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A third volume of a highly articulated set of language materials defines achievement level 2 in the control of Spanish syntax while providing descriptions and interrelationships of vital syntactic structures and expected student performance. The noun phrase, predicate phrase, verbal aspects, adverbials, relativization, noun modification, nominalization, "si" clause, interrogatives, comparison, negation, pronouns, imperatives, exclamations, passivization, alternation of basic sentence patterns, deletions, and conjunctions are presented. Selected sentences from current audio-lingual teaching materials are offered in a systematic arrangement providing the student with a segmented learning continuum in small units and the teacher with an overview of the structural content. The structuring of syntactic units is based on transformational generative-grammar linguistic principles. Each grouping is presented with an introduction, illustrative examples, and performance tests dealing with auditory comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing. Considerable material is included on objectives of the study, assumptions and hypotheses, and methods and testing. A conclusion, list of references, glossary, tables, and appendixes are included. For companion documents see ED 021 514 and FL 001 487. (RL)

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A DEFINITION OF ACHIEVEMENT LEVEL II  
IN THE CONTROL OF SPANISH SYNTAX

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CLAY BENJAMIN CHRISTENSEN

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## PREFACE

In spite of many technological and methodological advances in the field of foreign-language pedagogy, the development of well articulated foreign-language programs still remains one of the major goals set for most American school systems today. Foreign-language instruction in many American schools is beset with the problems of how best to group teaching materials into progressive levels of achievement and of how to coordinate these levels into a smoothly articulated sequence. All theoretical consideration and practical planning and development of curricula which would implement this goal has been hindered by the absence of a fuller definition of "levels" of second-language learning.

Another problem facing foreign-language teachers is the lack of agreement about what language structures constitute a level of achievement. Because natural language consists of an extensive set of vocabulary and grammatical structures of varying degrees of complexity, there are divergent opinions about which grammatical structures should be included in the curriculum at the beginning levels. In addition, there is lack of agreement among teachers about what specific criteria of expected terminal performance are needed for devising a measure of evaluation in the classroom to demonstrate that the student has learned the structures.

This study aims to provide a fuller definition of Achievement Level II for Spanish by describing components of Spanish sentences found in certain existing teaching materials and of organizing them

into sets of related syntactic structures. This task was viewed as a prerequisite for preparing a description of expected learner performance (terminal behavior), which could be used as a guide for testing the learner's proficiency in using the individual structures of Spanish. Our recommended description of terminal behavior is presented with respect to the four language skills: auditory comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing, and consists of a number of operational statements about the recognition and production of the linguistically described data. This definition, in terms of achievement, contrasts with existing definitions which are based on the number of years spent studying a given language, or of hours spent in class.

Certainly, the proposed definition of Achievement Level II presented in this study is just a beginning. It is hoped, however, that it will provide a model for developing subsequent achievement levels which when joined together provide a logical sequence of steps toward learning a foreign language.

A portion of the investigation was conducted jointly by the two investigators. Most of the study, however, was divided so that each investigator worked independently on separate portions of the description of both language data and terminal behavior. Each section of the dissertation is labeled appropriately with the name of the investigator responsible for that particular portion. In cases where both investigators contributed to a section, the names of both are affixed to that section. With respect to all performance tests, mentioned below, these relate to the skills of hearing and speaking only and have been devised by C. B. Christensen.

Section 1 contains an introductory statement of the problem together with a discussion of background literature related to the problem. It also includes the projected objectives this study attempts to pursue. A final sub-section involves a discussion of assumptions and hypotheses of language learning. Section 2 deals with a general statement of the methods used to collect the language data and a specific presentation of the experimental designs used in testing a hypothesis about second-language pedagogy. The results and discussion of the testing are also presented in Section 2. Section 3 embodies the descriptions of language structures and of terminal behavior. Most descriptions of terminal behavior are accompanied by an exemplary performance test which could be used to measure (under classroom conditions) whether the pupil has learned to use the specific language structures. Section 4 concludes with statements, implications to education, and recommendations for further investigation.



## 1. INTRODUCTION

C. B. Christensen

### 1.1 PROBLEM

Often, during the initial stages of foreign-language courses, primary attention is given to new vocabulary and its correct pronunciation. Although these elements are important, there are other aspects of the foreign-language learning task which must command the early attention of both teacher and pupil. One of these aspects is syntactic structure. Without control of the syntax of the target language, it is difficult for the learner to communicate effectively, even though his vocabulary and pronunciation are adequate. One of the objectives of the pedagogue who teaches a foreign language should be to help the learner comprehend the various sentence patterns in the most thorough way possible, and in the shortest time, so that he can manipulate them naturally. To achieve this aim, the teacher must have his course well defined in terms of syntactic content and learner performance.

The question arises, then, as to how the learner is to obtain a working knowledge of the various sentence patterns used in the target language. The full answer to this question has not been determined. Some investigation (e.g., Sherer-Wertheimer, 1964; McKinnon, 1965; Torrey, 1965; Cordes, 1966)\* has been made, and research is in progress in the areas of psychology, linguistics, and education to help allay the problems involved in attaining control of the use of

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\*See also Mead, 1966, pp. 12-42 and Nostrand et al, 1965.

sentence structures in the foreign language.

One notion generally held among authorities in the field of foreign-language pedagogy is that longer sequences of study are necessary to insure an ultimate control of the target language. Some American schools are beginning to provide longer sequences of foreign-language study, but many students are learning foreign languages inefficiently. One probable reason for this inefficient learning is poor coordination of the steps toward achieving a working knowledge of the language. One cause of the lack of coordination is that teachers do not have a common concept of what objectives constitute a level of achievement. This way of envisioning the problem introduces certain assumptions concerning the teaching of complex concepts and whether language learning can be effectively segmented into levels. Such assumptions will be discussed below in Assumptions...

In the field of foreign-language pedagogy there is wide divergence of objectives with imprecise notions of what constitutes a working knowledge of the language. For example, some teachers want their students to "internalize knowledge," and others want their students to "grasp the core or essence" of the material or "comprehend" the structure. Still others believe their students should "really understand." Specifically, what does a student do when he "really understands" that he otherwise would not do? The answer to that question is not easily obtained from raw scores on achievement tests. Regardless of the desired results of achievement tests, there are fundamental issues in need of research. One of these issues concerns both the specification of language data to be taught at any given stage of the learner's

experience and a description of expected performance of the learner. What is needed, in other words, is a description of what the pupil is to be taught and some direction given to assess specific strengths and weaknesses of the learner at the initial stages of the foreign-language program. When this issue is investigated and details are known, teachers will be in a better position to define more specifically such imprecise terms as those given above, and thus, overcome some of the problems beleaguering America's foreign-language programs.

The motivation for undertaking this investigation arises from an ill-defined notion of level and the lack of a well articulated sequence of levels in second-language learning. If progress in the study of foreign languages is to be accelerated or if present achievement is to be improved at all, successive levels of student achievement must be defined as part of a long-range effort to improve the articulation of these levels in a program of language acquisition. As Carroll (1960, p. 130) has stated

The urgency of our national situation calls for anything we can do, at all educational levels, to raise the level of foreign language competence in America, but in the meantime let us know what we are doing, and let us find out how we can do it better--this is the practical application of research.

## 1.2 BACKGROUND

Before an attempt is made to define a level, it will be useful to examine some points already established in the field of foreign-language curriculum development--a central concern in defining levels.

### CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND LEVEL DEFINITION

Banathy (1966) has produced a theoretical concept invaluable

for further progress in foreign-language curricula. In devoting an entire chapter to a review of more than eighty sources of pertinent literature, he was able to make some significant generalizations underlying the identification of processes connected with content selection and organization. His conclusions are paraphrased in the following six points:

- (1) There is a need for an overall conceptual structure in the area of content selection.
- (2) Curriculum operations are decision-making procedures, and these decisions need to be made on specific bases.
- (3) There is a need for establishing an inventory of learning items to be considered the corpus of a particular course.
- (4) Course content is generally viewed as a process of ordering individual content items into a learning continuum according to the rationale of moving, one item at a time, from the easy to the more complex, language structures.
- (5) There is a need to organize the learning continuum in terms of grouping (what goes with what) and sequencing (what comes before what).
- (6) There is need to segment the learning continuum into larger and smaller time blocks until the smallest, significant element, the learning unit, has been established.

As will be seen later, points (3), (4) (5), and (6) are of particular significance to the main objectives of the present study.

Brooks (1964) discusses several points directly related to the issue of curriculum. One point deals with the articulation of courses in sequence. He notes that whenever a lack of integrated continuity occurs among the various school grades, it is chiefly due to three problems: (1) much disparity among secondary school courses, (2) an extensive variety of courses at the college level, and (3) insufficient information about a learner's past experience in the language and about his probable future experience. The problem of continuity takes on even greater dimension when one considers that subject matter to be presented to the learner should accord with his

capacities and interests, and with the sequence of skills to be learned, and with the proportion of time allotted to each at various school grades. In other words, language learning, as an individual task, is a continuum of progress. Formal conditions of the classroom, however, bring several individuals together in a setting which, without specific directions, coordination, and objectives, can lead to a disrupted foreign-language program for the learners.

The problem was surveyed by Walsh (1963) in a document prepared under the auspices of the College Entrance Examination Board. The author's analysis reveals that much of the difficulty in present sequences of foreign-language learning arises from too much tradition and faulty evaluations. He stated that in most school systems there were not smooth sequences of learning, but rather there were unarticulated portions of sequences--an undesirable situation. The implication of his analysis suggests the need for a more objective and precise statement of what is to be learned and when.

Flanagan (1965, p. 1) comments on the needs of research in the field of secondary education, and points out that the objectives and content of programs of instruction comprise the most important aspects of secondary education. He believes that efficient instructional methods and precise measurement of results cannot compensate for inadequate attention to objectives and content.

A recent study conducted by an Ohio State University research staff (Pimsleur, 1966) indicates that foreign languages are more dependent on sequencing than are other major subjects. The language sequence must continue longer than the once usual two years if it is

to result in usable communication skills and cross-cultural understanding. Furthermore, the study points out that there is a need to agree fundamentally on the objectives to be attained in each foreign-language course and the step-by-step means to achieve them.

In addition to the research study at the Ohio State University, investigation directly related to this problem is being carried on by the Indiana Language Program which has been in progress nearly seven years. Conferences on articulation were held in 1964-65 to study coordination between college and high-school levels. A report\* of an out-of-state evaluation committee indicates that more outside help is needed to cope with this extensive problem.

A project similar to the Indiana Language Program was initiated in the state of Washington in 1965. The following excerpt comes from a proposal by the Board of Regents of the University of Washington to the Ford Foundation for backing a program to strengthen foreign-language teaching in the state of Washington.

The present proposal is derived from discussions arising in problems of placement which have resulted in part from the introduction of audio-lingual teaching...But beneath the problem of diversity in instruction lies a lack of agreement about what students at different stages of development should be accomplished in. The importance of these questions for the teaching and administration of foreign-language study was confirmed in a meeting with the State-wide Advisory Committee to the Supervisor of Foreign-Language Instruction in the State Department of Public Instruction. This committee of 15 members... set the problem of the articulation within school districts, between school districts, and between the

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\*Indiana Language Program, Reports of the Out-of-State Evaluation Committee, based on a review of the program and conducted in February 22-25, 1965.

schools and the colleges, as the primary problem to be solved--a pre-condition for long-term improvement of foreign-language teaching in the State.

In discussing the articulation of courses in sequence, Brooks (1964, p. 121) proposed the word level to be used to indicate the amount of learning required at different ages, in different schools, and in differing lengths of time. Since these are not uniform throughout the nation, a term other than school year is necessary to aid in attaining more precision in outlining foreign-language programs.

In an attempt to give the word level a precise definition, we may say that it contains the amount of learning that can be achieved in an upper grade of the secondary school in classes that meet five times a week and that are at least forty minutes in length.

The amount of material used in teaching may be taught over a longer span of time for younger learners who cannot assimilate that quantity of material as rapidly as their high-school counterparts. The same amount of teaching material may be concentrated into a shorter period of time for the more sophisticated college learner. Brooks is not specific about what is to be included in the "learning," but his several points, which cluster around a central theme of level definition, clearly suggest the need for continued refinement of objectives in America's foreign-language programs.

Brooks, Hockett, and O'Rourke (Brooks, et al, 1963, pp. 23-24) theorize more specifically on the necessity of defining levels.

Progression from one level to the next...must be based on demonstrated achievement of the minimum competence required for the next level. Since individual learning rates differ widely, every effort should be made to provide the maximum opportunity for all students to master the content and skills of each level....The

boundaries between successive levels must be recognized as somewhat arbitrary, since the learning of a language is in a sense continuous and unending. However, it is possible to specify approximately what should be achieved by the end of each level. This achievement can be neither described nor tested in terms of the amount of time the learner has spent in class or the number of pages he has 'covered' in a textbook.

In addition to their assertion that goals of learner performance must be described somewhat specifically for each level, the authors contend that a description in terms of time spent in class or of assigned textbook material is useless as a means of measuring achievement.\* Following a textbook from chapter one to the end, relying completely on the decisions of the author that the arrangement is a good one is to demonstrate little professional motivation on the part of the teacher. Textbook information is useful, but must be augmented by answers to certain questions, some of which are stated by the authors (Brooks et al, 1963, p. 24):

How well can the student perform in the  
four basic skills?  
What patterns can he use with accuracy and  
fluency when he speaks or writes?  
How well can he retell what he has heard  
and read?  
How well can he initiate talk and writing  
on his own?  
...

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\*In connection with textbook materials, Olsen (1964) explains that there has been a gap between educational research and current textual materials. Many older and current textbooks lack a specification of objectives and goals for the course of instruction in which they are used. There is no indication of the kind of mastery over the materials necessary for advancement in the learning program. Olsen points out, however, that publishers are now beginning to understand their important role in the production of curriculum materials.



It seems to be a rather common practice among teachers to rate a learner as being either weak, average, or strong in all phases of the language-learning program by making a generalized evaluation from the results of a few tests. As the pupil continues through the language program, however, his proficiency involves varying degrees of strengths and weaknesses for different parts of the language structure. In the development of curricula, it is relevant to involve specifications of terminal behavior with respect to individual language structures specified at each level of the program.

