

Raquel Sánchez Ruiz

Universidad de Castilla-La Mancha
Raquel.SanchezRuiz@uclm.es

Strategies and Resources for the Acquisition and Learning of Communicative Competence in the Foreign Language

Abstract. The *European Recommendation on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning* (2006) advocates communication in both the mother tongue and the foreign language as an essential learning strategy for citizens in a knowledge-based society. In Spanish education, linguistic competence has been widely developed and researched. However, the *Common European Framework of Reference* divides communicative competence into linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic subcompetences. Considering this, the aim of the present paper is to provide strategies and resources to develop these three subcompetences in the foreign language and content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms. The results will allow both teachers and learners to know which aspects speakers of foreign languages must master if they want to become communicatively competent.

Keywords: communicative competence; linguistics; sociolinguistics; pragmatics; foreign languages; learning; *Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR).

Introduction

Learning a first—and even a second—foreign language has become a priority in this globalised world at both the European and national levels. 2001, the European Year of Languages marked the beginning of different plans, strategies and reference documents for the teaching and learning of foreign languages, including the creation of the *Common European*

Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the *European Language Portfolio* (ELP). This also had an impact on the Spanish Education System at all stages. While bilingual education had previously been promoted through the agreement between the Ministry of Education and the British Council in 1996, in 2002 some regional governments decided to introduce a first foreign language to the curriculum of the second cycle of Early Childhood Education and the first cycle of Primary Education. Thus, English is studied along the whole stage of compulsory education. Later, in 2005, European Sections were created for non-university studies (Early Childhood, Primary, Secondary and Upper Secondary Education as well as Vocational Training). Here, apart from their English classes, pupils study content subjects in a foreign language. In 2011, they became Bilingual Sections and, since 2014, they were called Linguistic Programmes. Moreover, in 2017, centres could not only be bilingual if they taught different content subjects in a foreign language, but also plurilingual if they included two foreign languages. Foreign languages are also important at university, since the introduction of the new Degrees in 2008 obliges students to certify a B1 level in any European foreign language to obtain their diploma.

The *European Recommendation on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning* (2006) advocates communication in both one's mother tongue and a foreign language as an essential learning strategy for citizens in a knowledge-based society. Teachers, especially in Spain, have traditionally focused on the development of linguistic competence; in fact, research has also typically delved into it (Ariffin & Husin, 2011; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1995; House & Lèvy-Tödter, 2010; Morell et al., 2014; Várkuti, 2010, just to cite a few examples). However, the CEFR divides communicative competence into linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic subcompetences. Under these premises and considering that the sociolinguistic and pragmatic subcompetences have not been exploited enough for the teaching and learning of foreign languages (Celce-Murcia, 2007; Damen, 1987; Eisenchlas, 2011; Romero Gualda, 2006; or Taguchi, 2014), the aim of this paper is to provide strategies and resources to develop the abovementioned three subcompetences in both a foreign language and content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms.

Theoretical Framework

The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001) defines competence

as “the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions” (p. 9). This document divides competences into: a) *general competences*, which are not specific to language, but “are called upon for actions of all kinds, including language activities”; and b) *communicative language competences*, “which empower a person to act using specifically linguistic means”. Thus, the latter are general capacities including linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.

For its part, the *European Recommendation on Key Competences* makes a difference between *competence* and *key competence*. Whereas the former is “a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context”, the latter “are those which all individuals need for personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social cohesion and employability in a knowledge society” (The European Parliament and the Council of the European Union, 2006, p. 13). Moreover, as this Recommendation claims (2006, p. 11), key competences do not only “improve educational attainment levels” but also equip youngsters for adult life as they constitute “a basis for further learning and working life”. This document (2006, p. 13) establishes eight key competences: communication in one’s mother tongue, communication in foreign languages, mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology, digital competence, learning to learn, social and civic competences, sense of initiative and entrepreneurship and cultural awareness and expression.

Communication in foreign languages is very similar to communication in one’s mother tongue, as both are “based on the ability to understand, express and interpret concepts, thoughts, feelings, facts and opinions in both oral and written forms (...) in an appropriate range of societal and cultural contexts” (The European Parliament and the Council of the European Union, 2006, p. 14). This entails five different skills (listening, speaking, oral interaction, reading and writing) and three subcompetences (linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic). Thus, to master a foreign language, the learner does not only need vocabulary and functional grammar, but also an awareness of types of verbal interaction and registers, societal conventions, the cultural aspect and variability of languages (The European Parliament and the Council of the European Union, 2006, p. 14).

