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Native Spanish speakers as binate language learners

Luis Javier Pentón Herrera, Concordia University Chicago
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Abstract

Native Spanish speakers from Mexico, Honduras, El Salvador, and Guatemala, who are also English language learners, are a growing population of students in the K-12 classrooms throughout the United States. This particular group of students is oftentimes placed in Spanish-as-a-foreign-language classes that fail to meet their linguistic development as native Spanish speakers. Conversely, those who are placed in Spanish for Heritage Speakers classes usually do not receive the necessary beneficial linguistic support to compensate for the interrupted education and possible lack of prior academic rigor. These binate language learners are a particularly susceptible population that requires rigorous first language instruction in order for them to use that knowledge as a foundation to successfully learn English as a second language. The purpose of this study is to address the needs of high school native Spanish speakers from Mexico, Honduras, El Salvador, and Guatemala who are also English language learners. In addition, a discussion of this population, their linguistic challenges in their first language, and approaches to excellent teaching practices are addressed and explained.

Introduction

The increasing number of English Language learner (ELLs) students in the United States has generated interest in the fields of bilingualism and second language acquisition. Currently, the fastest growing ELL student population in

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the United States is comprised of Spanish speakers who come from Central and South America and the Caribbean (CAL, 2016; Peyton, Lewelling, & Winke, 2001). Research conducted by Uro & Barrio (2013) found that about 85.5% of English language learners in over 40 school districts throughout the United States speak Spanish as their first language (L1). This means that over 85% of ELLs in these school districts in the United States speak Spanish as their L1 and have limited, or no proficiency, in English. Students who speak Spanish as their L1—Native Spanish Speakers (NSSs)—are individuals who are expected to have a certain level of understanding of the grammatical structure and rules of the Spanish language (Wells & Pappenheim Murcia, 2010). NSS students are expected to be proficient in their L1 when they arrive in the United States, but this is not always the case.

When NSSs arrive in the United States with an L1 deficiency, it is very difficult for them to receive appropriate academic support in Spanish to fill the possible literacy and language gaps in education from their native country. In the United States, many school systems require students to take foreign language courses as a requirement for high school graduation, but sometimes Spanish for Native Speakers (SNSs) or Spanish for Heritage Speakers (SHSs) classes are not available at schools for diverse reasons, and NSSs are placed in Spanish-as-a-foreign-language classes. Spanish-as-a-foreign-language classes are not appropriate for NSSs because these courses are not tailored to meet their specific linguistic needs, which are not the same as those learning Spanish as a second or foreign language. This inadequate support of Spanish negatively impacts the students’ further development in their native tongue and creates a language literacy gap that can also damage the learning of English as a second language (Pentón Herrera, 2015). The purpose of this study is to address the linguistic and academic needs of high school NSSs from El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, and Guatemala, who are also ELLs. In addition, a discussion of this population, their linguistic challenges in their L1, and approaches to effective teaching practices are addressed.

**Student Demographic**

The students addressed in this study are 15 to 20 years old and are high school native Spanish speakers from Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, and El Salvador. Many of these students are arriving in the United States with interrupted education, educational gaps, and some of them have never been to a formal school back in their home countries. Recent research from Infante Roldán and Letelier Gálvez (2013) reported that El Salvador, Mexico, Guatemala, and Honduras are currently implementing countrywide educational programs with the purpose of reducing the growing illiteracy percentage among their adolescent and adult population. According to this report, the illiteracy rate for individuals 15 years old and up in Guatemala is 18.46%, in El Salvador 17.9%, in Honduras 14.9%, and in Mexico over 34% (Infante Roldán & Letelier Gálvez, 2013; Llorente Martínez, 2013). Many of the students arriving in the United States from these countries...
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are part of those statistics, and although they are fluent speakers of Spanish, their reading and writing proficiencies are often very underdeveloped.

A special note is warranted in regard to Spanish fluency in speaking, writing, and reading for this population of students. Many students from these four countries were raised speaking and writing a Spanish argot that uses a variation of verb conjugations and personal pronouns not commonly used and acknowledged by La Real Academia Española (The Royal Spanish Academy). La Real Academia Española is a widely recognized Spanish institution whose main mission is to ensure that the changes the Spanish language experiences in its constant adaptation to the needs of its speakers do not break the essential unity maintained throughout the Hispanic world (RAE, 2016). When these students arrive in the United States, they are exposed to Spanish concepts that are foreign to them; therefore, they have to become apprentices in their L1 while learning English as a second language. In a sense, these students are binate language learners (BLLs) because they are learning two languages at the same time. In this article, we refer to the term BLLs as students who are ELLs and are also illiterate, or have underdeveloped proficiency in Spanish, their L1.