#### EXACTNESS IN LEVEL DEFINITION

In recognizing the need to be more specific in defining achievement, Brooks, Hockett, and O'Rourke (Brooks et al, 1963, pp. 24-25) have devised a set of statements for each of four levels to reflect what the learner should be able to do by the end of each level. The following statements represent a sampling of their statements:

##### Level I

- Demonstrate, in hearing and speaking, control of the whole sound system.
- Repeat the account of a brief incident as he hears it read, phrase by phrase.
- Participate, with a fluent speaker, in a dialogue about any one of perhaps 20 situations...

##### Level II

- Recognize all of the basic syntactic patterns of speech and use most of them.

Although this list of achievement statements helps to indicate more narrowly what the learner is expected to do when he "really understands," certain aspects of the authors' statements remain unspecified. For example, what structures represent the basic syntactic patterns?

Recently, however, there has been a search for more rigor in how to state educational objectives. The advent of programmed learning has sharpened the need to be precise about educational intent. The trend is toward specifying expected performance explicitly in operational terms. In fact, Mager (1962), an authority in defining educational goals, does not merely proclaim the need for stating objectives behaviorally, but rather demonstrates the precise nature of operationally-stated objectives. Mager (p. 11) is concise in conveying his message.

To use such words as 'understand' and 'appreciate' in a statement of objectives is to make the statement less explicit and less useful. Until a description is made about what the learner will be doing when demonstrating that he 'understands,' the statement has done very little....Thus the most important characteristic of a useful objective is that it identifies the kind of performance which will be accepted as evidence that the learner has achieved the objective.

Many state education departments and local school districts have devised their own curriculum guides. These guides attempt to define levels of achievement and give direction to the individual foreign-language sequences developed by the school districts. Curriculum guides, however, merely present general guidelines, and the definition of the proficiency to be attained at each level falls short of an "operational" definition which is needed as a basis for measuring whether, or to what degree, the proficiency is present. The question is how can there be an indication as to whether or not specific goals have been achieved when specific goals have not been made operational? What is needed is a description of what the pupil learns and how he demonstrates that he has learned it, so that a

close check may be made at successive points in the language course to examine whether certain structures have been learned. Such descriptions are lacking in current curriculum guides. For example, a typical statement of one objective found in most guidelines suggests to the teacher that learners should "obtain control of basic speech patterns." While the general statement may be helpful, a more specific and useful statement would list the basic speech patterns and describe operationally how the learner may perform when he uses them correctly.

Belasco (1965) points out that a student's progress toward "mastery" in the language seems to depend partially on the control of basic sentence patterns. But more important than the question of control is the author's question of which patterns are basic. Until this question is answered some teachers will have their students learn well one particular segment of the target language while other segments are deemphasized or merely by-passed. Other teachers of the same level may do the same for other segments of the language. He observes that this erratic and arbitrary selection of materials is not totally undesirable in and of itself. The problems arise when students of disparate backgrounds funnel into common courses at more advanced stages of schooling. The author asserts that foreign-language instruction must be defined in terms of actual achievement; that the learning of a language must be viewed as a continuum of progress in which certain structural features are internalized before others. The implications of his assessment call for a description of achievement of specific language structures which may be sequenced

for effective acquisition of stated goals.

One purpose, then, of devising a formal and functional definition of levels is to delineate more precisely certain objectives necessary in assessing learner achievement. What is needed for assessing specific strengths and weaknesses of the learner is a thorough description of what is or should be expected of the learner. Before a comprehensive report can be given of a student's progress in terms of strengths and weaknesses, we need to know what he is to be taught. And that is one of the main objectives of this study.

### 1.3 OBJECTIVES

At the outset of this project one of the main goals was to map out a definite sequence of linguistic structures by which a specified degree of proficiency could be obtained in the four language skills of auditory comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing. It was discovered during the investigation, however, that a useful basis upon which to define a level of achievement is not the claim that a linguistics-based organization of instructional materials is a more efficient means to language skills. That is, the order in which certain language structures are analyzed scientifically does not necessarily determine the order of their application pedagogically (Saporta, 1966, p. 89).

A more useful basis upon which to define a level of achievement is found in the framework afforded by two fundamental educational objectives: (1) an ideal methodological approach to language instruction through a newly organized description of a given language's structure and (2) an understanding of what is expected of the pupil in terms

of the structure of the language. These two educational objectives may benefit by the knowledge obtained from the field of linguistics. But in this study we do not propose any kind of learning model. A strong and rich theory of foreign-language learning has not yet been developed.

For continued progress in foreign-language programs, it is important for curriculum developers and teachers to keep their interest attendant on means of devising individual units of instruction and on sequencing them effectively to optimize achievement in the classroom. Since the present study is concerned with the definition of a level of achievement, it is necessary to establish a rationale for such a definition. A rationale is provided through the framework of newly organized language structures. The organization of the syntactic structures of Spanish presented in this study is intended to aid instructors to be flexible in the preparation of smoothly-articulated teaching materials such as may result when one structure is viewed and presented as a logical relation of another which has already been presented and learned. Specifically, the earliest individual units of instruction and syntactic structures may be grounded in basic sentence patterns and small but meaningful constituents of the basic sentence patterns. Complex semantic features of particular syntactic constituents may be taught in relation to the underlying structures of those constituents and the processes by which they are altered. For example, by means of the process of substitution, certain interrogative elements (e.g., ¿Dónde?, ¿En qué lugar?, ¿Cuándo? ¿A qué hora?...) are viewed as derivatives of the adverbial elements (e.g., en la casa,

a cierta hora...) found in basic sentence patterns. Furthermore, other more complex units of instruction containing transformations such as embedded or nominalized sentences may be taught in relation to the simpler basic sentence patterns already established.

The linguistic description in this study has been carried out by describing and organizing, in a new fashion, language data collected from current pedagogical materials. (see Methods, below). Instead of concentrating attention only on the overt patterns of the language involved, efforts have been made to look underneath the "surface" to view their basic structures. This procedure has been carried out to find common origins of dissimilar structures in order to relate them for the sake of systematically organizing the language data, which, in turn, facilitates the description of terminal behavior. By employing current materials, we are actually beginning from past experience as to what is practicable, and by appealing to modern linguistics we hope to improve the efficiency with which Spanish syntax can be taught to American learners. This newly organized conceptualization of material can be expected to aid in the attainment of the educational objectives mentioned above.

The result of our investigation is expected to be an aid to all Spanish teachers of Levels I and II. It is especially intended to help them conceive with more precision the interconnection and orderliness of the language structures they use. It is also intended to provide them with a specific statement of how the learner demonstrates his control of the structures. This intention is designed to allow the teacher to come to a common understanding of which syntactic

structures are basic for the beginning student and how the teacher may present them more effectively in order to guide the learner toward the goal of expected performance. The result of attaining more precision in defining goals should facilitate the exchange of information about curricular development and evaluation devices.

The bases for obtaining the desired result are two specific objectives set for this investigation: (1) to postulate a basic corpus of newly-organized syntactic structures, to be agreed upon for Level II and (2) to postulate operational statements of expected terminal performance for each of the structures.

Generally, the notion of "level" is defined as the amount of progress a learner can make in one Carnegie unit (a five-hour course for one academic year in senior-high school). Level II, the concern of this study, will be defined in terms of two Carnegie units. The amount of grammatical (i.e., syntactic) structure postulated in this study will coincide approximately with the amount of learning that can reasonably be expected after two years of senior high-school instruction. This does not mean that our definition of Level II is dictated by school years. It does mean that, if possible, a convenient terminal point in the sequence will be set to coincide with the two-year period.

There are three problems involved in defining a level: (1) to specify the linguistic substance and forms to be included and the relationships within the linguistic material and language skills to be mastered, (2) to define the degree of mastery or proficiency to be tested for in each part of the acquisition of the linguistic material,

and (3) to nuance the standard for each age group. Problem (3) is not part of this particular study, although it merits an important place within the research needed in the field of foreign-language pedagogy.

In connection with the first problem, the specification of linguistic substance and forms, Mackey (1965) has characterized the nature of language as falling into four main areas: substance, form, content, and expression. These four areas of language may be combined in the following manner: content-substance, content-form, expression-substance, and expression-form. The substance of language may be both conceptual and linguistic. Conceptually, the substance of language refers to the entities and events (both tangible and intangible experiences) of the real world. These are things people speak about. Substance, in this case is the content of the message being communicated. Linguistically, the substance of language refers to the actual sounds uttered by speakers. It is the raw speech material used (according to the rules of the language) to express messages concerning the entities and events of the real world. This is the expression side of language substance. The form of language, like the substance, may also fall into the areas of content and expression. The formal content of language refers to the formalization of units in which entities and events are conceptualized (e.g., in English different kinds of entrance ways are formalized distinctly, such as gate and door). The formal expression of language refers to the formalization of the raw speech material into units of expression such as words, phrases, and sentences. It is in this latter area, expression-form,



that we have placed our attention in describing the language data.

Thus, we have limited the linguistic scope of this project to a descriptive specification of basic syntactic structures for Level II of Spanish. Our endeavor has been to examine and describe, independently of their semantic content, certain syntactic structures and to arrange them in such a fashion so as to signal the prominent interrelationships among the structural-types. A detailed specification of content (i.e., what ought to be talked about at the initial stages of foreign-language learning) must also be carried out, but such an investigation would proceed beyond the limits of time and energy imposed by this work. In connection with content, it may be useful to point out to the reader that certain guidelines do exist. One up-to-date set of revised guidelines for foreign-language teachers is forthcoming from the State of North Carolina. The revision was presented in draft form in a state meeting of foreign-language teachers at Raleigh, North Carolina in December, 1967. For a list of references of lexical items, the reader is directed to Feldman (1965, p. 82).

The second problem is to specify the expected performance of the learner. In compliance with stated educational objectives, we should try to put our goals of learner performance into operational terms which indicate whether the desired goals are being fulfilled. Stated differently, for each structural-type listed in the inventory of linguistic forms, an operational statement should be made to indicate what the learner does to demonstrate his ability to use the

structures correctly, and under what conditions he does it.\*

Basically, both the description of language structures and the description of expected performance constitute a statement of objectives. Banathy (1967) notes that a statement of objectives should be described in terms of the smallest independent unit of expected performance. That author reasons that the insistence upon such specificity is necessary on two accounts: (1) the construction of appropriate criterion tests (for measuring whether or to what degree the objectives are being met) may be based on a detailed description of expected behavior and (2) an analysis of learning tasks may be based upon this description so that an inventory of what the pupil has to learn may be developed. In another sense, it has been claimed (Saporta, 1966) that linguistics should specify what it is that is to be learned. Thus, a language may be analyzed first linguistically, and on the basis of the results, a description of terminal behavior may be formulated for the use of such language structures.

The objective in defining one level of achievement of syntactic structures in Spanish is to equip the teacher with a set of specifications of Spanish structures and of expected learner performance in those structures. The language description is viewed as a prerequisite of the performance description. A specification of what the learner does to demonstrate his proficiency of certain language elements presupposes a description of precisely those language elements for which he demonstrates his degree of proficiency. The establishment

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\*For a discussion of these notions related to a pedagogical grammar, see Spolsky (1965).

of specific guidelines of terminal behavior for the smallest individual units of Spanish grammar may be fulfilled best by first setting down a description of those grammatical units. Such procedure has the advantage of allowing the investigator to arrange the data into sets of related structures in order to economize in the description of terminal behavior.

In summary, the main purpose of this study is to present one level of achievement for the skills of auditory comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing for Spanish. The prime objective for carrying out our purpose is twofold: (1) to describe and list a newly organized set of sentence structures of Spanish in terms of individual syntactic units and (2) to state operationally the expected performance of the learner in using the language structures. This objective is being pursued so that Spanish language teachers may be able to use the structures more effectively in advancing toward the goal of expected learner performance set for Level II.

#### 1.4 ASSUMPTIONS AND HYPOTHESES OF LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

It is assumed that an enlightened conceptualization of language data generally aids the teacher in making decisions about what structures should be presented together and which should come first. The organization imposed on the language structures, however, must in no way be construed as being a rigid arrangement. Definite knowledge is lacking about whether structure A should precede or follow structure B in order to maximize the efficiency of learning them both. Valdman (1966, p. 142) warns that "one should...caution

against too literal an application of linguistic theory in the determination of optimum learning steps and in the ordering of steps into pedagogically efficient sequences." Insufficient research has been carried out to disclose secure, rigid ordering of language elements for the purpose of optimizing the efficiency of language learning.

#### CONSTITUENT STRUCTURES

A discussion of language structure involves two questions, one of structural constituents and one of redundancy. Gleason (1961, p. 200), in discussing syntax, states that

A language...is not so much a set of sentences, or of sentence patterns, as a set of much smaller patterns of formation which in combination enables a speaker to produce sentence patterns. Sentences are made up of constructions within constructions. Underlying these constructions are the patterns which the speaker learns and which therefore constitute the language.

Constructions within constructions suggest a hierarchy of classes and sub-classes of structural constituents; and no matter what school of linguistics one subscribes to, descriptions of syntactic structure must deal with elements which are classed. Presumably, an (intuitive) understanding of the hierarchy of classes and their interrelationships helps in being able to use the language. To understand an utterance is in some sense to know its structure.

We know, however, that a person does not learn to use a language merely by studying the rules of grammar of that language. He must start at some base point and, through actual language use, proceed toward the abilities which make him a competent speaker of the language. This is certainly the case in first-language learning and may be the

case in second-language learning.

McNeill (1966) presents a theory of first-language acquisition. He explains (p. 63) that the child is endowed with certain universal, linguistic features which aid in guiding him toward developing more complex structures of adult speech. The child begins by uttering holophrastic words which stand for sentences. As the child's experience increases, he acquires the use of basic grammatical devices such as Noun Phrase + Predicate Phrase (or the reverse), and, as his vocabulary and understanding of syntactic relationships expand, he continues to develop linguistically by using more and more complex structures. McNeill explains that in early speech the sentences produced by children have few grammatical classes, although the children have surface structures (i.e., normal speech patterns) of parental speech as overt guides. The child's sentences are basic enough to be labeled underlying structures of adult speech. But, as experience has shown, some parents, if not all, offer many "child-like" sentences for the child to use as surface structures. It can not be assumed that the parent never comes down to the child's supposed syntactical level in order that the parent might make communication. McNeill (pp. 73-74) comments that

Quite often adults repeat the speech of small children and, in so doing, change the children's sentences into the nearest well-formed adult equivalent...the parent echoes the child and, at the same time, supplies features that are missing from the child's sentence...these expansions...can be considered from the point of view of influencing the course of language acquisition.

