections are made after the speaking, to draw attention to what has to be worked on. After oral testing, the T also draws attention to what has been acquired excellently and what the particular L is good at.
T10	It depends on the focus of the activity. In drills, correction is immediate.
T11	In drills, the T corrects errors, so that the Ls do not acquire the wrong structure. It depends on the aim of the activity.
T12	It depends on the aim of the activity (accuracy vs. fluency). When the focus is on accuracy, the T corrects, but when it is on fluency, the T does not interrupt, but sometimes corrects after the activity.
T13	Sometimes Ls correct each other. It depends on the focus of the activity. When the message has not been conveyed, the T corrects. Correction also during drills (grammar and vocabulary). One-minute-speech – no correction.
T14	Direct error correction – asking the Ls to repeat correctly.
T15	Error correction frequent. Errors are rarely ignored, even if they interrupt the speaker. Ls have to repeat the correct word after the T. The T encourages Ls to correct each other (listen, identify and correct the mistake).

Error correction is inevitable in the second language classroom, but if it is too frequent, the learners might perceive it in a negative way and speak less. The solution to this problem is to apply error correction adequately, in accordance with the specific task and the specific learner

group. This balance can be challenging to achieve. As Table 5 shows, most of the teachers agree that error correction depends on the task and that for longer speaking activities there should be no interruptions, but in grammatical drills for example, errors are corrected immediately. Some teachers say that learners also correct each other, which is positive if there is no rudeness. A teacher (T5) says that learners used to be afraid of making mistakes and had not spoken as much, but that the newer generations are not so self-conscious. Some teachers also emphasize the importance of explaining to the learners that making mistakes is normal and that the teacher also makes mistakes, which is very positive. Learners have to be made aware that learning a language is an ongoing process and that mistakes are simply a normal part of that process. A teacher (T9) also mentiones that error correction occurs after oral testing, but that she also draws attention to what has been acquired excellently and what the learner is particularly good at. The errors are not only corrected by saying it right, but the teacher sometimes repeats the mistake in order to make the learner realize and correct his/her own mistake. This is a chance learners have to be given, because it makes them aware of their mistake much more then somebody else repeating it the right way. They have to stop and think about the mistake in order to learn from it.

As mentioned before, it can be challenging to apply a right amount of error correction in the second language correction. Not all teachers agree on the amount of error correction neccessary in the development of the speaking skills. One teacher (T7) expresses her fear that error correction could put the learners off, so she avoids error correction. Another teacher (T11) finds error correction in drill activities necessary, because there is the danger of learners acquiring the wrong structure, which is sometimes true. Only one teacher (T15) emphasizes that error correction is very frequent in her class, but her classroom is a case of its own, because the majority of learners have poor speaking skills. Evidently, there is no motivational strategy that would tell a teacher how much error correction to use which would work in every case.

Table 6: Participants' answers to interview question 6

	(6) How do Your students treat a colleague with a rather poor speaking skill?
T1	Ls correct his/her mistakes. They react more to a collegue who they do not like, it is not connected to his/her speaking skill. Only a few unpleasant situations, Ls mostly behave correctly.
T2	Most of the Ls have poor speaking skills. They laugh at each other. The few Ls who are better at speaking do not give the others the chance to speak, they give the answer before them. Big problems with order in the classroom.
T3	It happens sometimes that they laugh at him/her and finish his/her sentences, but the T reacts in these situations.
T4	It depends on the generation. From helping to unacceptable behaviour. More unacceptable behaviour with new generations. The Ls who mock others are still in the few.The T reacts to such behaviour.
T5	The Ls mostly behave correctly. When unacceptable behaviour does occur, the T reacts.
T6	It depends on the particular L (if the other Ls like him/her, they do not mock him/her). It depends on the group. The T always reacts when unacceptable behaviour occurs. The T does not call that L up for solving harder tasks.
T7	They behave correctly if you teach them to from the beginning. The T should teach them to respect each other. There are Ls who stutter, so they automatically have more difficulty with English. It rarely happens that somebody mocks somebody else (isolated cases). The T reacts to it. Connected to the way the Ls were brought up by their parents. Generally no problems.
T8	They treat each other correctly. No mocking. They are aware of the fact that speaking English is a competence on different levels, just like math for example.
T9	It depends on the class (the specific learner group). The T encourages the Ls to correct each other (take on the T's role), it is a sign that they are listening to each other. Sometimes mocking occurs, T always reacts, but one can not always react fast enough. When T calls up a L with poor speaking skills, the other Ls focus on help.
T10	It depends on the class (the specific learner group). Mostly no mocking, but it does happen. The T reacts to mocking.
T11	It depends on the class (the specific learner group). When mocking occurs, the T has to solve the problem.
T12	They are mostly correct, but when it occasionally does happen, the T reacts.
T13	It depends on the class (the specific learner group). The T reacts when mocking occurs. They can probably be taught not to mock each other.
T14	Mocking Ls with a poor speaking skill occurs, but those who mock do not have a better speaking skill either. Ls with good speaking skills help those who are not so good.
T15	Most Ls have rather poor speaking skills, so they do not mock each other, they try to help each other. Isolated cases of mocking.