Spanish Regional Variations in Honduras, Guatemala, El Salvador, and Mexico

All Spanish-speaking countries speak Spanish with distinct dialectal features. Honduras, Guatemala, El Salvador, and Mexico also use distinctive regional variations of Spanish that are different in each country and should not all be grouped as one identity. There is currently limited information about the dialect used by Central Americans (Lipski, 1985) and most of the linguistic data gathered is from Mexican and Puerto Rican students (Anderson & Smith, 1987; Goldstein, Fabiano, & Iglesias, 2004; De la Mora & Maldonado, 2015; Vélez Salas, Treviño Schouten, Cárdenas, & Bayley, 2015; Keating, Jegerski, & Vanpatten, 2016). However, the following discussion provides important general information and features about the Central American Spanish variations most students use when they arrive to the United States, as it pertains to phonology, morphology, and syntax. The purpose of this section is to provide a general and basic idea to Spanish teachers about their students’ dialectal background and should not be considered an exhaustive resource. In addition, this section introduces resources that Spanish language educators can use for more in-depth learning about these topics.

Phonology

Central America is an area in which consonants are not stressed and sometimes are exchanged. The sounds for /s/ and /c/ are oftentimes changed to an /h/ sound, making the number dieciocho (eighteen), for example, sound like diehiocho. This phonetic phenomenon is “more pronounced in the Central American dialects of El Salvador and Honduras” (Lipski, 1985, p. 145), but it is also found in Guatemala, and to a lesser extent, in Mexico. Similarly, in some parts of Mexico and Central America, consonant reinforcement is compensated
for with vowel weakening, but the opposite occurs in Mexican coast modalities in which the stability of vowels is compensated by weakening consonants (Moreno-Fernández, 2011). More information about Spanish syllable structure and specific restrictions on possible combinations can be found in Colina (2006) and Diaz-Campos (2011). These resources provide a more in-depth analysis about the specificities of Central American Spanish and Hispanic sociolinguistics in general.

**Morphology**

Central American Spanish is very distinctive in the use of the personal pronoun vos, a phenomenon known as voseo. Voseo is defined as the use of the pronoun vos as a second person singular subject, which is regularly tú or usted (Benavides, 2003). The conjugated form for vos is sometimes similar to the plural form of vosotros but this is not always the case. For example, vosotros decís (you all say) has the same conjugation as vos decís (you say); however, vosotros habláis (you all speak) is different from vos hablás (you speak). Voseo can affect both the pronominal and verb forms. Voseo represents an archaic form of the Spanish language spoken by Spanish conquistadores and colonizers in the sixteenth century and is still widely used in Central America and some countries in South America like Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, and some parts of Bolivia. The Spanish Royal Academy has become active in acknowledging this variation, but in the United States voseo is not used or recognized academically. Therefore, when students arrive in the United States they are exposed for the first time to a different variation of the language that they are not used to hearing or seeing.

**Syntax**

Central American students, most prominently students from Guatemala, may use word combinations that reflect the syntax of Mayan-derived languages and other indigenous languages (Vera Institute of Justice, 2015). Other common features of Central American Spanish are the ellipsis of negative particles in sentences that involve the preposition hasta (until), for example: visitaré hasta el próximo año [*I will <not> visit until next year]; the use of demonstrative pronouns before possessive pronouns, for example: esa tu bebé es grande [*that your baby is big]; and the intensive use of ser (to be), for example: yo vivo es en El Salvador [*I live <is> in El Salvador] (Mackenzie, 2013). More detailed information about the syntax of the Spanish language, its evolution, and regional variation across Central America and other Spanish speaking countries can be found in Zagona (2002) and the other references used in this section.