It would be during these moments when the child does most of his basic learning of adult syntax. In connection with native-language

use, McMahon (1963) experimented by assuming that in order to understand a sentence a subject has to analyze the grammatical structure of the sentence. The results of his experiment support the assumption.

Politzer (1960, p. 6) comments that for second-language study

...a 'linguistic' approach to teaching [cannot] dispense with an explicit or at least an implicit grammatical analysis on the part of the student. The student must not only learn a construction--he must also realize how this construction is 'made up,' how it 'comes apart,' how some other building stones can be replaced by others.

Thus, in the case of both first- and second-language use one is led to assume that the user must make some kind of grammatical analysis--no matter how different the two cases might be.

#### REDUNDANCY IN LANGUAGE

In discussing redundancy, Gleason (1961, p. 382) points out that "structure is merely a set of limitations on freedom of occurrence and hence inevitably produces redundancy." Redundancy results from the presence of certain elements occurring in the same message. Thus, if the meaning of some elements in a message can be inferred by the presence of others, the former elements could conceivably be omitted or not communicated without impairment to the message. A major question of central concern to the foreign-language pedagogue is how does the learner understand what has been deleted or even what is deletable (according to the grammatical limitations of the target language) if he does not have control of the redundant features or underlying structures which help infer the meaning of that which has been deleted? Gleason (p. 384) further mentions that "Redundancy is

not an imperfection in the language, but an essential feature, without which language would be inoperable."

During the acquisition of one's native language, one learns to recognize particular features which limit the possibility of occurrence of certain structural elements. Rivers (1966, p. 197) mentions such features as syntactic relationships, sequences of words and combinations of sounds of high frequency, clichés, conversational tags, and formulae. She (p. 197) states that "It is redundancy in language which helps us to piece together the information we hear." Certain idiosyncratic features of the language's syntax may account for a large proportion of the language's redundancies.

Some idiosyncratic features of language are imperceptible (covert) aspects which lie beneath the surface patterns of speech. The native speaker of the language has acquired an intuitive understanding of these underlying features. Presumably, the foreign-language pupil must somehow assimilate such features of each syntactic element in order to use it appropriately in communication.\* By implication, Bull (1965, p. 208) alludes to these features in the following comment:

No student who is allowed to take Spanish will be of such low intelligence that he cannot comprehend the nature of objective sets or fail to understand the organizational sets developed by the Spanish culture. He must, indeed, be exceedingly dense if he does not recognize that houses can be built of stone but not of people and that this simple fact accounts for

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\*The psychological facts concerning the mental storage and manipulation of such language features is not known. And a discussion of such is not the intent of this study.

the difference in the meaning of 'una casa de piedra' and 'una casa de Pedro.' The relationship between the set composed of structures (casa, puente...) and the set composed of building materials (piedra, madera...) cannot be the same as the relationship between structures and animate beings.

That is, the word piedra may co-occur with the word casa, since each one has certain features which are compatible with those of the other, when one wishes to speak of building materials and not of possessors of buildings.

Bull's point is directly related to a strong argument recently and formally presented by the linguistic school of 'transformational-grammar theory. Chomsky (1965) argues for the need to account formally for certain selection features which operate in the language to prevent the co-occurrence of incongruous elements. For example, the noun sincerity has the idiosyncratic (selection) feature [+ inanimate]. The verb admires has the feature [+ animate subject] (i.e., it takes an animate subject). Selection (or matching) rules of English syntax block the co-occurrence of a subject noun of the feature [+ inanimate] and a verb of the feature [+ animate subject]. Thus, a sentence such as "Sincerity admires the boy" is not allowed or at least is viewed as a deviant sentence. In contrast, the noun boy has the feature [+ animate] and may co-occur with a verb having the feature [+animate subject] to derive "The boy admires sincerity."

The foregoing remarks may seem obvious to the reader and even to the (bright) foreign-language learner, especially when the idiosyncratic features and selection rules are common to both the native and target languages. Such features and rules would seem to be the



case in Bull's examples given above. Many features, however, which are unique to the target language, are not so easily detectable by the non-native speaker. They must, therefore, be brought to the learner's attention.\*

A word such as programa, for example, which is both an event and a non-event noun (i.e., it may refer to a social function or to a piece of printed matter), may co-occur with a form of the linking verb ser. The linking verb ser, however, may co-occur with an adverb of time only when the subject noun is viewed as an event. Thus, the sentence 'El programa es bonito' is ambiguous, since there is no information on the surface to indicate whether the referent of programa is an event or a non-event. The resolution of the ambiguity lies in the particular idiosyncratic feature (i.e., [+ event] or [- event]) of the subject noun. But in the unambiguous sentence 'El programa es hoy,' the feature [+ event] is redundant, due to the presence of the temporal adverb, since the subject noun in this case cannot have the feature [- event].

It may be useful to call the learner's attention to such idiosyncratic features as [+ event], [- event], and several others related to the syntax, so that he may encode or decode effectively. In communicating messages, the more the language user is aware of the number of choices available to him, the more control he has of the language structure. And, presumably, the learning of the full,

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\*The learning would be either inductive or deductive training. Perhaps a deductive approach would save valuable time in the overall program of comprehension development. For related comments see Bull (1965, p. 139).

constituent, and redundant forms of language patterns facilitates the learner's awareness of the choices.

#### PEDAGOGY IN FOREIGN-LANGUAGE LEARNING

A question central to applied linguistics and foreign-language pedagogy is how to aid the first- or second-year learner in achieving control over the structure of the target language, to the point of being able to substitute freely among the available, structural alternatives. For example, in spontaneous conversation, native speakers of a language frequently use reduced forms (deletions or ellipses) of complete and full sentences. They can also produce the expanded or complete sentence from a reduced form, since the native speaker's intuition "tells" him the origin of the reduced form and the relatedness of its constituent structures to the complete form. He intuitively knows the underlying structure of the reduced form, because of the redundant features (or clues) given in the language structure or in the situational context. But during the initial stage--even during the intermediate stages--the non-native cannot be expected to develop facily that same native ability to the extent of easily converting from one syntactic pattern, say, a reduced form, to a corresponding expanded form.

It has been claimed (Saporta, 1966, p. 87) that the field of applied linguistics should not assume that what is learned comes by merely choosing a representative sample of utterances from the universe of language structure and generalizing about them. What is needed is a specification of what can co-occur with members of specific classes

of sentence elements. Such specification is the task of the linguist, and investigations are resulting from up-to-date theories (e.g., Chomsky, 1965).

The same claim (Saporta, 1966, p. 83) points out that there are certain capacities which a language learner must have to approximate the competence of a native speaker. He must be able to (1) distinguish grammatical from ungrammatical sentences, (2) produce and comprehend an infinite number of grammatical utterances, and (3) identify syntactically ambiguous sentences and more generally the interrelation of sentences.

In discussing certain linguistic capacities of the native speaker, Lees (1964, p. 84) makes the following assumption:

Thus, we must assume that an essential capacity of the language user and learner is his innate ability to view sentences of his language as being 'represented' on a multiplicity of linguistic levels of various and profound degrees of abstraction, of viewing sentences as literally 'containing' in their internal representations elements of syntactic structure and grammatical formatives which are physically invisible or inaudible, of interpreting sentences in terms of complex formal 'processes' of derivation from underlying abstract expressions.

The statement assumes that surface structure is derived from some basic, underlying structure. H. E. Palmer (Politzer, 1965, pp. 172-173), a pioneer of foreign-language teaching, stated nearly fifty years ago that the natural language may be divided into "primary matter" and "secondary matter." "Secondary matter" is derived from "primary matter." Another way of viewing this concept to indicate the interrelationships between the two kinds of matter is to demonstrate that "primary matter" precedes, or perhaps underlies, "secondary

matter," and, by means of some process, is converted into "secondary matter."\*

It should be one of the aims of pedagogical materials to facilitate the recognition of the relationships between related structures. Belasco (1965) argues that audio-lingual materials do not depart considerably from the grammatical principles found in the grammar-translation materials. The presentations are different, but the structural principles are essentially the same.

At one and the same time, such principles represent 'too much' language and 'not enough' language for the foreign-language learner. On the one hand, the grammar is too 'shallow:' it does not reflect the essential structure of the language. On the other hand, it is too 'extensive:' it represents an area too broad in scope to permit internalization of the underlying principles.

In other words, surface structures seem to be a necessary--but not a sufficient--condition for developing proficiency in using language effectively. One cannot neglect the "primary" or underlying structures of the language. And, presumably, the forms to be learned should be taken in terms of the smallest syntactic units, rather than sets of structures too extensive to facilitate effective teaching.

Many state and local curriculum guides encourage teachers not to rely exclusively on commercially prepared language materials, but rather to be inventive and produce their own materials to supplement the particular pedagogical approach. To carry out this aim, teachers may take advantage of the information provided by the

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\*Due to the fact that "primary matter" and "secondary matter" are vaguely-defined constructs, they are mentioned here merely to point out that certain structures may be effectively taught as derivatives of other structures.

language features discussed above. A guide to structural relationships and underlying features of the language may demonstrate the possibility of teaching a small, manageable set of elementary constructions first, and then, by modification and combination, converting these elementary constructions to add a larger set of possible sentences that a speaker of the language has at his disposal.

Without such information, teachers might invent pattern drills which include sentences with similar surface structures but dissimilar underlying structures. For example, one would not want to include in the same pattern drill two sentences such as "Me gusta la corbata" and "Me quita la corbata" with the implication that the syntactic elements of both have similar functions. To mix the structures in a drill may have the effect of causing the learner to generalize the surface structure indiscriminately in further learning.

Cases of this kind of structure-mixing exist in pedagogical materials. One such case was easily found in one of the three textbooks used as a source of language data for this study. The drill included the structures "ir al cine" and "jugar al tenis." Obviously, the surface patterns are similar. The underlying structures, however, are dissimilar.

A newly-organized description of language data, which on the surface seem unrelated, may be viewed as sets or sub-systems of the structures. The description of language data in this study organizes the structures into 18 sets of related structures and features such as basic patterns, verbal tense and aspect, interrogatives, comparatives,

etc. And although we do not suggest that, for example, the whole sub-system of interrogatives must precede or follow comparatives, the sets into which the data are organized may suggest a logical, orderly sequence. The sets may also suggest that the cut-off line between Level I and II should be "gerrymandered" so that one whole topic is made understandable, and is "mastered," in Level I, and another whole agglomeration is left until Level II, where it can be treated as a whole sub-system of the grammar.

In connection with related structures which form sub-systems within the language, an important question is: Is it possible to prescribe the order in which materials within each sub-system should be presented to the learner? Such a prescription would have to be based on a knowledge of what is relatively simple and easy, and what is relatively difficult and complex for the learner who is to be taught. Since we do not have this knowledge, what we have done is to arrange the structures within each set in an order that appears logical, readily grasped, and readily retained by comparison with other possible organizations of the same materials. Only by experimentation can it be determined what order is the most effective for presentation of each sub-system, and of the system as a whole, to a given learner or homogeneous group of learners.

In summary, since redundancy and structure are fundamental to language, second-language teaching may benefit through a presentation that calls the learner's attention to the redundancies, underlying structures, and interrelationships among the grammatical structures of the language. Such presentation may be carried out

effectively through a process of showing the step-by-step derivation of the new structure to be learned from another, related structure already learned.\* If evidence can be obtained suggesting that by proceeding from a full form to a corresponding deleted (reduced) form a learner is aided in developing his use and understanding of the deleted form, then this evidence would suggest also that sequential presentation is meaningful in language learning; that is, the full form contains a certain amount of redundancy which may best be taught before its counterpart, the reduced form. The authors postulate (following Ausubel, 1963) that complex concepts can be learned more efficiently, i.e., with a less expenditure of time and energy, if parts of the concepts are presented in a sequence such as to begin with the more immediately understandable, in the light of the learner's prior experience. If grammatical concepts are indeed relatively difficult, as student testimony seems to establish, it would follow that the syntax of a foreign language can be taught the most economically by building toward presentation of the more difficult parts and of the integrated wholes.

In this study it is assumed that, although language learning is not necessarily a linear process, language teaching is, and that particular descriptions and arrangements of language structures can facilitate the course the teacher takes in effectively teaching certain, related structures. It is not assumed, however, that there exists, a priori, only one order for optimizing the teaching of language

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\*One would caution against placing undue attention on grammatical dissection.

structures. For the purpose of investigating the former assumption-- important for the development of a definition of level--two null hypotheses have been posited: (1) learners do not learn to discriminate between grammatical and ungrammatical structures any better when teaching procedures present related structures in a systematic order, and (2) learners do not learn to discriminate between grammatical and ungrammatical structures any better when teaching procedures make explicit the structures and interrelationships of related structures. On the basis of these hypotheses, limited testing was conducted to find whether or not any support could be obtained for accepting or rejecting them.



## 2. METHODS AND TESTING

C. B. Christensen, J. R. Shawl

### 2.1 COLLECTION OF LANGUAGE DATA

The linguistic description of this study centers on various syntactic structures of Spanish. The language data used in developing the description (See below, Sec. 3) were obtained from three Spanish textbooks. One textbook (LaGrone, et al, 1961) was written primarily for first-year Spanish courses in secondary schools. Another (Mueller, et al, 1962) also written for secondary schools, could be used for a period extending beyond one school year. The third book (Wolfe, et al, 1963) was written primarily for the first-year college course.