The Spanish Act of Education, LOMCE, calls the key competence referring to the acquisition and learning of foreign languages *competence in linguistic communication*, which is associated to the pupils’ degree in the mastery of skills, capacities and abilities regarding oral and written expression and comprehension (Jefatura del Estado, 2013, p. 97872).

Concerning strategies to manage and control foreign language learning, Taguchi (2014, p. 478) propounds three meta-strategies: meta-cognitive strategies, dealing with the construction, transformation and application of L2 knowledge; meta-affective strategies, consisting in being aware of and managing affect to create positive emotions and attitudes and be motivated; and meta-sociocultural/interactive strategies or managing contexts, communication and culture in interactions.

Communicative competence

In this paper, communicative competence is understood as defined by the CEFR; that is, divided into linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic subcompetences. However, it must be noted that other authors—Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell, (1995) or Griffin (2005)¹, among others—have defined and classified this competence differently along history. Others, such as Panfilova, Panfilov, Gazizova, and Samarina (2017), delimit the concept for language teachers and coin the term professional communicative foreign language competence, with its corresponding subcompetences (linguistic, discursive, colloquial, pragmatic, information-technological, strategic, sociocultural and personal-creative).

Linguistic subcompetences. In the CEFR, linguistic competences—which are never complete or exhaustively defined due to the constant change of languages in use²—are “defined as knowledge of, and ability to use, the formal resources from which well-formed, meaningful messages may be assembled and formulated” (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, p. 109); and include the following competences at the

¹ Canale and Swain (1980) divided communicative competence in terms of assessment into strategic (including metacognitive strategies), grammatical and sociolinguistic. In 1983, the former included the discourse competence. Later, Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1995), with a pedagogical perspective, added the actional competence and changed Canale and Swain’s sociolinguistic competence for sociocultural and the grammatical one for linguistic competence. Griffin (2005) established three subcompetences within the communicative competence: organisational, pragmatic and strategic. To see the chronological evolution of the communicative competence, see Celce-Murcia (2007, pp. 43–44), who eventually added the formulaic and interactional competences, and Takkaç Tulgar (2016, pp. 12–13).

² Despite nations’ attempt “to establish a standard form of the language” (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, p. 109), linguists usually reject models based on prescriptive grammar, since they do not consider aspects that are essential in communication, such as the context. This is why it is better to adopt a descriptive approach to grammar.

same time: lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic.

Lexical competence is the “knowledge of, and ability to use, the vocabulary of a language, consist[ing] of lexical elements and grammatical elements” (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, p. 110). The former include fixed expressions (sentential formulae, phrasal idioms, fixed frames and phrases—mainly, phrasal verbs and compound prepositions—and fixed collocations) and single-word forms, that is, open word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and the phrases they may form). Contrariwise, grammatical elements are formed by closed word classes, like articles, quantifiers, demonstratives, personal pronouns, question words and relatives, possessives, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, conjunctions and particles.

Grammatical competence is the “knowledge of, and ability to use, the grammatical resources of a language [...] as opposed to memorising and reproducing them as fixed formulae” (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 112–113), whose organisation involves elements, categories, classes, structures, processes and relations.

Semantic competence “deals with the learner’s awareness and control or the organisation of meaning”, and entails lexical, grammatical and pragmatic semantics. Lexical semantics is connected with the relation between a word, general context (reference, connotation and exponence of general specific notions) and interlexical relations (synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, collocation, part-whole relations, componential analysis and translation equivalence). Grammatical semantics “deals with the meaning of grammatical elements, categories, structures and processes”. Pragmatic semantics “deals with logical relations such as entailment, presupposition, implicature, etc.” (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 115–116).

Phonological competence is recognising and producing: sound units (phonemes) “and their realisation in particular contexts (allophones)”; distinctive features like voicing, rounding, nasality and plosion; the phonetic composition of words—including “syllable structure, the sequence of phonemes, word stress, word tones”—prosody (rhythm, stress and intonation) and phonetic reduction, that is, vowel reduction, strong and weak forms, assimilation and elision (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 116–117).

Orthographic competence deals with the perception and production of the symbols composing written texts, and is related to the form of letters

in upper and lower case, spelling—including contractions—punctuation marks, typographical conventions and different fonts and frequent logographic signs.

Finally, *orthoepic* competence is linked to the correct pronunciation of written forms and covers spelling conventions, the use of dictionaries for pronunciation purposes, the implications of written forms—especially punctuation marks—for phrasing and intonation, and the ability to resolve ambiguity with the help of the context.