When asked about the attitude learners have toward a colleague who has rather poor speaking skills, the teachers report that there are some instances where mocking occurs, but they all react to it and try to prevent it from happening, as can be seen from Table 6. Some teachers say that mocking is more connected to the character of the particular learner than to his/her speaking skill. One of the teachers (T8) says that her learners know that speaking a language is a

competence on different levels, just like any other skill, and that her learners do not mock each other. In my opinion, this is a very good strategy for avoiding mocking among learners, but it would be good if it were introduced at the beginning of the course, not when mocking already gets out of hand. A very interesting point is made by one teacher (T14): she says that those learners who mock others for having a poor speaking skill are not much more better themselves, whereas those who have better speaking skills do not mock, but help learners with poor speaking skills. This could be interpreted in the way that the learners with poor speaking skills also have low self-confidence and try to compensate by making fun of others. The learners with better speaking skills have a healthy level of self-confidence and therefore they have no need for making fun of others. This is a situation which can easily be projected into the world of adults, because they sometimes behave in the same way. In contrast of this situation, another teacher (T2) reports that her learners all have poor speaking skills and that they do not mock each other, but help each other for the same reason. Maybe this is because there are no learners with good speaking skills, so the others do not have anybody to compare themselves to, so there is no lack of self-confidence and therefore no mocking. Another teacher (T9) also reports that her learners focus on helping a learner rather than mocking him, although there are all kinds of learners in the classroom. This is one of the teachers who defines and discusses rules of conduct in the classroom at the beginning of every school year and she reported that one of those rules is that making fun of others (for any reason) is forbidden. It is logical to assume that these two things are connected and that the strategy of defining and discussing rules works in this case. Most of the interviews show that cases of mocking are isolated and that teachers react to it when it happens. What is also emphasized by the teachers in this part of the interview is that the behaviour of the learners depends on the class, i. e. the specific learner group.

Table 7: Participants' answers to interview question 7

	(7) What kind of relationship do Your students have concerning their speaking skill?
T1	No competition. Only a few Ls want to show off their skill. It is normal for them to cooperate during speaking activities.
T2	Cooperation in the sense that they work together for a passing grade. No competition at all (positive nor negative).
T3	They help each other in speaking activities (but they do not give each other enough time to think of the answer). The T has to emphasize that only one L should speak at a time.
T4	Mostly they help each other. There are fractions in the classroom, the T tries to break them up through groupwork (that way they talk more in English, but they talk less altogether).
T5	They help each other (correct each other, explain unknown words to each other).
T6	They like tasks involving competition (in these activities they are not aware that they are learning). There are a few Ls who work together, but also 5-6 Ls, who do not want to cooperate in any way.
T7	Competition exists, but Ls are not aware of it. There are Ls who have better speaking skills than the others, so they tend to speak more in the classroom (they always have sth to say). The Ls are too young to be aware of the fact that they take up the time of others. Helping each other – in the sense of error correction.
T8	A certain amount of competition does exist, but it is not negative. Competition in a positive way, to help raise the level of motivation. The Ls with better speaking skills like to talk more. Competition in the sense of outdoing each other with ideas and opinions.
T9	Almost no competition. The T likes a relaxed atmosphere.
T10	Competition and cooperation, depending on the class. Competition mostly in a positive sense.
T11	It depends on the class (the specific learner group). Positive competition.
T12	Some Ls do not talk at all. Positive competition.
T13	No competition. They help each other.
T14	No competition. A few Ls with very good speaking skills, the others have very poor speaking skills.
T15	No competition. Most of the Ls prefer not to talk much. Small number of Ls with good speaking skills, who always want to participate in speaking activities (those Ls have a good pre-knowledge, a positive attitude towards L2, intrinsic motivation and interest and they use L2 outside the classroom).