These three textbooks were chosen on the basis of kind, variety, current popularity, and variety of publisher. The first two textbooks mentioned above contain only surface-structure patterns. They represent the dialogue approach to the teaching of audio-lingually oriented methods. No attempt is made in either book to formulate structural analyses or grammatical descriptions. The third textbook does contain a limited description of abstract sentence structures. It represents a more analytical approach to syntactic structure, but at the same time emphasizes pattern drills.\*

All sentences of the pattern drills and dialogues were

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\*For a more detailed description of the differences separating the two kinds of text, see Blickenstaff, et al, 1967).

extracted from each textbook and placed on 3 x 5 inch file cards for the purpose of cataloguing sentence-types. It soon became apparent that the sentences were both numerous and extremely varied, and that classifying them according to general grammatical categories and the order in which these categories appeared in a sentence would not provide a usable analysis of the data collected. This was partly due to the fact that the language description was being carried out on the surface structure of each sentence while ignoring the underlying structure which was not immediately apparent. Once an orientation was established as to the kinds of surface patterns the language data provided, generative-grammar linguistics became the main source of principles used to describe and organize the language data into sets of syntactic structures. Specifically, generative-grammar linguistics was used to investigate the interrelation of underlying structures in order to determine as nearly as possible, by linguistic means, the relationships among the surface structures. The relationships among the surface structures, then, became the guiding influence for organizing the patterns, originally gathered from textbooks, into sets of related structures.

## 2.2 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGNS

Each of the two principal investigators carried out independent experiments: one experiment was conducted in secondary schools for the language skills of auditory comprehension and speaking; the other, in college for the skills of reading and writing.

2.2.1 SECONDARY-SCHOOL EXPERIMENT C. B. ChristensenVariables

Two variables were set up in a two-way-analysis-of-variance design consisting of two different sequences of structures and two different kinds of statements about the structural relationships between related structures.

		Method of Sequencing	
		systematically ordered	regular order of textbook
Statements of Structural Relations	yes	E1 systematic; yes	C1 regular; yes
	no	E2 systematic; no	C2 regular; no

fig. 1

Description of Groups of Subjects (ss)

Four groups of senior-high-school learners (Ss) at a beginning level of Spanish formed the nucleus of the experiment. The four groups consisted of two 'E' groups (E1 and E2) and two 'C' groups (C1 and C2). The teachers together with their classes of Ss were randomly assigned one of the four groups, and at least two different classes of Ss and their teachers comprised each particular group in an attempt to control the teacher variable. E1 had 76 Ss. There were 80 Ss in E2. 111 Ss comprised C1, and C2 had 112 Ss.

The textbook (Oller, 1963) material used in the classroom was the same for all four groups. The design of the textbook is such that the order of presentation of sentence-types (i.e., interrogatives, nominatives, relatives, etc.) is random; that is, the initial presentation of sentence-types and exercises for drilling the structures do not systematically group together related sentence-types.

Teachers representing the groups were selected on the basis of availability and recommendation of district coordinators according to the coordinators' opinion of the teachers' similarity of approach. Some degree of homogeneity of presentation method existed among the teachers, since the foreign-language coordinators generally encouraged the adoption of the author's recommendations regarding the use of the textbook.

Twice during the first semester of beginning Spanish, the four groups received a "review" drill of the structures in the lessons studied. E1 received review material presented in a systematic order (See Appendix A) together with explanation of structural relationships (See Fig. 1). The structures were systematically ordered for E2, but no structural interrelationships were explained to them. The structures were presented to C1 in the normal order of the textbook and structural interrelationships were explained. The structures were presented in normal textbook order, but no structural relationships were explained to C2. In other words, the two 'C' groups received the review of the selected, related structures in the same "random" order in which they were originally presented in the textbook. The two 'E' groups received the same structures for review, but the sequence

in which the structures were presented was systematically ordered in an attempt to draw out structural relationships. In addition to the order variable, E1 and C1 received explicit statements about the interrelationships among the main structures, which would be used as content for later testing.

The first review took place immediately after the first-half of the fall semester's work; the second review just prior to the December vacation. The duration of each review was four to six days according to the speed of the class. After the second review, all Ss were tested. The same test was again administered within the first week after the Ss resumed school work after the two week vacation in December. The purpose of the testing was to investigate the differential effect of the variables, if any, on the performance of the Ss of different groups and to measure retention of proficiency.

#### Preparation of Review Material

The review material was based on one textbook (Oller, 1963) which is currently being used in certain school districts of the greater Seattle area.

Two sets of review materials were compiled. The first set corresponded to the first three lessons of the textbook. The first review was given to all Ss after they had completed three lessons in the text. The other set, which corresponded to the first seven lessons was given as review material to all Ss after they had completed seven lessons. The Ss were given reviews consisting of specific sentence structures (i.e., basic patterns, interrogatives,

nominatives, relatives, and deletions). Each set of review material contained instructions for the teacher regarding the presentation of the materials.

Pattern drills were devised on the basis of vocabulary found in the specific lessons of the textbook. A variety of pattern drills was employed (See Appendix A) to help maintain the interest of Ss. Pattern drills for E1 and E2 were arranged to present first all basic sentence structures. In later pattern drills, the basic sentence structures were used as a basis for developing other sentence structures (i.e., interrogatives, nominatives, etc.). This arrangement was established for the purpose of drawing attention to structural relations among the various patterns.

For C1 and C2 groups, pattern drills of specific sentence-types were arranged in the same order in which these sentence-types were originally found in the textbook lessons. The result was that the order of pattern drills for C1 and C2 groups was "random" as compared to the "fixed" order of drills for E1 and E2.

The review materials designed for E1 and C1 groups included an explanation of structural relationships. For example, in reviewing the interrogative pattern ;Qué + verb + subject?, the drill pattern would trace the derivation of ";Qué da Juan?" by starting with the basic pattern "Juan da algo" in the initial frame of the pattern. The second frame would substitute the interrogative element ;qué? to derive "Juan da ;qué?" The third frame would transpose the elements to derive ";Qué da Juan?". This derivation would be accompanied by an explanation of the relationships among the syntactic units involved

in the pattern.

### Preparation and Use of Test

A criterion test was designed to examine Ss' ability to recognize, by auditory comprehension, correct syntactic patterns and to produce, by speaking, various syntactic elements such as words, phrases, and sentences. The test was divided into three parts, and all test items were recorded on magnetic tape for uniform presentation to all groups of Ss. Part I contained forty-three Spanish sentences, twenty-one of which were syntactically correct. The other twenty-two sentences were syntactically incorrect. The order of presentation of sentences on the basis of correctness was randomly arranged. All Ss received the same random arrangement of sentences. The sentences, however, were ordered somewhat on the basis of difficulty with the easier ones being placed more in the initial portion of the test items. Ss were given instructions to (1) listen to each sentence spoken twice within a period of approximately eight seconds and (2) decide within a period of five seconds whether or not each sentence was syntactically correct. The Ss marked each answer as being either "correct" or "incorrect" on an IBM answer sheet.

Part II contained twenty-five grammatical sentences in Spanish, except that somewhere in its structure each contained a blank space representing a deletion of one of its syntactic elements such as a word or phrase. In the recording of this part of the test, a bell was sounded to indicate the blank space. The group of test items was ordered on the basis of difficulty, with the easier items placed

more toward the beginning of the group. Ss were given instructions to (1) listen to each sentence spoken twice within a period of approximately eight seconds and (2) invent within a period of seven seconds a word or phrase that could be used in the blank space as a logical part of the whole sentence. Ss recorded their invented responses on magnetic tape by means of a tape recorder set up for each S.

Part III contained twenty questions in Spanish. Ten questions were 'yes-no' questions designed to elicit a sentence with yes or no as part of the answer. The other ten questions were information questions designed to elicit a sentence containing specific information. As in the preceding parts, both sets of ten questions in Part III were ordered on the basis of difficulty. All Ss were given instructions to (1) listen to each question spoken twice within a period of approximately eight seconds and (2) formulate within a period of seven seconds an appropriate answer and record the response on magnetic tape.

#### Test Data Collection

All answers for Part I, marked by Ss on IBM answer sheets, were hand-scored by the investigator using a grid scoring key. All answers for Part II and III, recorded by Ss on magnetic tape, were later replayed and scored on the basis of grammaticality. For example, in Part II the response 'pronto' would be scored as "incorrect" for the test item "ellos van a (bell)." The response "ir al parque" would, however, be scored as 'correct.'" The answers to all test items were tabulated for further analysis.



### Test Results

Earlier it was assumed that language teaching is a linear process; that is, the teacher presents the material an item at a time. It was also assumed that no one optimal arrangement of language structures exists, a priori, for the teaching of those structures. In this connection, then, two null hypotheses were established: (1) learners do not learn to discriminate between grammatical and ungrammatical structures any better when teaching procedures present related structures in a systematic order and (2) learners do not learn to discriminate between grammatical and ungrammatical structures any better when teaching procedures make explicit the structures and the interrelationships of the structures.

Two variables, interstructural arrangement and explanations regarding structural relationships, were set up in a two-way-analysis-of-variance design for four groups of Ss (E1, E2, C1, and C2). The purposes of the design were to investigate the mean difference among all pairs of groups and to determine whether this difference should be attributed to chance alone (the null hypotheses) or whether it would be reasonable to conclude that the variables had differential effects on the learning tasks.

Table I shows the mean difference and significance levels of all pairs of groups for Parts I, II, and III, respectively, of the two criterion tests. An analysis of data indicates that Ss generally did better on the criterion tests when one or both variables were present in the instruction used with the particular textbook of this

experiment. Pairs of groups which included C2 tended toward higher  $\bar{t}$  values, resulting in the rejection of the null hypotheses. In auditory comprehension there was no significant difference on the first test between the two groups (C1 and C2) exposed to the textbook order of structures. Yet on the second test there was a significant difference between these two groups. This delayed significance may suggest the relevance of explanation of related structures during training to help learners retain a higher degree of proficiency in discriminating between correct and incorrect structures. Similarly, in auditory comprehension there was no significant difference on the first test between the E2 and C1 groups. On the second test, however, there was a significant difference which may suggest the relevance of systematically arranging related structures during training to aid the learner in discriminating between correct and incorrect structures.

Caution should be stressed, however, in an attempt to justify the value of either one of the two variables. The results of the tests indicate that there was no significant difference between the E1 and E2 groups and between the E1 and C1 groups. That is, the two pairs of groups (E1 - E2 and E1 - C1), in which one group (E1) was exposed to both variables and each of the other two groups was exposed to a different one of the two variables, showed no significant difference, and the null hypotheses were not rejected. Apparently, some other uncontrollable variable(s) (e.g., tensions derived from anticipating a vacation, different laboratory facilities in which the test was given to different groups, etc.) affected the behavior of  $\bar{S}_s$ .

TABLE I

TEST 1

	Part I			Part II			Part III					
	Mean Differ- ence	df	t	Signifi- cance Level	Mean Differ- ence	df	t	Signifi- cance Level	Mean Differ- ence	df	t	Signifi- cance Level
E1-E2	.65	154	1.04	*	-.13	88	.51	*	-1.42	88	1.12	*
E1-C1	1.41	185	2.71	p < .01	1.23	103	1.56	*	.18	103	.76	*
E1-C2	2.21	186	4.18	p < .001	2.13	88	2.40	p < .02	2.40	88	2.91	p < .01
E2-C1	.78	189	1.44	*	1.36	103	1.66	*	1.61	103	2.21	p < .05
E2-C2	1.57	190	2.87	p < .01	2.27	88	2.41	p < .02	3.82	88	4.91	p < .001
C1-C2	.80	221	1.76	*	.91	103	1.06	*	2.22	103	3.06	p < .01

\* = not significant

TABLE I

## TEST 2

	<u>Part I</u>			<u>Part II</u>			<u>Part III</u>					
	Mean Differ- ence	df	t	Signifi- cance Level	Mean Differ- ence	df	t	Signifi- cance Level	Mean Differ- ence	df	t	Signifi- cance Level
E1-E2	-.30	154	.52	*	-.75	88	.24	*	.16	88	.62	*
E1-C1	.74	185	1.49	*	1.14	103	1.29	*	.73	103	1.10	*
E1-C2	1.68	186	3.31	p<.001	2.65	88	2.80	p<.01	2.27	88	3.58	p<.001
E2-C1	1.04	189	2.10	p<.05	1.89	103	2.25	p<.05	.58	103	.78	*
E2-C2	1.98	190	4.02	p<.001	3.40	88	3.50	p<.001	2.11	88	2.86	p<.01
C1-C2	.94	221	2.20	p<.05	1.51	103	1.74	*	2.48	103	4.03	p<.001

\* = not significant

Table II compares the mean difference for each group, between Test 1 and Test 2. While the data indicate that groups which were exposed to one or both variables received higher scores, generally, than the group which was not exposed to either variable, the sporadic fluctuation of mean differences among groups for the different parts of the test would suggest that the independent variables of this study produce no favorable effects of proficiency-retention over a two-week period in which no instruction is given.

TABLE II

	<u>Mean Scores</u>		<u>Mean Difference</u>
	Test 1	Test 2	
	<u>Part I (43 items)</u>		
E1	24.91	23.25	-1.66
E2	24.26	23.55	- .71
C1	23.50	22.51	- .99
C2	22.70	21.57	-1.33
	<u>Part II (25 items)</u>		
E1	15.24	15.27	+ .03
E2	15.38	16.02	+ .64
C1	14.02	14.13	+ .11
C2	13.11	12.62	- .49
	<u>Part III (20 items)</u>		
E1	9.67	8.73	- .94
E2	11.09	8.58	-2.37
C1	9.48	8.00	-1.48
C2	7.27	6.48	- .76

### 2.2.2 DISCUSSION

Generally, successful learner achievement in the classroom depends on three factors: (1) the presentation of a well-articulated sequence of language structures and concepts, (2) the ability of the instructor to help the learner "internalize" the structures of the language without the interference of sophisticated grammar analysis or undue communication in the learner's native language, and (3) the motivation of the learner. Often, if the third factor is not present initially, it may be induced as a result of applying the first two factors.

The presentation of a well-articulated sequence of language structures is correlated with decisions of what materials should be presented together and which should come first. Decision-making of material presentation requires in-depth knowledge of language structure. Some specialists (Carroll, 1964; p. 4; Sachs, 1964; p. 14) have stated that teachers need to have a more precise understanding of the grammatical composition of the structures their students presumably learn to use. An understanding of language structure is gained, not by analysis of surface patterns alone, but rather by "looking" underneath the surface patterns and by correlating one structure with another. Such understanding of language structure can make the task of the teacher easier in providing pupils with a step-by-step build-up of structures, where this provision does not exist in the textbook.