Sociolinguistic subcompetences. As “language is a sociocultural phenomenon”, this competence is associated “with the social dimension of language use”; that is, “linguistic markers of social relations; politeness conventions; expressions of folk-wisdom; register differences; and dialect and accent” (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, p. 118). According to the CEFR (2001, p. 119), *linguistic markers* include the use and choice of greetings, address forms and expletives as well as the conventions for turntaking. *Politeness conventions* depend on cultures, and so are essential when learning a language since they “are a frequent source of inter-ethnic misunderstanding, especially when polite expressions are literally interpreted” (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, p. 119). These include positive politeness, such as showing interest, sharing concerns or expressing gratitude, and negative politeness, like avoiding face loss, expressing regret, using euphemism or apologising, along with the appropriate use of expressions like ‘thank you’, ‘please’ and so on, and deliberate impoliteness. This Framework defines *expressions of folk wisdom* as relevant, fixed formulae for popular culture, such as idioms, proverbs, familiar quotations and expressions of belief and attitudes (including clichés). Context and register are essential to understand how language is organised and both are interrelated since “contextually-related factors determine the degree of formality in language use and therefore the register” (Crespo-Fernández, 2016, p. 45), which is the “varieties of language used in different contexts” (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, p. 120). Depending on the level of formality, registers may be classified as follows: frozen, formal, neutral, informal, familiar and intimate³. Finally, *dialect and accent*

³ Crespo-Fernández (2016, pp. 45–46) categorises registers differently from the CEFR: formal, which includes academic and scientific language; standard, which is the type FL teachers and the media use; conversational or colloquial, for casual conversation and familiar situations as well as “non-standard” English; and slang, which shows solidarity within a group forming a private code.

cover the impact on language of social class, regional provenance, national origin, ethnicity, occupational group and educational level, all of which are identifiable through particular markers like lexicon, grammar, phonology, vocal characteristics, paralinguistics, and body language (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, p. 121).

Pragmatic subcompetences. These subcompetences are closely related to the previous ones; in fact, Celce-Murcia (2007, p. 46) refers to sociocultural competence as the speaker's pragmatic knowledge allowing them to express messages considering social contextual factors, stylistic appropriateness (including politeness), and cultural factors, such as dialects and regional differences. Teaching pragmatics "is crucial for healthy communication because the lack of it can result in communication breakdowns" with severe consequences (Takkaç Tülgar, 2016, p. 14).

In the CEFR (2001, p. 123), pragmatic competences are divided into discourse, functional, and design competences. *Discourse competence* is related to the organisation and structure of messages "so as to produce coherent stretches of language" regarding the ordering of sentences according to the topic, time, thematic organisation, coherence, cohesion, style, register, and rhetorical effectiveness, among others. This also includes *text design* or the conventions which structure texts to meet their macrofunctions (e.g. description, narrative, etc.). *Functional competence* includes not only the microfunctions of language forms (imparting and seeking factual information, expressing and finding out attitudes, suasion, socialising, structuring discourse, and communication repair), but interaction and macrofunctions as well, examples being description, narration, argumentation and persuasion among others along with interaction schemata or patterns of social interaction (Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 125–126).

Strategies and resources to develop communicative competence

Linguistic subcompetences. Different strategies and resources can be used to practice lexical competence. For example, Flo Joe's webpage offers A2⁴- and B1-level vocabulary practice by including quizzes classified according to a main topic and offering useful links and study tips. For B2, C1 and C2 levels, there is a section called Word Bank to learn a different

⁴ The following Cambridge exams correspond to these CEFR's levels: KET is A2; PET, B1; FCE, B2; CAE, C1; and CPE, C2.