**Limited L1 and L2 proficiency—Interrupted Bilingualism**

Spanish is currently the second most-spoken language in the United States and it continues to become increasingly important throughout schools, businesses, the Internet, government and private agencies, non-profit organizations, and among other important sectors in the country (Miller, 2016; Hugo López & Gonzalez-Barrera, 2013; Brecht & Rivers, 2000). As Spanish continues to become an important part of American culture, effective Spanish speakers will be expected to serve as a bridge between Spanish and English. The continued use of Spanish
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in business-related settings within the United States is promoting the importance of the language and it is transforming the perspective of Spanish from a language spoken only by uneducated immigrants (Fuller, 2012) to a powerful language that is associated with businesses (Huntington, 2004). This perspective on the Spanish language in the United States increases the importance of having skills that go far beyond conversational skills; it increases the importance of becoming proficient in all four language domains: speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

Unfortunately, our current educational system does not provide the necessary opportunities NSSs need to fulfill the demands that businesses in the United States look for in fully bilingual individuals. Spanish-speaking students in American schools often have a limited range of contexts in which they can use Spanish in meaningful ways. The use of Spanish in academic and social settings needs to be expanded to include more opportunities for effective oral communication; in-depth reading comprehension; writing for academic, literary, and professional purposes; and for expanding vocabulary (Roca & Colombi, 2016).

Developing effective communication in an L2 needs practice and should not be considered as an activity that only exists inside the classroom (Wesely, 2010). In order to attain the Distinguished level of academic proficiency, learners must be effective oral communicators and analytical writers who understand the nuances and culture of Spanish in its oral and written form (ACTFL, 2012). Thus, making space in our schools for a more inclusive Spanish-speaking environment can positively impact our students’ opportunities to achieve Distinguished academic proficiency (ACTFL, 2012), prepare them as future bilingual professionals, and develop their cognitive abilities.

The benefits of bilingualism and biculturalism have been addressed and demonstrated in many studies and articles (Cook, 1997; Worthy & Rodríguez-Galindo, 2006; Pentón Herrera, 2015; Toledo-Lopez & Pentón Herrera, 2015). However, very little is published about the negative impact dual illiteracy has on Hispanic students living in the United States. A study conducted by the National Assessment for Progress in Education (NAPE) in conjunction with the Department of Education found that 80% of all Hispanic high school students cannot read well enough to go to college and that over 56% of all adults in the Hispanic community are functionally illiterate (Imhoff, 1990). These statistics are alarming considering that the Hispanic population continues to increase at a very rapid pace in the United States.

Dual illiteracy is a dual challenge that affects NSS students from diverse perspectives. NSS who are illiterate in their L1 and who are introduced to an L2 can ultimately only reach a certain level of proficiency in that second language and will take longer to learn the L2 (Haynes, 2007). In other words, the strong presence and daily practice of the English language becomes the norm and the little knowledge acquired in Spanish is forgotten over time (Tran, 2010; Pentón Herrera, 2015). The loss of L1 proficiency also affects the NSS and their future
generations’ cultural identity and heritage (Anderson, 2012). In addition, dual illiteracy can impact future family generations as they miss the opportunity of receiving knowledge passed down about Spanish and their Hispanic culture (Taylor, Lopez, Martínez, & Velasco, 2012). In this sense, dual illiteracy influences the NSSs’ ability to function as fully bilingual individuals and traps them between two linguistic realities in which a high level of proficiency is never achieved.

Teaching Techniques to improve NSSs’ Spanish language proficiency

The role of language teachers is highly important for all students because, through language, students learn more about their own culture, traditions, and their connection to who they are as individuals. More specifically, Spanish educators of illiterate or low-proficiency NSSs play a vital part in the integration, success, and further education of these students. There are three phases that all NSSs undergo when learning Spanish: (1) readiness, (2) acquisition, and (3) consolidation (Quintana Padrón, Zanleoni Torres, Bocourt Salabarria, Guevara Marrero, & Enrique Hondares, 2015). During the readiness phase, Spanish-speaking students create the basis necessary for the development of the skills required for literacy and school life. Usually this phase occurs in elementary school. Acquisition enables students to recognize aural and visual representations of language through oral and written activities. Lastly, consolidation is a period of systematic training of all skills with increasingly higher demands in which a progressive and strengthening development of communication skills is encouraged (Quintana Padrón et al., 2015). Many of the NSS students addressed in this study arrive in our schools in the readiness phase, and it is up to the Spanish language educator to help those students advance to the consolidation phase through the students’ participation in Spanish classes.