If the view of the present investigator is correct, there is too much complex structure and too much transposition and deletion

of sentence constituents in beginning sections of many first-year texts. It cannot be supposed that first-year learners transpose and delete sentence constituents as freely as a native speaker does. Nor can it be believed that pupils induce structure from ellipsed sentences, unless, of course, they are encouraged to make direct translation back and forth from one language to the other. On the other hand, it is supposed that, through a systematic, step-by-step approach to language structure, such as to present first a basic (or full) sentence pattern which gives rise to a new structure through some process, the teacher may guide the learner more efficiently toward desired goals of proficiency than he otherwise would do.

For example, in presenting or using interrogative pronouns linked to prepositions, it is relevant to show the relationship of the preposition to both the interrogative pronoun and the item replaced by the pronoun:

Juan se acuerda de la señorita

Juan se acuerda de ¿quién?

¿De quién se acuerda Juan?

If these relationships are not exposed, the student may, as practical experience has shown, be confused, since a frequent interrogative construction in his native language, English, allows for either a "dangling" preposition or no preposition at all (e.g., "Whom does John think about?" or "Whom does John remember?").

Presumably, language control is closely related to the language user's "understanding" of internal and external structural relationships.

By internal relationships is meant the relation among the syntactic constituents within any given sentence pattern. External relationship means the relation of any given sentence pattern to another. It is supposed that the thoroughness of the pupil's learning parallels the extent to which a teacher is able to make these structural relationships known to the learner through classroom drilling.

The newly-organized description of language structures centers on the sequential development of related structures and explanations which stress those structural relationships. This description was employed in organizing review materials used in the experiment of this study (See Appendix A). The concepts of structural sequence and of explanations relative to structural relationships were employed as experimental variables. Although more rigorous experimentation and testing is needed in the area of arranging curriculum content and developing effective pedagogical presentations, test results obtained under specific conditions in this study are suggestive of certain points. First, the concepts just mentioned can be effective in teaching procedures to aid learners in the attainment of higher proficiency of auditory comprehension and oral production of certain syntactic patterns of Spanish. Second, one effective method of presenting material, then, may be to group related structures in sets, and, within a given set, the related structures may be presented by starting first with a basic sentence pattern, and thereafter, presenting the processes whereby it is converted to a target structure of the set. Third, the effectiveness



of these concepts may stem from the overview of the language structure they offer the teacher. This overview of language structure is relevant in providing the teacher with flexibility and versatility in organizing drill material to help guide the learner toward desired goals of language performance.

In light of test results, it is proposed that a model achievement level be defined partially in terms of related structures and logical sequences of related structures. Specifically, the proposal is made to group related structures into sets and, within a given set, to sequence the structures by starting with basic patterns and proceeding to related, converted patterns. Again, it must be pointed out that no rigid arrangement of related structures has been established. No claim is being made here to the effect that a logical order of structures exists, which optimizes the efficiency of teaching.

Two other developments, built in part upon the language description, are proposed as part of the definition of achievement level. The first is a set of operational statements of expected learner performance (or terminal behavior) of the smallest, individual units of syntactic structures to be learned. The other description, an outgrowth of the description of terminal behavior, consists of exemplary performance tests to be used as criteria in the periodic demonstration of learner performance of individual syntactic patterns. The value of the operational statement of terminal behavior is seen in the way a teacher might use them as a guide in his personal approach to teaching individual elements of

Spanish syntax. The performance test is an instrument employed by the instructor to check a learner's proficiency in using each kind of syntactic structure. When the learner satisfactorily fulfills the conditions of all performance tests, it may be said that he has completed Level II and is ready for the ensuing level(s).

The following grid could be used as a check-list to guide teachers in effectively moving individual learners toward the goal of terminating Level II, with all cells of the grid completed at that time.

	Auditory Comprehension	Oral Production
Nouns		
Determiners		
Adverbials		
Basic Patterns		
Verbal Aspects		
Negation		
Interrogation		
Relativization		
Noun Modification		
Nominalization		
Pronouns		
Imperatives		
Comparison		
Exclamation		
Passive Const.		
Alternate Sentence Patterns		
Deletions		

2.2.3 COLLEGE EXPERIMENT J. R. ShawlVariables

A factorial design (2 X 2) is used in this project to experimentally demonstrate the hypotheses posited above (see pp. 31-32). It includes two independent variables ( $X_1$  and  $X_2$ ):  $X_1$  - method of sequencing structures:  $X_2$  - explicit statements of structural relations. Each independent variable is further dichotomized into: experimental order vs. textbook order for  $X_1$ , and the presence of explicit statements of structural relationships vs. the absence of such statements for  $X_2$ . This type of design allows four possible combinations of variables and requires the Ss to be assigned to four groups.

		$(X_1)$ Method of sequencing structures	
		experimental order	textbook order
$(X_2)$ Explicit statements of structural relationships	yes		
	no		

fig. 2

y

Description of the Experimental Groups

Within the realistic setting of an ongoing educational program at Northern Illinois University (DeKalb, Illinois), four groups of Ss (subjects) were formed for this experiment. The 73 Ss were all taken from the beginning course (FL-162) in Spanish, the second semester of the first year, during which time the Ss received the grammatical structures selected for the test for the first time. None of the Ss had been exposed to these structures until they were presented by the Es and the Instructors. The Ss were neither aware of the experiment itself nor of the fact that they were part of any special group until they were tested. For the experiment, each group consisted of a class of learners presently studying FL-162, and were designated as belonging to one of the four groups described below:

Group<sub>1</sub> (16 Ss): were taught the experimentally-organized grammatical structures, and explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships as presented and described in this study.

Group<sub>2</sub> (22 Ss): were taught the experimentally-organized structures, but no explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships were given.

Group<sub>3</sub> (16 Ss): were taught the textbook-organized grammatical structures, and explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships as presented and described in this study.

Group<sub>4</sub> (19 Ss): were taught the textbook-organized grammatical structures, and no explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships were given.

It must be noted, however, that although the Ss in Groups two and four were not exposed to the explicit statements of syntactic composition as presented and described in this study, they were not prevented from seeing other traditional statements of grammatical description for the experimental structures.

#### The Grammatical Structures

The grammatical structures used in this experiment include sentences in which a nominalized sentence occurs in subject position, object-of-verb position, and object-of-preposition position. Traditionally, these structures are presented in separate sections of a teaching text, or as in the case of audio-lingual materials throughout the lessons, with no attempt to show the structural similarity that exists among them. For example, sentences like "Es preciso que Juan venga" are included in a section devoted to

Impersonal Expressions; sentences like "Lo haré para que Juan venga" are included in a section of Adverbial Clauses (usually treating para que as a conjunction); and sentences like "quiero que Juan venga" are treated in a section devoted to Noun Clauses. In presenting these structures, most textbooks concentrate on the choice that must be made between the indicative/subjunctive for the underlined structures.

In this study, however, these grammatical structures are presented and described in the same section - "Nominalization of a Constituent Sentence with que" - bringing into focus their structural similarities.

In presenting the experimental structures to the Ss, an equal number of class periods was used, although the Groups taught the structures according to the textbook organization, received other nonrelated grammatical material along with the experimental structures.

#### Materials and Procedures

Quantitative post-tests for the skills of reading and writing were needed to measure any differences in learning achievement produced by the independent variables. Commercial tests in Spanish were not available which would measure learner achievement in terms of the descriptions of terminal behavior in this study. Consequently, the tests used in this experiment to measure learner achievement for the skills of reading and writing were constructed by the investigator.

For the reading test, each S had the entire test before him in printed form. The test consisted of 20 completion items for which the S read an incomplete Spanish fragment followed by four suggested choices, only one of which, when joined with the stimulus fragment, formed a grammatically correct sentence. He was to select this one and mark it on his answer sheet. The following is an example (see Appendix C for the complete test):

Yo saldré para \_\_\_\_\_.

- a. que José puede comer
- b. a leer el periódico
- c. que Juan venga temprano
- d. María irá al cine

The writing test consisted of 12 completion items. Each item presented the S with a Spanish sentence fragment followed by a blank space in which he was instructed to complete the fragment by writing an appropriate grammatical structure. The following is an example:

Me quedaré en casa para que \_\_\_\_\_.

### Test Results

The achievement tests in the skills of reading and writing were administered to all Ss. The relevant statistical results for these tests are reported in Tables III-VIII.

A comparison of the mean scores of the two groups exposed to explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships, as presented and described in this study, with those of the two groups not exposed to these explicit statements (Reading: 14.00 vs.

9.32) (Writing: 9.30 vs. 7.44), reveals that the Ss who were taught explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships performed noticeably better than Ss who did not receive these statements; hence the null hypothesis of no difference in achievement between Ss receiving explicit statements and those not receiving explicit statements is rejected. That is, on the basis of the data, we can state that the presence vs. the absence of explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships is significantly associated with learner achievement for the skills of reading and writing.

A comparison of the mean scores of the two groups exposed to the grammatical structures arranged and presented according to the experimental order with those of the two groups exposed to the grammatical structures presented according to the textbook order (Reading: 11.89 vs. 11.42) (Writing: 8.10 vs. 8.64), reveals that the order of presentation of the grammatical structures had little effect on achievement scores for the skills of reading and writing; hence the null hypothesis of no difference in achievement between Ss receiving the grammatical structures according to the experimental order and the textbook order is not rejected.

For reading, since the difference between the mean scores within the experimental order is practically the same as the difference between the mean scores within the textbook order (4.71 vs. 4.65), no interaction between the independent variables was observed (See Table III).

For writing, however, the difference between the mean scores



within the experimental order was observed not to be equal to the difference between the mean scores for the textbook order (2.02 vs. 1.71). This would suggest that the explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships had a slightly greater advantage over no statements in the experimental order than in the textbook order (See Table IV).

#### 2.2.4 DISCUSSION

While the performance scores of subjects who were taught the grammatical structures used in this experiment along with explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships were substantially higher, for both the skills of reading and writing, than the performance scores for those who received these structures without the explicit statements, there seemed to be no significant difference in performance scores due to the specific organization of the grammatical structures used in this experiment. That is, no significant advantage of presenting these structures according to the organization used in this study (experimental order) over the organization used in the textbook (textbook order), or vice versa, was observed. As a result, the null hypothesis that learners do not demonstrate a higher degree of learning achievement in the recognition and production of grammatical structures by being exposed to materials in which the language data have been organized into sets of related structures was not rejected.

Though the null hypothesis was not rejected, it must be pointed out, however, that both the experimental order and the

Table III

## Mean Reading Scores

(X <sub>2</sub> ) Explicit Statements of Syntactic Comp. and Interrls.	(X <sub>1</sub> ) Organization of Grammatical Structures		Mean:	Difference:
	experimental order	textbook order		
yes	14.25	13.75	<u>14.00</u>	<u>.50</u>
no	9.54	9.10	<u>9.32</u>	<u>.44</u>
Mean:	<u>11.89</u>	<u>11.42</u>		
Difference:	<u>4.71</u>	<u>4.65</u>		

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Table IV

## Mean Writing Scores

(X <sub>2</sub> ) Explicit Statements of Syntactic Comp. and Interrls.	(X <sub>1</sub> ) Organization of Grammatical Structures		Mean:	Difference:
	experimental order	textbook order		
yes	9.11	9.50	<u>9.30</u>	<u>.39</u>
no	7.09	7.79	<u>7.44</u>	<u>.70</u>
Mean:	<u>8.10</u>	<u>8.64</u>		
Difference:	<u>2.02</u>	<u>1.71</u>		

## Summary of Raw Data for Reading:

Table V

	experimental order	textbook order	Total:
yes	$\Sigma X$ 228	$\Sigma X$ 220	448
	$\Sigma X^2$ 3378	$\Sigma X^2$ 3166	6544
	n 16	n 16	32
no	$\Sigma X$ 210	$\Sigma X$ 173	383
	$\Sigma X^2$ 2168	$\Sigma X^2$ 1715	3883
	n 22	n 19	41
Total:	438	393	831
	5546	4881	10427
	38	35	73

## Summary of Analysis of Variance for Reading Scores:

Table VI

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<u>Between</u>	394	3			
r	390	1	390	47	(p<.01)
c	1	1	1	<1	(n.s.)
r + c	3	1	3	<1	(n.s.)
<u>Within</u>	574	69	8.3		
Total:	968	72			

## Summary of Raw Data for Writing:

Table VII

	experimental order	textbook order	Total:
yes	$\Sigma X$ 164 $\Sigma X^2$ 1570 n 16	$\Sigma X$ 152 $\Sigma X^2$ 1496 n 16	316 3066 32
no	$\Sigma X$ 156 $\Sigma X^2$ 1186 n 22	$\Sigma X$ 141 $\Sigma X^2$ 1109 n 19	297 2295 41
Total:	320 2756 38	293 2605 35	613 5361 73

## Summary of Analysis of Variance for Writing Scores:

Table VIII

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between	130.03	3			
r	124.42	1	124.42	102.83	(p<.01)
c	.05	1	.05	<1	(n.s.)
r + c	5.56	1	5.56	4.595	(p<.05)
<u>Within</u>	83.45	69	1.21		
Total:	213.48	72			

textbook order used in this experiment were quite similar. In the experimental order, the structures used in this experiment were presented in sequence without any unrelated material coming between them. In the textbook order, even though unrelated material interrupted the sequential presentation, the structures used in this experiment were all contained in three almost contiguous chapters (42, 44, 46). It might be the case, therefore, that for this experiment, not enough difference between the experimental order and the textbook order was present to influence learner achievement one way or the other. Further testing will have to be carried out in this area before more reliable results can be obtained.

Achievement scores suggest that second-language learners who are exposed to language data along with explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships (as presented and described in this study) demonstrate a higher degree of learning achievement in the recognition and production of these data, for the skills of reading and writing, than do learners who are exposed to the same language data, but do not receive the explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships.

Although the test results did not indicate any significant difference in learner achievement due to the specific organization (textbook vs. experimental) for the structures used in this experiment, certain reservations were made on account of the similarity in the two presentations.

It would seem that the differences in learner achievement could be explained by assuming that learners do "learn" a foreign

language as a result of exposure to language data which have been organized and presented in more than one way, but that learning is more or less complete to the extent that the learner "understands" the grammatical structure of what it is he is learning.

The implications of these findings seem to be of considerable interest for persons concerned with second-language teaching, since they demonstrate that learners exposed to language data for which explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships are given (according to the analysis afforded by this study), demonstrate a higher degree of learning achievement than those not exposed to these statements.