phrasal verb, or collocation every day and to practice word formation. IELTS Speaking provides learners with two sections: splendid expressions for collocations, fixed expressions, and idioms; and each week's Topic vocabulary, for phrases, idioms and collocations related to a main topic, such as advertising, shopping or accommodation, among many others. Pictures by James Chapman allow a very interesting way to explain idioms and sayings by comparing them—and onomatopoeias, translations, titles of series and films and so on—in different cultures and languages. Although not limited to the use of language, History Hustle devotes some posts to the use of words, idioms and expressions such as insults coined by Shakespeare, slang terms used in daily conversation in particular years, decades or centuries, or historical words, among others. Dictionaries like online Merriam Webster include sections such as Word of the Day, Words of the Day quizzes, Word of the Year and Trending Now to enlarge one's own vocabulary; a thesaurus to learn collocations, synonyms and antonyms; and games. Some examples are Name that Thing, a quiz to identify the name of an image among four options; How Strong is your Vocabulary, a quiz to choose the synonym of a given word among four options; and Spell it, a test in which a word is spelled out and used in an example where the listener has to complete the gaps with the correct option. Applications like Duolingo, Babel, Busuu or Memrise may be employed to learn vocabulary, useful expressions and collocations for particular communicative situations. Traditional games, such as Scrabble—or online versions like Merriam Webster's—or AngryWords allow learners to practise word formation and memorise words. Obviously, reference materials and books—like Clarke's (2010), which offers both tips and recommendations and suggested activities to learn idioms and collocations—are sources of a wide range of techniques and material to deal with this subcompetence.

Traditional reference materials, including grammar books, also contribute to the teaching and learning of grammatical competence. However, teachers must also make use of different ways of approaching grammar; for instance, through music. Isard and Vivas Tesón (2016) have designed 55 lessons covering different grammar topics based on iconic British songs. Not only are the chosen artists and bands a motivating aspect, but the inclusion of interesting facts and anecdotes makes learning more engaging. Lyricstraining also appeals to learners, since it offers a wide variety of songs and bands categorised into three levels of difficulty. Moreover, students can distinguish the accent of the artist from the indication flag and can play under four levels of difficulty (beginner, intermediate, advanced, and expert). The

aim is to fill in the gaps—10%, 25%, 50% or 100% of the words respectively of the lyrics—in a specific time set.

Other strategies include making students aware of grammar rules and the importance of parts of speech and practising particular exercises. For example, the abovementioned Flo Joe's webpage allows learners to reflect on word formation according to grammatical structures. The teacher can also create open-cloze texts—with HotPotatoes software—with authentic materials from magazines or newspapers to focus on specific constructions or make students play games to fix grammar structures.

Regarding semantic competence, some of the strategies and resources mentioned above develop it. For instance, the notion of connotation can be dealt with Pictures by James Chapman; synonyms and antonyms with dictionaries and thesaurus, and even pages like History Hustle; and collocations with both online and reference materials and games. Other strategies include making students reflect on part-whole relations—which may include the analysis of figurative language, especially metonymy, idioms included, at more advanced levels—and working on translation equivalents. For the latter, and considering that communication should be based on authentic materials, the teacher can work with webpages which are already in two or more languages and compare them (e.g. Pictoline, BuzzFeed and even Wikipedia, among others). Pragmatic semantics can be worked on by analysing implicatures, presupposition, for example, by examining jokes, double entendres, humorous posts and statements, and ambiguity. Fostering critical thinking is of paramount importance in the foreign language or CLIL class. Some useful resources that serve to develop pragmatic semantics are SomeeCards, Illustrated Cynism or Kurland (1995).

For developing phonological competence, apart from some of the resources mentioned before—like Lyricstraining, which help learners fix and remember pronunciation with the aid of music—reciting poems, rhymes and limerics allows learners to be acquainted with the effect of phonology in the mastery of a language. Learners must also be aware of the difference between stress-timed languages (e.g. English) and syllable-timed languages (e.g. Spanish). Teachers, thus, must use different authentic materials in class so as to show the wide range of dialectal varieties of English. Examples of such materials include varied channels, networks and radio stations (e.g. BBC, CNN, CBS, DD News, ABC Australia, Australia Plus TV or CBC Television among others) or videos, recordings or podcasts featuring learners' favourite bands, actors or celebrities.

Finally, for orthographic and orthoepic competences, aside from traditional writing exercises, synthetic or blended phonics methods, or some of the previous resources (e.g. Merriam Webster's game *Spell it*), learners should use dictionaries, including the possibility of listening to the word in different accents and dialects. Dictation, which can be easily practised with transcripts of listenings and software like *ReadPlease* or *HowjSay*, also helps learners to focus on spelling and the written form of the word and pronunciation at the same time. Analysing errors, including those contained in WhatsApp messages and Twitter posts, is also interesting for this, especially when the impact of those errors on meaning is highlighted. Another strategy is to compare the difference in meaning of the same sentence with different punctuation marks.