One of the strategies discussed in the interviews is creating a cooperative atmosphere in the classroom. As table 7 shows, the teachers say that cooperation is normal in the classroom, but they sometimes do not let each other finish their sentences and think the answer through. A teacher (T4) says that there are fractions in the classroom, but that she tries to break them up in group work and build up cooperation. Only a few learners want to show off their speaking skill and are competitive in that sense. But there are also learners (with a better speaking skill) who tend to speak more in the classroom because they always have something to say, not because they want to show off their speaking skill. A teacher (T7) explains that those learners are just too

young to realize that they are taking up the speaking time of others. This teacher says that a certain amount of competition exists, but that the learners are not aware of it, as illustrated by her example of learners who always have something to say. Learners like competitive tasks, but these also promote team work in the sense that the learners work in a group to achieve a certain goal. These are especially popular with primary school learners. One primary school teacher (T9) says that she does not like it when learners are competing, on the contrary, she likes a relaxed atmosphere where there is no pressure of who is going to be better. Personally, I support her view, especially because she is dealing with children who still need to shape their personality traits, one of which is self-confidence, an important trait in mastering a foreign language. Some teachers make an interesting distinction between positive or healthy competition and negative competition. A teacher (T8) also says that a healthy level of competition helps to raise the level of motivation. She also says that in her class there is competition, but not in terms of the speaking skill, it is in terms of outdoing one another with ideas and opinions. As in some other questions, this depends on the specific learner group.

Table 8: Participants' answers to interview question 8

	(8) How do You deal with anxious students?
T1	The speaking should not be announced to the anxious L („Now you speak"). The anxious student should be put in a situation where he has to speak indirectly, so that he/she is not so self-conscious. „You trick him/her into it".
T2	Giving subquestions. Giving praise.
T3	The T calls up 3-4 Ls before the anxious L, so that he/she is not that afraid and knows how to answer. The T tries to avoid situations in which the anxious L would be embarrased. The T cannot tolerate it forever, she tries to help the L in overcoming his/her fear. The T tells the L to write his/her answer down before he/she speaks.
T4	The T calls up anxious Ls if they do not volunteer at all; everbody has to talk in the classroom.
T5	Talk to the L individually if the level of anxiety is very high. Help the L overcome the problem.
T6	The T does not insist if the L does not want to speak. The T talks to the L individually. The T tries to help the L overcome his/her fear. When there are problems with oral testing, the T concentrates on the other skills.
T7	The T has to recognise the problem in the beginning. Call up the L in such a way, that he/she is not aware he/she is being called up to speak. After a certain period of time, progress can be seen, it does not happen over night. In every class there is such a L, even excellent Ls are sometimes anxious.
T8	Every T comes across a L like that. Not everybody is a born speaker, it is a mark of character of a child or adult. When the level is high, T tests his/her speaking skills, while the other Ls are doing some other task. Before this step, T tries to help the L. Asking this L questions with short answers, then moving on to more difficult speaking activities, so that the level of anxiety gradually falls. Such Ls can be helped.
T9	There are such Ls. They do not volunteer, so the T asks these Ls to participate only in speaking activities which are easy enough for them. A lot of praise and a minimum amount of criticism.
T10	There are such Ls. The T tries to call up every L during a class, everyone has to say sth. Such Ls could be helped, if there was enough time, one is always pressed with time.
T11	There are such Ls. They should be given more time. Individual approach. There are Ls who have good grades, but a poor speaking skill. On the other hand, there are those who speak quite well, but have a poor writing skill. The solving of this problem depends on the time the T is willing to sacrifice.
T12	When grading, T should always start with a joke, or a conversation. They should be given more time. The solving of this problem depends on the time the T is willing to sacrifice. In a big classroom it is almost impossible to help these Ls because of the lack of time, but in a smaller learner group it is easier to help.
T13	Such Ls are rare. Individual approach. Those who have poor speaking skills compensate with writing. The T tries to help these Ls, but they can only be helped if they want to. Anxiety vs. aptitude (the T says that there are more Ls who are not talented for speaking). Those Ls can be helped by letting them speak in small groups, not in front of the whole class.
T14	Those Ls are not required to speak as much. The T encourages them to focus on writing and creative work, but helpes also them to acquire the basic communicative competence.