This section of the study focuses on providing teaching techniques Spanish language educators can use to support the learning process of illiterate or low-proficiency NSSs with the purpose of helping these students advance to the consolidation phase. There are five main topics addressed: (1) accentuation, (2) putting words together, (3) upper and lower case, (4) orthography, and (5) digraphs. These five topics were selected because the authors of this study found that they are most challenging for illiterate and low-proficiency NSS students. All of these topics are considered basic concepts that students need to know and understand in their native language in order to continue progressing through the language proficiency phases and to better learn and understand a second language. Each of these subjects is explained in this section and activities are provided to assist Spanish educators in teaching this information to illiterate and low-proficiency NSSs. The vision of this section is to provide useful ready-to-print worksheets Spanish language educators can use to support the teaching of these five important concepts to NSS illiterate or low-proficiency students.
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Accentuation (Acentuación)

*Acentuación* in Spanish is of utmost importance because the same word can have different meanings depending on where the accent is placed. A simple accent over a vowel can change a word from a pronoun to a verb, or from an article to a personal pronoun. Similarly, the tilde (*virgulilla*) on top of the letter *n* (*ñ*) changes the meaning of the words. Illiterate and low-proficiency NSSs do not know or understand the importance of accentuation and that makes it difficult for them to understand the parts of speech in Spanish. Learning the grammatical rules of accentuation, both in spoken and written form, are basic skills that any Spanish speaker needs to have to successfully communicate in Spanish. In addition, when NSSs have a solid understanding of accentuation in Spanish, English language acquisition becomes an easier process (Cortés Moreno, 2002) because, for example, understanding basic rules of accentuation in Spanish will help learners discern the different between *ella esta* (*she this*) and *ella está* (*she is*), a common mistake among newcomer ESL NSS students. The worksheet on Appendix A can be used to help Spanish educators teach accentuation and explain its basic concepts.

Putting words together (Escritura en bloque)

*Escritura en bloque* occurs when students write words, phrases, and even paragraphs together without spaces between them. This writing challenge may be associated with dyslexia (Yale School of Medicine, 2008) but, sometimes, it just reflects the students’ poor writing skills. Appendix B offers a proactive idea to teach vocabulary, spelling, and writing at the same time in order to help students overcome this challenge. Appendix B shows a word builder (*componedor*) and each picture shows the steps Spanish educators can use to help NSSs become better writers. The first picture shows vocabulary practice. Teachers can choose vocabulary words and they can have NSS students practice spelling using the *componedores*. Once students are ready, educators can use dictations (*dictados*) to have students integrate those vocabulary words into complete sentences also using the *componedores*. The systematic integration of this activity in Spanish classes will prove effective in helping NSS students overcome their writing and spelling challenges.

Upper and lower case (Mayúsculas y minúsculas)

*Mayúsculas y minúsculas* are highly important in the Spanish language and in all Romance languages and they reflect the writer’s basic understanding of Spanish grammar. The rules for the use of upper and lower case in Spanish are conventional and change for diverse reasons impacted by the evolution of language and culture. In today’s world, for example, writing complete words and sentences in upper case on social media websites or e-mail communication may symbolize yelling or speaking very loudly. It is important for NSS students to learn the importance of using upper and lower case to be more successful communicators in today’s globalized environment. One of the many benefits of learning the basic rules of using upper and lower case in Spanish is that NSSs can use that information and transfer it to English, as many of the rules for upper and lower case are very similar.
in English and Spanish. **Appendix C** shows activities adapted from Rodríguez Pérez, Balmaseda Neyra, and Abello Cruz (2015) that Spanish educators can use to support their instruction of upper and lower case use.

**Orthography (Ortografía)**

**Ortografía** is the conventional spelling system or written form of a language. Orthography in Spanish, and in other languages, is an integral part of its identity and the language's survival depends on the speakers’ effective use of it. Since the creation of symbols to encode a spoken language is a precondition for any literacy in that language, many people involved in language revitalization and preservation work very hard to ensure that effective orthography is perpetuated (Grenoble & Whaley, 2006). Educators teaching illiterate or low-proficiency NSSs are, in a way, professionals who are working to revitalize and save the appropriate use of Spanish language among those students. Unless Spanish orthography is taught to illiterate or low-proficiency NSSs, they will grow farther away from their native language and English will try to fill in the linguistic gaps of those students. The end result of using one language (English, in this case) to fill in the linguistics gaps of one's native language (Spanish, in this case) is the incorrect use of both languages. In addition, since Spanish is not the primary language used in the United States, illiterate or low-proficiency NSSs will fail to pass down Spanish language skills to their future generations (Taylor, Lopez, Martínez, & Velasco, 2012). **Appendix D** presents an opportunity for students to practice some of the most common orthographic mistakes in Spanish, but this list is not exhaustive. For a complete explanation and more activities about Spanish orthography refer to Rodríguez Pérez et al. (2015).