Sociolinguistic subcompetences. Politeness and impoliteness are essential for effective communication. Learners must be aware that some aspects like intonation are interpreted in terms of meaning as well. Pictures by James Chapman touch on the issue of politeness by addressing and comparing cultures. Other resources are also useful to untangle courtesy, politeness, and rules of behaviour addressed at foreigners. By way of illustration take *The How To Be British Collection* (Ford & Legon, 2003, 2005), *How to Be a Brit* (Mikes, 1986), *Sorry, I'm British!* (Crystal & Russ, 2011), *Watching the English* (Fox, 2004) or even tips by natives for foreigners travelling abroad in international guides.

Language instruction must include the social structure of the culture (including family, kinship relations and gender roles), its political and educational systems as well as its celebrations and holidays, major religions and relevant customs (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 51). Folk wisdom can be dealt with by employing webpages like *History Hustle* or *Buzzfeed*, but the teacher can also attract learners' attention by analysing real graffiti, TV, radio, media, catchy phrases, T-shirt slogans as well as cards, and posters. As Taguchi (2014, pp. 480–481) claims, “[s]ocial networking sites are other resources that provide authentic interactional opportunities” along with computer-mediated communication, which offer “an invaluable context for learning pragmatics [and sociolinguistics] because learners gain opportunities to engage in meaningful interaction and to experience intercultural communication.”

Teaching register is essential so that learners know how to speak and behave in particular contexts and are aware of the effects of not managing this aspect appropriately. Scholars like María Luisa Pérez Cañado account for that and thus she frequently updates her Twitter profile with new expressions not usually included in reference materials for learners of English. Dictionaries

also help with that purpose; Urban Dictionary is especially handy for slang, acronyms, and abbreviations. *Vanity Fair* has also noticed people's interest in slang, other languages or dialects. For this reason, they have chosen significant celebrities from various regions who explain, in English, idioms and expressions from their native language to foreigners or outsiders. For instance, Antonio Banderas deals with Spanish slang, Gerard Butler with Scottish slang, Jennifer Lawrence and Joel Edgerton with Kentucky and Aussie slang respectively or Mark Wahlberg with Boston slang, among many others. Register is also observable in other authentic materials. In this regard, analysing songs, podcasts, TED Talks, TV series, programmes or films starring roles from diverse countries and with different accents is another strategy to make students reflect not only on how context affects languages (register) but also how speakers differ from one another (accent and dialect). Videos are also a fruitful resource to focus on dialect and accent, especially humorous and spontaneous clips recorded by native speakers to explain to foreigners how their language works; for instance, YouTube videos by two Australians who believe their language is based on abbreviating everything.

Contemporary language students, even fluent ones, usually convey their messages in English without considering register and, often, by mixing formal, standard and informal English—even slang—in communicative situations. Thus, communication is not effective, as it is not suitable in a particular context. Learners should be aware of the different registers and know academic language for such purposes. Therefore, together with useful expressions of academic English and specific terms, learners need to know that academic conventions exist and are often specified in guidelines and stylesheets such as APA, Chicago, MLA, Harvard or ISO 690, among others.

Eventually, political issues can be dealt with in class through the analysis of mass media (newspapers, TV news, etc.) and social networks (Twitter, Facebook, and so on). Society can be examined through webpages like iFunny, Buzzfeed or Boredpanda. And culture must be introduced not only theoretically but also by celebrating typical festivities and holidays of English-speaking countries, examples being Thanksgiving Day, Up Helly Aa, Guy Fawkes Night, April's Fools, Australia Day, and so on.

Pragmatic subcompetences. It is important to make learners aware of the importance of sentence ordering and discourse markers so as to develop their discourse competence. Moreover, they need to master different kinds of relations (e.g. consequence, cause-effect, etc.) as well as coherence and cohesion. To that effect, learners must approach this from the perspective

of comprehension and production. They should therefore analyse texts in search for connectors and cohesive devices which make the oral or written text coherent. They also need to produce structured oral and written texts including linkers and such devices. Rephrasing and sentence transformation exercises make learners aware of grammatical structures, discourse markers and sentence relations. It must be noted that if particular grammar points are not covered in foreign language syllabi, first, learners may have comprehension problems and, second, they may deduce that a certain convention is not frequent and so would underuse them even at advanced levels (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1995, p. 20). Teachers must also pinpoint the connection between style, context, and register. To produce an appropriate text, learners must be taught different types of texts and their conventions, both in written (stories, essays, papers, narratives, descriptions, and so on) and oral (speeches, presentations, debates, etc.) forms. With regard to the latter, learners also need to have strategies and a linguistic repertoire for initiating, maintaining and ending a conversation, as well as use gambits, fillers and formulaic language that gives them time to think.