T15	A high number of anxious Ls (not only towards speaking L2, but also L1). The T tries not to make the anxiety any worse by critisizing them too much. Easier tasks for those Ls, the harder ones for the better Ls. The T tries to help. The T tells every new generation that nobody will and should mock them, that a foreign language is learnt all life long, that nobody is perfect, that teachers use dictionaries too, etc.

All teachers report cases of anxious learners, only one of them says that those learners are very rare. As Table 8 shows, teachers generally try to help the anxious learner to overcome their fear of speaking, because everyone has to speak in the language classroom. Teachers do not rush the anxious learners into speaking, they give them easier tasks and avoid situations which would embarrasse them. Sometimes, when the level of anxiety is very high, there is a need to speak to the learner individually. This means that the anxious learner will not be orally tested in front of the whole class, but when the rest of the class is doing something else. Some anxious learners are learners with poor speaking skills, but sometimes the fear is unfounded, and even excellent learners seem to be having problems with speaking anxiety. One teacher (T7) accentuates that it is the teacher's job to identify those learners at the beginning of the course and help them gradually. Progress is then observable as years pass, not over night. Some teachers said that helping these learners depends on the time and effort the teacher is willing to spend, but as opposed to that view, a teacher says that whether or not the learners will overcome the anxiety depends on them. In my opinion, it is the cooperation between teacher and learner and the effort both of them make that gives results in this matter. An interesting opinion that comes up in some interviews is that not everybody is a born speaker. This would mean that although a learner tries hard to make his/her speaking skill better, he/she cannot succeed because he/she just is not a born speaker. Personally, I do not believe that to be true, because it is motivation that makes the difference, even for the learners with no aptitude. The learners could perceive this as a label. Maybe the label was never said out loud, but learners are probably aware of much more than we give them credit for. Still, all the teachers try to help these learners. Beside giving the anxious learners easier tasks, teachers also help them by giving them more time for tasks and lowering the level of criticism to a minimum. A teacher (T12) also says that oral testing of those learners should begin with a conversation or a joke to make the learner more relaxed. A teacher (T14) says that when a learner is anxious when it comes to speaking activities, she lets him/her compensate with writing, so that the grade is still good. In a way, this is a good thing, because it takes the pressure off the learner, but there is also the other side of the coin – the learner will concentrate on the writing skill to get a good grade and the speaking skill will be ignored. One more thing that I perceive in a negative way is a view of one teacher (T14) who says that anxious learners are not required to speak as much. The whole point is to help the learner overcome

his/her fear so that he/she is able to gradually speak more and more in the second language classroom. This cannot happen if the learner does not have to speak. The learner can interpret this as ”OK, you are not that good, so you do not have to speak as much, let the good ones speak“, which can only lower his/her motivational level and make him/her feel labelled. A teacher (T15) with a class that has a majority of learners with a poor speaking skill, who are therefore reluctant to speak, says that she repeats over and over to her learners that nobody will and should mock them, that a foreign language is learnt all life long, that nobody is perfect, that teachers use dictionaries too and so on.