A definition of the standard for learner achievement at Level II, then, in which these explicit statements of syntactic composition are included, and language data are organized so that the interrelationships existing among structures are revealed seems to be pedagogically desirable.

### 3. DESCRIPTIONS OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURES AND OF EXPECTED PERFORMANCE

INTRODUCTION C. B. Christensen, J. R. Shawl

The structural description of the language data has been organized into sections. The order of presentation of structures within an individual section is based on our judgment regarding an effective description of the language data, and should not be interpreted as suggesting the most efficient learning sequence. The kinds of structures described in this Level were not established on linguistic or psycholinguistic theory, but were taken from current audio-lingual teaching materials. Linguistic theory and principles were used not to establish scientifically what was to be included in Level II, but rather, to describe and organize a body of existing Spanish sentences in the most enlightening way available.

Each section of language structures consists of an introductory explanation followed by a linguistic description of a number of specified structures. The linguistic description is then followed by a recommended specification of the learner's expected performance (terminal behavior) of the previously described linguistic structures. The specification of terminal behavior is presented in a number of operational statements followed by an exemplary performance test which may be administered to an individual pupil to demonstrate whether he has learned to use the structure involved. The introductory explanations accompanying each section are intended to serve as an orientation for the following linguistic description,

as well as, in some instances, a justification for the particular linguistic description given. To prepare the learner to perform correctly, the teacher is constantly guided by the descriptions of language structures and of expected performance of the learner as described in this main section.

The recommended terminal performance which concludes each section is organized and presented in relation to the four language skills: auditory comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing. Our description of expected performance consists of a number of operational statements in terms of the recognition and production of the linguistically described structures.

PROPOSED OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF THE FOUR BASIC  
LANGUAGE SKILLS FOR LEVEL II

Auditory comprehension is defined for Level II as the ability to (1) discriminate between or among the sentence patterns in general and among the smallest syntactic units in particular of the structures enumerated in this study, and (2) assign an appropriate semantic interpretation for the syntactic structure involved, according to the particular vocabulary selected by the teacher. To demonstrate this ability, the learner is not expected to verbalize grammar rules. It is proposed that a Level-II-learner of Spanish may demonstrate the ability to distinguish the syntactic patterns of the language, which are well-formed and meaningful utterances from those that are not, by successfully complying with the performance tests\*

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\*Certain performance tests are devised so as to investigate the learner's ability to distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical structures (See Saporta, 1966, p. 83 for assumptions relative to necessary capacities of the language learner).



described for each set of structures in this study, or similar performance tests devised by the teacher.

Speaking is defined for Level II as the ability to produce orally, within the allophonic range of Spanish, the various sentence patterns in general and the smallest syntactic units in particular. To demonstrate this ability, it is proposed that a Level-II-learner of Spanish successfully comply with the performance tests described for each set of structures in this study, or similar performance tests devised by the teacher.

Reading directly in Spanish is defined for Level II as the ability to correlate a graphic configuration of the writing system with its corresponding acoustic configuration of the phonological system, and to assign an appropriate semantic interpretation for sentences representing those grammatical structures included in this study.

In the process of reading, the learner reacts to recurrent and contrastive graphic configurations, which consist of the letter patterns and their spatial arrangement on paper set forth according to the conventions of the writing system. These visual symbols serve to signal the grammatical structure and semantic interpretations to be assigned to messages.

A learner "reads," therefore, insofar as he responds correctly to the language elements represented by the graphic configurations. His response must be both instantaneous and automatic if he is to read directly in Spanish with appropriate speed and comprehension. The ultimate success in developing the learner's ability to read

directly in Spanish with appropriate speed and comprehension depends very much on his control of the phonological system, as well as on his knowledge of the grammatical structures of the language.

Writing is defined for Level II as the ability to correlate an acoustic configuration of the phonological system with its appropriate graphic configuration of the writing system for sentences representing those grammatical structures included in this study. The learner "writes," therefore, insofar as he converts a phonetic pattern into a graphic one. This he does by means of letters, numerals, punctuation marks, spaces, and spelling rules. This study assumes mastery of these elements, and concentrates on grammatical structures.

In this proposed definition of Achievement Level II, no distinction is made between the repertory of spoken patterns and that of written patterns. That is, writing, as conceived here, will not include additional or different grammatical structures from those included in speaking.

### 3.1 The Noun Phrase (NP)\* J. R. Shawl

A noun phrase, as here defined, can consist of an optional determiner plus a noun; or of a pronoun alone. Each of these elements (determiner, noun, pronoun) can be further analyzed into its constituent parts, representing the internal structure of the noun phrase. In a sentence a noun phrase can function in any one of

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\*Several abstract symbols are used through this section. See Glossary for the meanings of these symbols.

four ways: as subject, as object-of-verb, as object-of-preposition, and as predicate nominal (i.e., after the linking verb ser). These functions of a noun phrase are viewed as constituting its external structure, that is, its relation to the other sentence elements or to other sentences.

Since there is considerable variety in the internal structure of noun phrases, a listing of all the constituents possible for any given predicate phrase pattern would unduly complicate the description. In this study, therefore, an analysis of determiners, nouns, and pronouns is made separately with all subsequent references to the individual types of noun phrases indicated by the cover-term NP.

### 3.1.1 Nouns

Grammarians and linguists agree that there must be some kind of classification of nouns into sub-classes or sub-categories in order to provide simpler and more revealing linguistic descriptions. Traditionally, Spanish nouns have been viewed as indivisible entities sub-categorized depending on either morphological shape or syntactic behavior. For example, Spanish nouns need to be sub-categorized in terms of gender (masculine/feminine), whether or not they take a plural (count/mass), whether or not they can be preceded by a determiner (common/proper), etc. Any description of Spanish nouns must reflect the fact that these, and other, sub-categories are relevant.

Further, Spanish nouns exhibit relationships among themselves and with other sentence elements. These relationships should be reflected in the sub-categorization of the nouns. For example, the

nouns José and España belong in a class of proper nouns, while mujer and silla are members of the class of common nouns. But, on the other hand, José and mujer belong to a class of animate nouns while España and silla belong to a class of inanimate nouns. From this example and many others like it, it can be seen that sub-categorization of Spanish nouns involves some cross-classification.

The relationships between nouns and other sentence elements must also be reflected in the sub-categorization of Spanish nouns, since several other sentence elements are dependent on the nature of the noun chosen. For example, an inanimate noun cannot occur with the verb amar which can only have an animate subject noun.

One way to account for these facts is to view Spanish nouns as consisting of sets of features rather than indivisible entities. This use of features enables one to make more economical and revealing statements about nouns. For example, all animate nouns can be referred to as those nouns containing the feature [+animate] without reference to their gender or whether or not they are common or proper nouns.

Thus, Spanish nouns must be distinguished for the feature [±human] (read plus or minus human) since the "personal a" must be inserted before a noun with the feature [+human] when it is the direct object of most transitive verbs; and since certain sub-classes of verbs require a noun with the feature [+human].

Yo veo el coche  
[-human]

Yoveo a la muchacha  
[+human]

Juan cree eso (Creer requires a noun as subject with  
the feature [+human])

Spanish nouns must be distinguished for the feature [ $\pm$  abstract] since some verbs do not permit a noun object with the feature [+ abstract].

María cuece el arroz  
[-abstract]

\*María cuece la justicia  
[+ abstract]

Spanish nouns must be distinguished for the feature [ $\pm$  animate] since certain verbs require nouns with the feature [+ animate] while other verbs require nouns with the feature [-animate] e.g.

El pollo come arroz.  
[+ animate]

\*El libro come arroz.  
[-animate]

El tiempo transcurrió.  
[-animate]

\*El perro transcurrió.  
[+ animate]

Spanish nouns must be distinguished for  $\left. \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\}$  gender (read 1 or 2 gender), i.e., masculine/feminine, since the determiners and other modifiers must agree in gender with nouns.

El hombre es bueno.  
[1 gender]

La muchacha es buena.  
[2 gender]

Spanish nouns may be of the feature [ $\pm$  class] (read plus or minus classification). When the predicate nominal NP of the features [+ class] and [+ common] is unmodified, it merely classifies the subject NP as to profession, nationality, religion, or political

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\*An asterisk before a construction indicates that the sequence is ungrammatical or deviant.

inclination. Under these conditions the predicate nominal NP does not co-occur with an indefinite determiner (See Sec. 3.1.4).

Juan es médico  
[+ class]

Soy americano  
[+ class]

Spanish nouns must be distinguished for the feature [± count] (i.e., count/mass) since nouns with the feature [-count] ordinarily have no plural, whereas, nouns with the feature [+count] can have a plural.

El trigo está rico.  
[-count]

\*Los trigos están ricos.

Spanish nouns must be distinguished for the feature [± common] (i.e., common/proper), since most dialects of Spanish nouns with the feature [-common] do not occur after determiners; and since nouns with the feature [+common] may be singular or plural, whereas, nouns with the feature [-common] occur only in the singular.

El gato está aquí.  
[-common]

\*El Fido está aquí.  
[-common]

\*Fidos están aquí.

The feature [± event], a sub-class of non-animate Spanish nouns, must be distinguished, since the choice of the linking verbs (ser/estar) followed by a locative or temporal adverb depends on the presence or absence of this feature in the subject noun. e.g.

El libro está aquí.  
[-event]

El baile es aquí.  
[+ event]

but:

\*El libro es aquí. (i.e., libro is not viewed as an event)

Each noun-type is distinguished from every other noun-type by one or more features, so that, for example, the noun class represented by libro is distinguished from the noun class represented by casa in the feature [gender], and from the noun class represented by sinfonía in the features [gender] and [event]. In summary, then, the following Spanish noun types are included in Level II.

Table IX

libro	casa	baile	sinfonía
[+common +count -animate -event 1gender]	[+common +count -animate -event 2gender]	[+common +count -animate +event 1gender]	[+common +count -animate +event 2gender]
perro	vaca	hombre	mujer
[+common +count +animate -human 1gender]	[+common +count +animate -human 2gender]	[+common +count +animate +human 1gender -class.]	[+common +count +animate +human 2gender -class.]
médico	monja	ingenio	justicia
[+common +count +animate +human 1gender +class.]	[+common +count +animate +human 2gender +class.]	[+common -count -animate +abstract 1gender]	[+common -count -animate +abstract 2gender]
arroz	plata	José	María
[+common -count -animate 1gender -abstract]	[+common -count -animate 2gender -abstract]	[-common +animate +human 1gender]	[-common +animate +human 2gender]
Fido	Brazil	Bolivia	
[-common +animate -human 1gender 2gender]	[-common -animate 1gender]	[-common -animate 2gender]	

### 3.12 Terminal Behavior for Nouns

In order to recognize and produce nouns correctly, a learner must be able to discriminate among the features found in Table IX above. In addition, he must be able to discriminate between the features of singularity (sg) and plurality (pl) of nouns. The learner's discrimination of these features is reflected in his understanding of the correct syntactic use of nouns with other sentence elements, due to certain features present or not present in a noun's set of features.

The learner discriminates correctly among the features of Spanish nouns by recognizing as correct, or by producing:

1. a Determiner with nouns of the feature [+ common].
2. no Determiner with nouns of the feature [- common].
3. a plural morpheme with nouns of the feature [+ count].
4. no plural morpheme with nouns of the feature [- count].
5. nouns of the feature [+ animate] with verbs that require nouns of that feature.
6. nouns of the feature [- animate] with verbs that require nouns of that feature.
7. nouns of the feature [+ abstract] with verbs that require nouns of that feature.
8. nouns of the feature [- abstract] with verbs that require nouns of that feature.
9. a "personal a" with object-of-verb nouns of the feature [+ human] .
10. no "personal a" with object-of-verb nouns not of the feature [+human].
11. a locative or temporal adverb following the verb *Ser* when the subject noun contains the feature [+ event].



12. a locative adverb following the verb Estar when the subject noun contains the feature [- event].
13. [1 gender] or [2 gender] of the noun with an accompanying Determiner or predicate adjective.
14. a Determiner with a modified noun of the feature [+ class.] in predicate nominal position.
15. no Determiner with an unmodified noun of the feature [+ class.] in predicate nominal position.

### Performance test of Noun

#### Auditory Comprehension

To have the learner recognize the correct syntactic use of nouns, the examiner presents orally to the learner sixteen sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). The majority of the sentences are grammatically correct. That is, the noun(s) used in each sentence is (are) syntactically compatible with the other sentence elements. The rest of the sentences are grammatically incorrect; the noun(s) used in the sentence is (are) syntactically incompatible with the other sentence elements. The learner listens to each sentence, and, within a period of seven seconds, recognizes the noun(s) used in the sentence, repeats it (them) and says "sí" if the noun is used correctly in the sentence, and "no" if it is used incorrectly.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say a sentence to you in Spanish. You listen to the sentence, and, within a short period, repeat all nouns mentioned in my sentence, and say the word "sí" if the noun is used correctly and "no" if the noun is used incorrectly. For example, I could say "La casa cree la verdad, and you would say "la casa-no" and "la verdad-sí.

Examiner: Tengo un coche nuevo

Learner: un coche-sí

E: Juan es médico  
 L: Juan-sí, médico-sí  
 E: El médico es casa  
 L: el médico-sí, casa-no

etc.

### Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner produce an appropriate noun for any given context, the examiner presents orally twenty simple and varied sentences (of not more than ten syllables each) in which a blank occurs. (The examiner may wish to make a bell-sound or say the word blank to indicate the position of the blank space within the sentence). The learner listens to each context, and, within a period of five seconds, he produces orally in the blank space a nominal element which fits the context of the sentence given by the examiner. Obviously, this proficiency test cannot be given until the sentence types (of Sec. 3.2) used in the test have been learned by the pupil. The sentences used to elicit responses should not be duplicates of sentences the learner may have memorized previously from teaching materials. Memorized sentences are not a good indication of a learner's ability to control the syntax of the language.

#### Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say a sentence in Spanish. There will be a blank space somewhere in the sentence. After you listen to my sentence, spoken twice, think of something in Spanish that could logically fit in the blank space to make a complete sentence. For example, I could say, "Blank juega el fútbol." and you could say "El chico" as in "El chico juega al fútbol."