For mastering functional competence, learners must consider these three aspects: microfunctions, macrofunctions, and interaction schemata. In the former, they should be able to identify, report and, in short, manage factual information. A useful strategy for developing this is to make learners analyse and distinguish between facts and opinions. Scientific, interesting facts, depicted in short comics or infographics, can be worked through Pictoline. Other resources, like IELTS 5-Minute Functions, provide learners with functional language for specific situations such as comparing and contrasting, agreeing, and disagreeing. To develop this aspect, it is important to work on attitudes through modal verbs and emotions, suggestions, help, and advice.

Secondly, for mastering macrofunctions, learners must be aware of the conventions of various texts. Interaction schemata cover reactions in diverse situations, such as answering when being questioned, responding to greetings, and so on. Apart from useful expressions to enlarge linguistic repertoire of language students, different games can be played to focus on reactions, from simple role-plays to complex interviews where transactions and responses to the interlocutor's replies can be taken to the extreme. For instance, at an advanced level, the teacher can challenge learners to interview their partners, making use of different attitudes (by apologising, being extremely happy or sad, being afraid of the interviewer, and so on). Fluency plays a key role in interaction, so good strategies to develop this are making learners recite poems, riddles or tongue-twisters or having them

record themselves to listen to their production afterwards and be provided with feedback. In addition to audio recordings, learners can also see their production in videos or in front of a mirror so as to control their body language and non-verbal aspects. Finally, it is essential that foreign language learners be provided with strategies to learn pragmatics so that they can make the most of everyday materials for pragmatics practice (Taguchi, 2014, p. 475).

Conclusions

Communication is the key to mastering a second or foreign language. Thus, after this analysis, all the agents of foreign language learning-teaching process—teachers and learners, as well as book writers—must be aware of communicative competence, composed of linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic subcompetences, and not confuse it with the linguistic one. Learners must understand that the underdevelopment of subcompetences affects their perception or mastery of the FL, for instance, the lack of pragmatic competence strengthens stereotypes and prejudices of such language.

Teachers must also consider the deductive and inductive instruction of each of the subcompetences as well as their explicit and implicit instruction for the development of effective communication. Moreover, language teachers must include the three types of meta-strategies when planning their lessons and explain their influence on EFL: cognition on the construction of knowledge; affection on a positive attitude and motivation towards learning; and sociocultural strategies on interaction.

As Taguchi (2014, p. 472) demonstrated, fostering students' autonomous learning and strategy training makes them responsible for learning these subcompetences even if materials are not focused on them. This also develops their competence for learning to learn, which is essential, especially at lower levels, to cater to diverse needs and learning paces. Likewise, foreign language learners need critical thinking skills to correctly appraise other people's explanations or conceptions of foreign languages and cultures. In this vein, teachers must be careful when presenting the norms of other cultures and not include their own preferences or values as absolutes (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1995, p. 26).

Finally, language lessons should be based on practice rather than theory of language, since it is in those meaningful contexts where learners practise the language and apply the three subcompetences of communication in interactional contexts instead of just memorising linguistic forms (Takkaç Tulgar, 2016, p. 16).

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Recommended resources

- Antonio Banderas’ interview. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eZ0vxQ3uJCU>
- Australians’ video. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yDb_WsAt_Z0
- Boredpanda. Retrieved from <https://www.boredpanda.com/>
- BuzzFeed. Retrieved from <https://www.buzzfeed.com/>
- Flo Joe. Retrieved from <https://www.flo-joe.co.uk/>
- Gerard Butler’s interview. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=c42dvgPIfSk>
- History Hustle. Retrieved from <https://historyhustle.com/>

IELTS 5-Minute Functions. Retrieved from <https://www.ielts speaking.co.uk/english-functional-phrases/>

IELTS Speaking. Retrieved from <https://www.ielts speaking.co.uk/speaking-practice/>

iFunny. Retrieved from <https://ifunny.co/>

Illustrated Cynism. Retrieved from <https://www.awwwards.com/cynicism-humorously-illustrated-by-eduardo-salles.html>

HowjSay. Retrieved from <http://www.howjsay.com>

Jennifer Lawrence and Joel Edgerton's interview. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mQ_KOvXIaE0

Lyricstraining. Retrieved from <https://es.lyricstraining.com/>

María Luisa Pérez Cañado's Twitter account @marisacanado

Mark Wahlberg's interview. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dRBVIDN6-oo>

Merriam Webster. Retrieved from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/>

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