Evidently, there are some problems with helping anxious learners. Some teachers say that it is possible to help anxious learner, but if there were more time and if the groups were smaller. Many times there is no time left after the teacher does all that has to be done during class, and even if there is, not every learner can be approached individually, because the group is just too big.

Table 9: Participants' answers to interview question 9

	(9) What is Your opinion on promoting contact with native speakers?
T1	The Ls can contact native speakers on their own easier (through skype, facebook, etc.). It is better for them to have contact with native speakers in real life than in the classroom. It is very useful. Motivate those who are not likely to contact native speakers on their own.
T2	Ls are not interested. The obstacle of money.
T3	Contact with native speakers can be arranged, but most of the work falls on the T, the school system does not help. Visits from native speakers not very frequent. More contact with Germans.
T4	Encourage Ls to talk to native speakers through Skype, etc. Sometimes native speakers are brought to the faculty. It is very useful and Ts work on arranging it as often as possible.
T5	Native speakers are very rarely guests of the school. It is very useful and Ts work on arranging it as often as possible. The school system does not do much to help arranging contact with native speakers. More contact with Germans. If a L goes to America (the school has a programme) he/she goes to the classrooms and answers the other Ls' questions.
T6	No contact with native speakers in school. It is useful for the Ls. The T encourages them to contact native speakers through skype, facebook, etc.
T7	Any kind of contact with native speakers is welcome (a band, theatre). If native speakers are in town, Ts try to bring them to school and encourage Ls to come and listen to them. Most of the work connected with getting natives to come to school falls on the T, the school system does not help. The T raises awareness about different types of English in her classroom. Summer school of English – a native speaker will give 30 lectures (45min) in 5 days, to show how courses of English look like in England.
T8	Contact with native speakers rarely happens. Substitution: watching movies, youtube, etc. Children are exposed to English, but this is not enough. The school system does not help in anything. Everything that is outside the national curriculum (projects, field trips, visits from native speakers), the Ts have to do on their own.
T9	It is possible and there should be as much contact as possible. The T brings Ss from a faculty, which are native speakers. Ls should be exposed to a lot of contact with native speakers, not only because of the speaking skill, but also because of the cultural differences.
T10	The T remebers only one instance of contact with native speakers. A native speaker talked about British culture and food, better Ls were picked out to listen and speak to him. Contact with natives is important and there should be more of it. The school system is not helping to solve the issue, maybe because of lack of money. Not much more contact with native speakers of German.
T11	Contact with native speakers very rare, because it is expensive. All the work falls on the T.
T12	Contact with native speakers very rare, because it is expensive. The T says that the people in the American embassy are willing to come give a lecture, still, too little contact. All the work falls on the T, he/she has to give up his/her free time, the school system does not help.
T13	It requires a lot of the T's extra time. It is hard to squeeze it into the curriculum. Not all Ls are interested in contact with native speakers. If they are interested, modern technology makes it possible.

T14	The T is in favor of promoting contact with native speakers. It can be made possible (not often, but sometimes), in form of seminars. contact with native speakers would be a valuable experience for Ls.
T15	The possibility of contact with natives would be ideal. In the form of real speaking, contact is very hard to achieve, only in form of student exchange programmes, but a small of Ls would be potential candidates. The T therefore encourages the Ls to at least have a „pen pall" on the internet (Skype, etc.) – only a few Ls do that, but they have far better speaking skills than the others. The T thinks that it is unrealistic to believe that the situation will change for the better, because of the economic crisis we are in. The situation is better with German as a foreign language, because we are closer to Austria, Germany and Switzerland, the Ls have families and relatives there, and it is cheaper to get there. The T thinks that a good speaking skill can be formed in regular class, without contact to native speakers, because the Ls are already exposed to English in everyday life. The answer lies in intrinsic motivation: what is important to have a good speaking skill is interest in the foreign language. If Ls think that they do not need the language, no strategies work.