**Digraphs (Digrafos)**

**Digrafos** are groups of two letters that represent a single sound. In Spanish there are five groups of digraphs:

1. Digraph *ch* represents the phoneme /ch/: *chapa, abochornar*.
2. Digraph *ll* represents the phoneme /ll/ and also the phoneme /y/, depending on the population of Spanish speakers: *lluvia, rollo*.
3. Digraph *gu* represents the phoneme /g/ when written before the vowels *e* and *i*: *pliegue, guitarra*. The *gu* diagraph must not be confused with the *gü* diagraph because they are different: *lingüística, güira*
4. Digraph *qu* represents the phoneme /k/ when written before the vowels *e* and *i*: *queso, quinqué*.
5. Digraph *rr* represents the phoneme /rr/ and is always written between two vowels: *arroz, tierra*.

**Appendix E** provides different exercises where students can practice digraphs in Spanish.

**Conclusion**

This article sheds light on the linguistic needs of many native Spanish students who arrive to the United States with little or no proficiency in their native
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language. Many professionals in the teaching field, including Spanish teachers, have an incorrect perception that native Spanish speakers know the language because they can speak it. However, this is not the case. This article seeks to educate counselors, language teachers, and professionals in the educational field about the importance of developing native Spanish speakers’ L1 proficiency and truly understanding their proficiency in their L1 in order to provide appropriate academic and linguistic support to develop their language proficiency skills in both L1 and L2. Similarly, this study also points out five of the most important topics this population of students needs to know in order to be successful Spanish communicators and to later use those strengths to learn English. The resources provided in the appendices are meant to facilitate the teaching of these five topics and can be modified as needed to meet specific students’ needs.

References


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Pueblo y Educación.


Appendix A: Accentuation (Acentuación)

Nombre: _________________________________________________________

(1) En este ejercicio encontrarás ejemplos de tres grupos de palabras cuyo significado varía de acuerdo con su acentuación. Añada otros dos más. [In this exercise you will find examples of three groups of words whose meaning changes according to its written accent. Add two more.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Esdrújulas</th>
<th>Llanas</th>
<th>Agudas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cántara</td>
<td>cantara</td>
<td>cantará</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capítulo</td>
<td>capítulo</td>
<td>capituló</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) Como conoces, los monosílabos no se acentúan, excepto cuando requieren tilde diacrítica. Explica cada caso y escriba una oración como aparece en el ejemplo. [As you know, the monosyllables are not accentuated (In Spanish), except when they require diacritic tilde. Explain each case and write a sentence as shown in the example.]

De/dé
De: preposición: La explicación de esto es sencilla.
Dé: forma del verbo dar: Dé la explicación adecuada.

El/él
El: 
Él: 

Mas/más
Mas: 
Más: 

Mi/mí
Mi: 
Mí: 

Se/sé
Se: 
Sé: 

Sí/sí
Sí: 
Sí: 

Te/té
Te: 
Té: 
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Appendix B: Putting words together (*Escritura en bloque*)

The word builder (*componedor*)

Vocabulary spelling and practice.

Using the vocabulary words in sentences through dictation
Appendix C: Upper and lower case (Mayúsculas y Minúsculas)

Nombre: ____________________________________________________________

1. Llene cada uno de los espacios en blanco con la letra o las letras que cada caso exija. [Fill in the blank with the best option for each case.]

(a) [Ch-ch] ____arles [Ch-ch] ____aplin es uno de los más grandes actores de todos los tiempos.


(d) [L-l] ____a historia conserva el nombre de de un caballo famoso: [R-r] ______ocinante, caballo fiel del [QU-qu-Qu] __ijote.

(e) [C-c] __iudad de [M-m] ____éxico es una de las [C-c] __iudades más populosa del mundo.