Examiner: Juan entra en blank .

Learner: el hotel

E: El señor López es blank .  
 L: médico.  
 E: El chico habla a blank .  
 L: María.  
 E: El blank no es aquí.  
 L: baile  
 E: Blank cree eso.  
 L: Mamá  
 E: Estamos en la blank de María.  
 L: casa

etc.

### 3.1.3 Determiners C. B. Christensen J. R. Shawl

The pre-nominal element, Determiner, is described in terms of five separate constituents, each of which contains a finite membership. Some of the members can occur singly before a noun while others occur in combinations with one another. For example, est- can occur singly before a noun whereas tod- occurs in combinations with any one of the members of the definite constituent. There are, moreover, restrictions on which members can co-occur. The constituents and their members are listed in Table X; the co-occurrence restrictions among the members themselves appear in sections 3.1.4.1 and 3.1.4.2 below.

Table X

tod-	Definite	Limiting	Cardinal	Quantifier
tod-	-l- est- es- aquel-	nism- otr- únic-	uno dos tres ...	poc- much- más ordinals
	Indefinite			
	un- ciert- algun- cualquier-			

In most cases the patterns in the following two sets of structures center around the elements classified as Definite and Indefinite.

Structure Patterns and Examples

Definite noun

este hombre

Tod- Definite noun

todos estos hombres

Definite Limiting noun

estos otros hombres

Definite Cardinal noun

estos tres hombres

Definite Quantifier noun

los pocos libros

Cardinal noun

tres libros

Quantifier noun

muchos hombres

Structure Patterns and Examples

Indefinite noun

algún hombre

Indefinite Limiting noun

algún otro hombre

Indefinite Quantifier noun

unos pocos libros

3.1.4 Terminal Behavior for Determiners

The learner correctly discriminates the following determiner members and their combinations by recognizing as correct, or by producing:

1. poc-, much-, más before nouns of the features [+ count, pl] or [- count, sg].
2. the Cardinal un- before nouns of the features [+ count, sg].
3. Cardinals other than un- (i.e., dos, tres, etc.) before nouns of the features [+ count, pl].
4. otr- before nouns.
5. -l-, est-, es-, aque- before nouns of the feature [+ common].
6. A Cardinal plus a noun followed by más.
7. any Definite member plus any Limiting member before a noun (of the feature [+ common]).
8. any Definite member plus any Cardinal member, other than un, before a noun of the feature [pl].
9. any Definite member plus a Quantifier before a noun; noting the restrictions placed on Quantifier listed in (1) above.
10. tod- plus any Definite member before nouns of the features [- count, sg] or [+ count, pl].
11. any Indefinite member before nouns of the feature [+ common].
12. any Indefinite member plus poc- before nouns of the features [+ count, pl].
13. any Indefinite member plus otr- before nouns.

### Performance Test of Determiners

#### Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner produce orally the correct sequence and form of determiners, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of fifteen sets of varied determiners. Each set contains one, two, or three determiners, each of which is a member of a different class as listed in Table X. The examiner also

presents a different noun for each set of determiners. The learner listens to the noun and the determiners, and, within a period of five seconds, he produces them orally in the proper order with all the morphological features appropriate to the noun.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will give you a noun such as chicas. I will also give you one, two, or three words that can be said with the noun. Two examples of these words are dos and la. These words may be given to you in scrambled order. You listen to the noun and the other words and then put them all together in the right order and with the right endings such as "las dos chicas."

Examiner: lápiz, otro, alguno.

Learner: algún otro lápiz.

E: hombres, este, cinco.

L: estos cinco hombres.

E: chicas, todo la primera.

L: todas las primeras chicas.

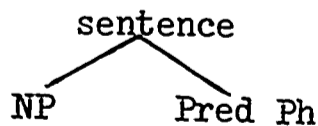
etc.

### 3.2 The Predicate Phrase C. B. Christensen, J. R. Shawl

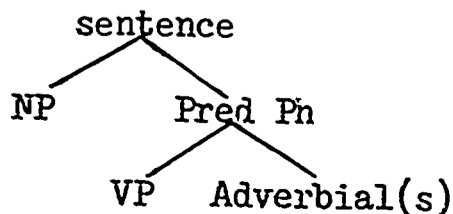
An examination of the components of a wide variety of Spanish sentence patterns, in the abstract, has led to the following analysis:

Spanish sentences are divided into two main divisions:

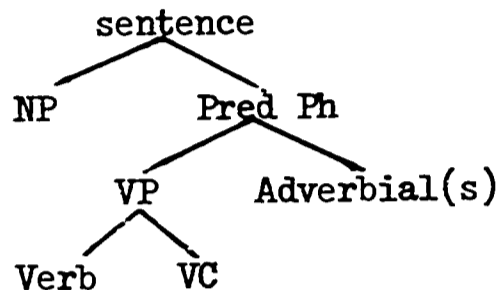
a subject noun or noun phrase (NP) and a predicate phrase (Pred Ph).



The Pred Ph consists mainly of a verb phrase (VP) and an optional predicate complement consisting of adverbial elements of time, location and/or manner (see section 3.4).



The VP is divided into two parts: a verb and a verb complement (VC) containing two elements: a complement (Comp) and an indirect object phrase (IOPh). The verb also contains an auxiliary constituent which will be described in section 3.3.



There are four major verb classes: ser\*, estar\*, transitive (Vt), and intransitive (Vi). The following chart illustrates concisely a variety of abstract structures arranged to form certain basic and full sentence patterns. The division of the chart into four sections is governed by the four major verb classes.

---

\*Ser and Estar, although individual verbs, serve as labels to represent two verb classes, since they are perhaps the most frequently used members of their respective classes.

Chart 1

Sentence

Pred Ph

VP

Subject	Verb	Verb Complement		Predicate Complement (Adverb)		
		Comp	IOPh	Time	Loc	Mann
NP	ser	NP adjs {de para}	{a para} NP	"	"	"
NP	estar	Adjs	{a para} NP	"	"	"
NP	Vt	NP [...]* [Inf]	{a para} NP	"	"	"
NP	Vi	PhC	{a para} NP	"	"	"

There are, however, certain restrictions placed on these elements, for not all members can co-occur with one another. The possible combinations of elements within the predicate phrase for Level II are described below using abstract symbols to represent classes of elements.

The four major verb classes (Ser, Estar, Transitive, and Intransi-

---

\*The suspension points represent a modified embedded sentence.



tive) serve as centers around which the description is based.\*

Each verbal center may be accompanied by a limited number of complements functioning as adjectives, (pro-) nouns, and/or adverbs.

### 3.2.1 Ser (Linking Verbs: ser, hacer-se, parecer...)

#### Structural Patterns and Examples

(1) NP Ser NP

Juan es el cónsul.  
José se hace médico.

(2) NP Ser NP (Loc) (Temp) (Mann)\*\*

El señor Madero es el médico en este pueblo.  
María es monja ahora.  
Juanita es la azafata por la mañana.  
María es la azafata generalmente.

(3) NP Ser Adj

(a) NP Ser (Int) Adjs

Juan es (muy) bueno.

(b) NP Ser de NP

El libro es de papel.  
La casa es de madera.

---

\*The surface patterns (actual sentences) used in this and other sections to exemplify abstract descriptions of syntactic structures may or may not reflect normal word order of Spanish. The various word orders in this section are viewed as base forms which may be used to derive other, related structures. The justification for presenting a given word order is the need to posit basic, or underlying, structures in a systematic order, regardless of whether or not that order is the most common. Pedagogically, a base pattern with deviant word order may first be presented (but not practiced!) as part of a regular structural system. The base pattern is then converted to the normal pattern (see Sec. Alternate Sentence Patterns) and practiced.

\*\*See Sec. 3.4 for a description of (Loc), (Temp), and (Mann).

Structural Patterns and Examples (Cont.)

(4) NP      Ser      Adj      (Loc)      (Temp)      (Mann)

El clima es bueno aquí.  
 El clima es malo en el norte.  
 Juan es bueno generalmente.  
 La lectura es interesante por lo común.

(5) NP              Ser              Adj              IOPh\*

Este libro es interesante para mí.  
 La casa le parece buena a Juan.

(6) NP      Ser      Adj      IOPh      (Loc)      (Temp)      (Mann)

El estudio me es interesante por la mañana.

(7) NP              Ser              (Loc)              (Temp)

[+ event]

El baile es aquí.  
 La lectura fue a las dos.  
 El rosario es en la iglesia.  
 El concierto será mañana a las dos.

(8) NP      Ser      { Loc }      (Loc)      (Temp)      (Mann)  
 [+ event]

El baile es aquí por lo común.

In pattern (1), ser may be followed by an NP functioning as predicate nominal, provided that the subject NP is not an event. With the same restrictions as in (1), pattern (2) develops pattern (1) by allowing certain adverbial elements to occur. The adverbs may occur as single words or as prepositional phrases of location, time, or manner. The parentheses around the adverbial elements indicate that the adverbs may be selected singly or in combinations

---

\*See Sec. 3.12.2 for a description of the indirect object phrase (IOPh) and its relation to the indirect object pronoun. It is recommended that the teaching of this sentence pattern be correlated closely with the development of the indirect object pronoun from IOPh.

(see Sec. 3.4). Pattern (3) shows ser followed by an adjective. The pattern is sub-divided on the basis of two adjectival structures. One consists of a simple adjective optionally modified by an intensifier such as tan or muy; the other is an adjectival phrase consisting of a preposition (de or para) and an NP. Pattern (4) is a further development of pattern (3) in that certain adverbial elements may follow the adjective. Pattern (5) allows for an indirect-object-phrase complement to occur with adjectives. Pattern (6) is like pattern (4) relative to the use of adverbial elements. Pattern (7) permits a locative or temporal adverb to occur with ser, providing the subject NP has the feature [+ event]. Pattern (8) indicates that, although adverbial elements may occur with ser whose subject is an event, a manner adverb cannot occur immediately after ser.

### 3.2.2 Estar (estar, quedar-se...)

#### Structural Patterns and Examples

(1) NP      Estar      Adj

(a) NP      Estar      (Int)      Adj<sub>s</sub>

La tía está (muy) enferma.

(b) NP      Estar      prep      NP

El hombre está de pie.  
Mamá está a favor de eso.

(2) NP      Estar      Adj      (Loc)      (Temp)      (Mann)

Las puertas están cerradas en la iglesia.  
La muchacha está cansada hoy.  
La señora queda triste en casa.

(3) NP      Estar      (Int)      Adj<sub>s</sub>      IOPh\*

---

\*See footnote on page 82 (under Ser).

Los zapatos me quedan (muy) pequeños a mí.

(4) NP    Estar    (Int)    Adj<sub>s</sub>    IOPh\*    (Loc)    (Temp)    (Mann)

Estos zapatos me están (bastante) pequeños ahora.

(5) NP            Estar            (Int)            Mann<sub>s</sub>

Juan está (muy) bien.

(6) NP    Estar    (Int)    Mann<sub>s</sub>    (Loc)    (Temp)    (Mann)

La niña quedaba (muy) bien allí.  
El hombre estuvo (bastante) bien ayer.

(7) NP            Estar            (Int)            Mann<sub>s</sub>            IOPh

El vestido está muy bien a Juan.

(8) NP    Estar    (Int)    Mann<sub>s</sub>    IOPh    (Loc)    (Temp)    (Mann)

Los zapatos me están bien ahora.

(9) NP            Estar            (Loc)            (Temp)            (Mann)

El chico queda en casa.  
El hombre estará allí a las dos.  
María está aquí finalmente.  
Juan está bien.

### 3.2.3 Transitive Verb (Vt) (tomar, dar, decir...)

#### Structural Patterns and Examples

(1) NP            Vt            NP

José ve la casa.

(2) NP    Vt    NP    (Loc)    (Temp)    (Mann)

Pascual mató su perro allí.  
Juan tiene tres primos en la ciudad.  
Yo tomaré el café a las ocho.  
Juan tiene el libro a mano.

---

\*See footnote on p. 82 (under Ser)



## 3.2.4 Intransitive Verb (Vi) (ir, venir, vivir, gustar...)

Structural Patterns and Examples(1) NP        Vi

El hombre viene.

(2) NP    Vi    (Loc)    (Temp)    (Mann)

Los hombres viven aquí.

Vivo en esta casa.

Juan llega por tren.

(3) NP        Vi        PhC

Juan soñó con María.

El sufre del corazón.

Habló de México.

La salud depende de la higiene.

(4) NP    Vi    PhC    (Loc)    (Temp)    (Mann)

José soñó con María anoche.

(5) NP        Vi        PhC        IOPh

El hombre hablaba de México al señor.

(6) NP    Vi    PhC    IOPh    (Loc)    (Temp)    (Mann)

El hombre hablaba de México a Juan ayer.

(7) NP        Vi        IOPh        (Mann<sub>S</sub>)

Los perros me gustan (mucho).

(8) NP    Vi    (Mann<sub>S</sub>)    IOPh    (Loc)    (Temp)    (Mann)

Los soldados marcharon bien para el jefe en el parque.

Pattern (1) indicates that an intransitive verb may occur without another element of the predicate phrase following it.

Pattern (3) allows a phrase complement (PhC) to follow the Vi.

Phrase complement is a prepositional phrase whose preposition is in very close association with the intransitive verb (e.g., soñar con

or hablar de). Pattern (5) may expand pattern (3) with an indirect object phrase. Pattern (7) indicates that an indirect object phrase may follow Vi, and also a simple manner adverbial may be optionally included. Patterns (2), (4), (6), and (8) further expand the basic patterns by means of certain adverbial elements.

### 3.2.5 Modal Verbs

Two criteria are used in judging whether or not an element is a member of the class of modal verbs: (1) it may be followed by an infinitive in an active construction and (2) it may be followed by ser +do in the corresponding passive construction. (See section 3.15). Thus, poder (can, be able to, may) is a modal, since it accords with the two criteria: "Puedo preparar la lección" and "La lección puede ser preparada." But querer is not a true modal: "Quiero preparar la lección" but not \*"La lección quiere ser preparada." An analysis reveals that other forms are members of the class of modals: deber, tener que, and ir a. These modals seem to be roughly equivalent to the English modal verbs should (ought to), must (have to), and will, respectively. Modals are verbs, because they carry the regular verbal endings indicating person, mood and tense.