When it comes to contact with native speakers in terms of having a real conversation with a native speaker, the results show that it is not very frequent, as seen in Table 9. The obstacles the teachers face when trying to arrange contact will be discussed in the second part of the discussion. Some of the examples of contact are a summer school of English held by a British person (arranged solely by the teachers of English of that particular school) and a teacher, who, besides working in a primary school, also works at a college, where she has a native speaker student and she asks her to come to her class.

Contact with native speakers of English is hard to arrange. All teachers agree that contact with native speakers is good for the speaking skill, but all the work for arranging contact falls on the teacher and the school system does not help. The reason that the school system is not encouraging and promoting contact with native speakers, as some teachers claim, is that there is just not enough money for that sort of activity. It is hard for the teachers to bring native speakers to class, so it happens rarely. One teacher (T11) points out the fact that visits of native speakers are not part of the national curriculum, and everything outside the national curriculum, like projects and field trips, falls exclusively on the backs of the teachers. If something like that is going to be arranged for the learners, we as teachers need to be willing to sacrifice our own private time to make it happen.

Real contact is hard to achieve because of one more reason that a teacher has pointed out, and that is the difficulty of squeezing it into the curriculum. Also, not all the learners are interested in contacting native speakers. A teacher says that it is unrealistic to believe that things are going to get better in the future, because of the economic crisis we are in. And it is quite

logical to believe that the school system is not going to get better if the country is in a state of depression.

In spite of these obstacles, substitution for real contact is available. Some teachers say that any kind of contact with native speakers is welcome, whether it is a band playing in town, watching a movie or simply using the internet as a substitiution. So they encourage the learners to use Skype, Facebook, etc. for the purpose. Here we have to make a distinction between contact with native speakers in written and spoken form, since this research has its focus on the speaking skill. Maybe some of the learners really do use their web cameras to speak to a native speaker, but they are probably rare. The learners who have any kind of contact with a native speaker through the internet also seem to be rare. The fact that not everybody has an internet connection at home, let alone a web camera, has to be taken into account as well. This kind of contact is rarely initiated by the learner alone, it has to be encouraged by the teacher, and not every teacher does that. In spite of all that, one has to take what one can get, because some kind of substitution for real contact with natives in the spoken form has to be possible. One teacher says that she always brings learners who were in America to talk to the other learners and answer their questions. That is what Dörnyei calls ”peer role models“. A teacher (T15) gives an interesting opinion:

> ”Osobno smatram da se relativno dobro znanje jezika može postići i tijekom redovnog školovanja, ako se ulaže i konstantan osobni napor. Danas su učenici toliko izloženi engleskom jeziku preko televizije, glazbe i interneta, da čak i da žele ne mogu ga izbjeći. Pitanje je samo s koliko interesa pristupaju jeziku, koriste li te situacije da nešto nauče, ili ne. Ako učenici imaju stav da njima strani jezik ne treba, ili im neće trebati u životu (što nije rijedak slučaj), onda sve metode i načini koje mi u nastavi stranih jezika primjenjujemo nemaju plodno tlo, i rezultati su lošiji.“

This is of course true, but maybe the contact with native speakers could help raise the intrinsic motivation. Nobody can dispute the fact that promoting contact with native speakers is indeed good for the speaking skill of the learners.

5. Conclusion

There are a number of ways of motivating students to participate more in speaking activities. A lot of these strategies are used by the participants in a positive way, but there are also a few restrictions in our school system. For example, the teachers mostly stick to the topics from the course book because they have to follow the curriculum. Also, more native speakers would come to our schools if the government helped. Two more restrictions teacher are faced with are the rigid seating arrangements and the sizes of the groups. Some of the strategies are not used in the way Dörnyei explains them, which does not mean that teachers failed in that sense. For example, Dörnyei says that rules should be cleary defined, discussed with the teacher and displayed in the classroom, so that they can always be pointed to. There should also be some sort of punishment for those who do not obey them (including the teacher). This strategy is not used by the majority of the participants, but they still recognize and react to unacceptable behaviour. In some cases, there is no need to use a certain strategy. Strategies are used differently by every teacher in their learner groups, so that it is difficult to talk about strategies that apply to every single classroom. Of course, there is a lot of potential behind these strategies, and they indeed may help to generate more participation in speaking activities, but they have to be thought through by every teacher for his/her specific classroom. Not only is every learner group different, but every learner is different, and this has to be taken into account when choosing and modifying strategies. Also, every generation is different when compared to the previous one, and as such deserves a different approach. Every participant of this research is aware of that. The teachers are open to suggestions and they know that they can always learn something new. The following is a quote that illustrates how complex and inconstant motivation is.