2. A continuación se ilustran algunos posibles usos de la mayúscula. Marque “Sí”, “No”, o “A veces”, según corresponda. [The following chart illustrates possible examples on the use of capital letters, use “Yes”, “No”, or “Sometimes” to identify the correct answer.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sí</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>A veces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Al escribir abreviaturas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al comenzar un escrito.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Después de dos puntos.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al escribir los días de la semana.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al escribir la primera palabra de una cita textual.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En los nombres de los organismos estatales y organizaciones.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuando queremos destacar un nombre.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En todas las letras de las siglas.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En la primera letra de las abreviaturas.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En las escrituras de los números romanos.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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Appendix D: Orthography [Ortografía]

Nombre: ____________________________________________________

1. Cada una de las expresiones siguientes puede resumirse en un adjetivo terminado en –ivo o en –iva. Observa el ejemplo y completa el resto de los ejercicios. [Each of the following expressions can be shortened by using an adjective ending in –ivo or –iva. Use the example to complete the rest of the exercises.]

   (a) Piensa mucho: pensativo, pensativa.
   (b) Se expresa bien:
   (c) Que reproduce:
   (d) Capaz de defender:
   (e) Puede hacer explotar:

2. Para completar las oraciones siguientes empleando los verbos que se indican, ¿utilizarás b o v? Aquí se utiliza la conjugación de la forma verbal imperfecto. [Use b or v to complete the following sentences using the imperfect verbal tense.]

   (a) Él reía mientras yo le ____________(hablar); eso, por supuesto, me ______________(molestar) bastante.
   (b) Nosotros ___________(estar) leyendo cuando él entró; ____________ (terminar) de leer uno de los capítulos más interesantes.
   (c) Tú ___________(entrar) cuando yo salía; _____________(acabar) de recibir una noticia que me ____________(obligar) a salir con urgencia.

3. Forma el plural de cada una de estas palabras para identificar una regla importante del uso de la s, c, y z. [Practice the use of s, c, and z by making the following words plural.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>compás</th>
<th>mambí</th>
<th>juez</th>
<th>lápiz</th>
<th>capaz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

4. La formación de sustantivos con la terminación –ez y –eza es una regla sin excepciones. Escribe en cada caso el sustantivo que corresponde. [The rule of nouns ending in –ez and –eza do not change. Write in each case the noun that best fit.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>triste</th>
<th>tristeza</th>
<th>delgado</th>
<th>delgadez</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tímido</td>
<td></td>
<td>raro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pobre</td>
<td></td>
<td>puro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pequeño</td>
<td></td>
<td>firme</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix E: Digraphs [Dígrafos]

1. Se emplea **ll** en las palabras terminadas en *-illo, -illa*. Escribe una lista de palabras con esta terminación para practicar la escritura de este dígrafo. [Words that end in *-illo, -illa* use **ll**. Write a list of words ending in this digraph.]

(a) 
(b) 
(c) 
(d) 

2. Se emplea **rr** sólo entre vocales y nunca al principio o al final de las palabras. Completa las palabras en el cuadro con **r** o **rr** según sea correcto. [The **rr** is only used between vowels and it is never used in the beginning of the words. Complete the following words with **r** or **rr** as appropriate.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a____oz</th>
<th>cue____no</th>
<th>ba____er</th>
<th>____eir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c____iadada</td>
<td>guita____a</td>
<td>come____</td>
<td>cacho____o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co____er</td>
<td>gue____a</td>
<td>sali____</td>
<td>zo____o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ja____o</td>
<td>güi____a</td>
<td>____oedr</td>
<td>son____isa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Se emplea **gu** sólo seguido de las vocales **e, i** cuando tiene el sonido */g/*. Indica si las palabras están correctas y escribe correctamente las palabras incorrectas. [The digraph **gu** is only used when followed by the vowels **e, i**. Identify the correct words and re-write the incorrect words.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>guerrero</th>
<th>✓ correcto</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gitarra</td>
<td>X incorrecto - <em>guitarra</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goloso</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guillermo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guabinetet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gallina</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guanar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guordo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Se emplea **qu** sólo seguido de las vocales **e, i** cuando tiene el sonido */k/*. Selecciona la opción correcta para cada una de estas palabras. [The digraph **qu** is only when followed by **e, i** with the */k*/ sound. Choose the correct option for each of these words.]

(a) cro______tas (que-ke-qe) 
(b) ____rer (que-ke-qe) 
(c) ní____l (que-ke-qe) 
(d) _____ero (qui-ki-qi) 
(e) ban______te (que-ke-qe) 
(f) pelu______n (quí-ki-qi) 
(g) acha______ (que-ke-qe) 
(h) _____atar (Qua-Ka-Qa)