> ”The real problem with motivation, of course, is that everyone is looking for a single and simple answer. Teachers search for one pedagogy that, when exercised, will make all students want to do their homework, come in for after-school help, and score well on their tests and report cards. Unfortunatey, and realistically, motivating students yesterday, today and tomorrow will never be a singular process.“
> (Scheidecker and Freeman, 1999:117)

In spite of the fact that the motivational strategies analysed in this research work differently in different environments, they are still very good strategies worth trying out. They can be modified to suit a specific learner group, but in order to do that, a teacher has to to know

the learner group very well. In conclusion, one could say that the teachers should be given more freedom and autonomy to adjust their second language courses. The majority of the teachers are not satisfied with the way the school system works, and would be glad if some of the restrictions were to be removed. For them, this would result in better conditions in the second language classroom and more motivational strategies (for the speaking skill and for other skills as well) could be used. For example, if there were more time and if the groups were smaller, more learners could be approached individually and the level of motivation could be hightened. All the teachers interviewed in this research have a broad knowledge about all kinds of motivational strategies, but they sometimes simply do not have the means to carry them out.

Finally, the analysis of the data received in this study has provided us with som insight which could be taken into consideration by future teachers of English, as well as practicing teachers of English as a foreign language. The following is a brief compilation of suggestions for the English language classroom, i. e. motivational strategies for speaking activities:

- speaking activities should be varied;
- pair work and role-play are better than group work for speaking activities, because that way, each learner has to speak;
- learners learn better if the aim of the activity is explained to them;
- speaking activities should be an integral part of every lesson;
- the topics for speaking activities should reflect the learners' age, interests and personal lives;
- the teacher should get familiar with the learners' interests to be able to choose the topics accordingly
- the feedback about the learners' speaking skill should be informal (objective information on the speaking skill), both positive and negative;
- rules for speaking activities should be clearly defined, especially at an early age;
- rules of conduct in the language classroom should be clearly defined, as well as consequences for violating them, which are then reflected upon speaking activities;
- learners speak in English more when they are given a chance to rehearse what they are going to say;

- learners have to be made aware that language learning is a process where each learner is at a different stage and mocking learners with a poorer speaking skill is not allowed;
- error correction should be appropriate and in correlation with the aim of the activity;
- the learners should generally have a cooperative relationship, although some sorts of competition can have a positive effect on motivation;
- learners with a higher level of anxiety should be consistently and gradually helped by the teacher, both individually and in class;
- contact with native speakers of English is invaluable in the development of the speaking skill, and when no real contact can be achieved (in form of speaking), a substitution can be used (modern technology).

Finally, I must add a personal note. Since I have started teaching English in the meantime, I have had an opportunity to check if the guidelines are effective in the practice. I have found that these strategies are indeed very useful and can be applied successfully. However, I have also learned that success should not be expected immediately and that consistency is very important in the application of motivational strategies for speaking as well as other activities.

6. Appendix

Interview questions

1. What kinds of speaking activities do you use? Which are your favorites and which your students' favorites?
2. Where do the topics for speaking activities come from?
3. What kind of feedback do you give your students for their speaking skill?
4. What rules do you have for speaking activities? Who developed them?
5. How do you correct mistakes in speaking activities?
6. How do your students treat a colleague with a rather poor speaking skill?
7. What kind of relationship do your students have concerning their speaking skill?
8. How do you deal with anxious students?
9. What is your opinion on promoting contact with native speakers?

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