Ir a is an ambiguous construction. It serves as a modal verb in referring to future time, and it serves as a verb of motion without necessarily denoting the future. An example supports this view: "Van a ir a la escuela" may substitute for "Irán a la escuela." In the preceding example, ir a + la escuela shows motion in the sense of movement toward the school. Van a may substitute for the morphemic marker -án indicating futurity. Another reason for deciding to

separate the one (ir + a) from the other (ir + a) is that, in the construction ir a meaning toward, the element a may be replaced by the element para. This replacement does not occur in the construction ir a denoting future time.

#### Structural Pattern

$$\text{NP Modal } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ser} \\ \text{estar} \\ \text{Vi} \\ \text{Vt} \end{array} \right\} \text{ X}$$

Any member of the four major verb classes may follow the modal verb. The element X in the above structural pattern represents any element permitted in accordance with the description in Secs. 3.2.1, 3.2.2, 3.2.3, and 3.2.4.

#### 3.2.6 Terminal Behavior for Verbs and Basic Sentence Patterns

The learner correctly discriminates the use of basic sentence patterns by recognizing as correct, or by producing:

- (1) the members of the class Ser in appropriate sentences according to the structural patterns listed in Sec. 3.2.1.
- (2) the members of the class Estar in appropriate sentences according to the structural patterns listed in Sec. 3.2.2.
- (3) the members of the class Vt in appropriate sentences according to the structural patterns listed in Sec. 3.2.3.
- (4) the members of the class Vi in appropriate sentences according to the structural patterns listed in Sec. 3.2.4.
- (5) the members of the class of modal verbs in appropriate sentences according to the structural patterns listed in Sec. 3.2.5.
- (6) the 'personal a' inserted immediately before a noun phrase, whose noun is of the feature [+human], functioning as the object of Vt.



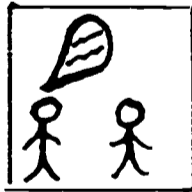
Performance Test of Verbs and Basic Patterns

Oral Production

To have a learner produce orally the several sentence patterns listed in Sec. 3.2.1, 3.2.2, 3.2.3, 3.2.4, and 3.2.5, the examiner presents to the learner a series of pictures, each shown in turn. The whole set of pictures contains enough visual stimuli to elicit from twenty to thirty examples of the various sentence patterns. The examiner selects an appropriate picture and mentions a syntactic constituent of one of the sentence patterns found in the five verbal classes. The learner views the picture, and, within a period of seven seconds, produces a sentence describing something in the picture. In his response the learner uses a form of the verb given to him by the examiner.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will show you a picture and say a cue word or phrase in Spanish. You view the picture and listen to the cue word. Then, within a short period of time, invent a sentence that describes something in the picture. Use my cue word or a form of it in making your sentence. For example, I could show you a picture of one person speaking to another, and I could say the word hablar, and you could say "El hombre habla con el muchacho."



Examiner: Tener que escuchar

Learner: El muchacho tiene que escuchar al hombre.

E: Hablan de

L: Ellos hablan de México.

E: rápidamente

L: El señor habla rápidamente.

E: A José.

L: Juan habla a José.

etc.

## 3.3 Verbal Aspects C. B. Christensen

The verb is inflected for aspects of tense and time-order (see Stockwell, et al, 1965, pp. 134-165). Formally, these aspects are considered auxiliary elements of the verb. Listed below in Table XI are the formal constituents of the auxiliary elements set for Level II.

Table XI

## Auxiliary Elements of Verb

## I. Imperfective

## A. Indicative

- 1) non-past (current)
- 2) non-past + subseq(uent) (future)
- 3) non-past + h--do (anteriority oriented to current points of time)
- 4) non-past + h--do + subseq (anteriority oriented to future time)
- 5) non-past + est--ndo (simultaneity oriented to current points of time)
- 6) past (on-going process)
- 7) past + subseq (conditional)
- 8) past + h--do (past perfect)
- 9) past + h--do subseq (conditional perfect)
- 10) past + est--ndo (simultaneity oriented to past, on-going processes)

## B. Subjunctive

- 1) non-past (current or future)
- 2) non-past, h--do (anteriority oriented to current or future points of time)
- 3) non-past, est--ndo (simultaneity oriented to current points of time)
- 4) past (on-going process)
- 5) past + h--do (past perfect: anteriority oriented to past points of time)
- 6) past + est--ndo (simultaneity oriented to past, on-going processes)

## II. Perfective

## A. Indicative

- 1) past (preterite)

Using Table XI as a point of reference, the auxiliary elements may be discussed in terms of two categories: (1) time-orientation and (2) time-sequence. Time-orientation is divided into two sub-categories: (I) imperfective and (II) perfective. The notion of imperfectiveness relative to verbs denotes an action or state-of-being at a non-initial or non-terminal point of time. That is, the action or state-of-being is viewed not as an occurrence at a specific point in time but as a process or an on-going action (or state-of-being) along a span of time (no matter how long or short). No reference is made to the act that such action (or state-of-being) has a beginning or end point. (Perhaps the process, had it started at some undetermined point in the past, is still going on at present and may continue for much time in the future.) The imperfective aspect applies both to current, on-going (non-past) situations and to on-going situations or processes which occurred in the past.

The second sub-division of time-orientation is the notion of perfectiveness. When used in relation to verbs, perfectiveness refers to a single, definite (and completed) point of time along a time continuum in the past. There is no indication of a process or of an on-going situation present when the element of perfectiveness is used in verbal communication. The action is viewed, in this case, as a single unit at its initial, terminal, or intermediary point along the time continuum.

The second main category, time-sequence, is divided into three parts: (1) posteriority, (2) simultaneity, and (3) anteriority. With respect to posteriority (that which comes after) in relation to

current or past time, reference is made to subsequent (or future) events or states. Hence, the formal notion of non-past plus subsequence (subseq) provides the "future tense." Similarly, the notions of past plus subsequence provides the "conditional tense." The "conditional tense," in other words, is futurity set in and oriented to the past.

An event which is anterior but oriented to current or past time is stated in terms of the past participle of the main verb (the -do form) with a form of haber (h-) functioning as an auxiliary verb. An event which is simultaneous to current or past time is viewed as being in the process of happening precisely at that current or past moment and is stated in terms of the gerundive or present participle (-ndo) of the main verb together with a form of estar functioning as an auxiliary verb.

### 3.3.1 Terminal Behavior for Verbal Aspects:

The learner correctly discriminates:

- (1) the aspect of imperfectiveness oriented to the present moment by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal markers in reference to present time involving repetitious or on-going actions, states-of-being, processes, or potential acts.
- (2) the aspect of imperfectiveness oriented to the (recalled) past by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal markers (-aba-, ·ía-) in reference to indefinite spans of time in the (recalled) past involving repetitious or on-going actions, states-of-being, processes, or potential acts.

- (3) the aspect of perfectiveness (always oriented to the past) by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal markers in reference to a definite single point on a time continuum in the past, such as the point of initiation or termination of an action, state-of-being, process, or potential acts.
- (4) the aspect of subsequence oriented to the present moment by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal marker (-r-) in reference to a point in time subsequent to the present moment (future tense).
- (5) the aspect of subsequence oriented to the past by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal marker (-ría-) in reference to a point in time subsequent to a point of time in the past (future past or conditional tense).
- (6) the aspect of anteriority oriented to the present moment by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal markers (h-, -do) in reference to a point in time anterior but oriented to the present moment (present perfect tense).
- (7) the aspect of anteriority oriented to the past by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal markers (h-, -ía-, -do) in reference to a point in time anterior but oriented to another point in past time (past perfective tense).
- (8) the combined aspect of subsequent anteriority oriented to the present moment by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal markers (h-, -r-, -do) in reference to a point of time subsequent (future) to the present moment but anterior to another point of time in the future (future perfect).
- (9) the combined aspect of subsequent anteriority oriented to the past by recognizing as correct, or by producing,

the appropriate verbal markers (h-, -ría-, -do) in reference to a point of time subsequent (future) to a point of time in the past but anterior to a second point in time subsequent to that past time (future past perfective or conditional perfective).

- (10) the aspect of simultaneity oriented to the present moment by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal markers (está-, -ndo) in reference to the present moment involving an action or state-of-being in progress.
- (11) the aspect of simultaneity oriented to the past by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate verbal markers (estaba-, -ndo) in reference to a past time involving an action or state-of-being in progress.
- (12) among the various indicative, person-number markers of verbs by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the appropriate form of marker corresponding to the subject of the verb according to Table XII.

Table XII

<u>marker</u>	<u>sing. subject</u>	<u>form(s)</u>
1 person	yo	o ø é í e
2 person	{ tú usted }	s ste
3 person	{ él ella }	ø ó o ió
<u>plural subject</u>		
1 person	nosotros	mos
2 person	{ vosotros ustedes }	is ís
3 person	{ ellos ellas }	n

## Performance Test of Verbal Aspects

### Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner produce orally the various verbal tenses and aspects listed in Table XI, the examiner employs various forms of the verb hacer in forming ten varied questions (of not more than fifteen syllables each). Within a period of eight seconds after the examiner poses each question, the learner answers it by using specific verbs whose tense and aspect correspond to that used by the examiner's question. Thus, before the proficiency test is administered, the learner will have to have a working knowledge of the various forms of hacer.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will ask you a question with a form of the verb hacer. The verb may be in any form we have studied. You answer the question by employing an appropriate verb whose tense is the same as the one I use in my question. For example, I could say: "¿Qué hace usted en la clase de español?" and you could say: "Hablo español."

Examiner: ¿Qué estamos haciendo en este momento?

Learner: ...

E: ¿Qué hizo usted hoy después de almorzar?

L: ...

E: ¿Qué hace una persona cuando va al cine?

L: ...

E: ¿Qué hacía usted ayer a las dos?

L: ...

etc.

### 3.4 Adverbials C. B. Christensen

There are three main adverbial categories; i.e., time, place (or location), and manner. The mnemonic labels given to these categories in this work are Temp, Loc, and Mann, respectively.

Several sub-classes of adverbs, subordinate to the three main categories, have been described elsewhere (Stockwell, et al, 1965). Four sub-classes of temporal adverbs are: fixed (or point in time), sequential (or order), durative, and frequency. Two sub-classes of place adverbs are: position (or location) and direction. Of the several manner adverbials, we may list cause, means, agent, purpose, accompaniment, and measure. Table XIII lists the general categories and their combinations.

Table XIII

A. Single (or double words)		
(1) Loc:	aquí, allá...	
(2) Temp:	ahora, mañana, esta tarde, después...	
(3) Mann:	así, bien, generalmente, sólo, todo seguido...	
B. Prepositional Phrase (preposition + a nominal element)		
(1) Loc:	en la casa, entre la gente, de aquí...	
(2) Temp:	durante el día, en este momento, <u>a eso de*</u> las ocho...	
(3) Mann:	con seguridad, por Juan, <u>por medio de*</u> la radio...	
*compound preposition		
C. Combinations		
(1) Loc Loc	or the reverse	
(2) Loc Temp	" "	"
(3) Loc Mann	" "	"
(4) Temp Temp	" "	"
(5) Temp Mann	" "	"
(6) Mann Mann	" "	"

Table XIII demonstrates two kinds of adverbial form. One is a single- (or double-) word adverbial element or an NP (e.g., *esta tarde*) used as an adverb. The other is a prepositional phrase



consisting of a preposition followed by a noun phrase. In the case of de aquí, aquí is regarded as a substitute for an NP.

Only double combinations are given for Level II, although more than two adverbial constructions may occur consecutively in Spanish grammar. In connection with combinations, there are co-occurrence restrictions. For example, two particular locative adverbs cannot co-occur juxtaposed (e.g., \*...aquí allá). Also, only certain single adverbial elements may be preceded by an intensifier (e.g., muy tarde, bastante lejos...).

#### 3.4.1 Terminal Behavior for Adverbials

The learner correctly discriminates among the various kinds of adverbial elements by recognizing as correct, or by producing appropriate adverbial forms to modify verbal elements in terms of time, place, or manner according to Table XIII.

#### Performance Test of Adverbial Elements

##### Auditory Comprehension

To accomplish the task of having the learner recognize correct adverbial forms, the examiner presents orally to the learner a short narration of from eight to ten sentences (of not more than ten syllables each) containing a variety of single and combined adverbial elements. The learner listens to the examiner's narration (spoken in normal speech), and, upon hearing and recognizing an adverbial element, the learner repeats it--all within a period of five seconds at the end of each sentence.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--You will hear a short narration.  
The sentences in the narration contain elements of

time, place, and manner. When you recognize one of these elements you repeat it after I pause at the end of each sentence. For example, I could say "Juan está en casa" and you would say "en casa."

Examiner: Juan está en casa temprano.

Learner: en casa, temprano

E: El está con María y van a comer en el comedor.

L: con María, en el comedor

E: Dentro de diez minutos van a comer.

L: Dentro de diez minutos

etc.

### Oral Production

To have the learner produce orally correct adverbial elements, the examiner asks the learner questions (of not more than ten syllables) consisting of appropriate interrogative phrases such as cómo, cuándo, dónde, en qué manera, a qué hora, en qué lugar, etc., to elicit responses which incorporate adverbial elements. The learner hears the question and, within a period of six seconds, answers by merely offering an appropriate adverbial modifier to answer the question.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--You will hear a question in Spanish. You merely listen to the question, and, within a short period of time, respond with a simple phrase which answers the question. For example, I could say "¿A qué hora llegó usted acá?" and you could say "a las ocho."

Examiner: ¿Cómo se lava usted las manos?

Learner: Con agua caliente (or rápidamente, etc.)

etc.

### 3.5 Relativization J. R. Shawl

In general, the process of relativization embeds one sentence into another--a constituent (or subordinate) sentence into a matrix (or main) sentence, by converting a noun phrase of the constituent

sentence into a relative element and placing it plus the remainder of the constituent sentence immediately after a noun phrase of the matrix sentence. For this process to occur, both sentences (constituent and matrix) must share an identical noun phrase. Further, the noun phrase involved must have the general structure Det + Noun. For example, the constituent sentence [El hombre es alto] may be embedded in the matrix sentence "El hombre es bueno" after the noun phrase "El hombre." The resulting pattern is "El hombre [El hombre es alto] es bueno." The embedded noun phrase is converted into the relative element que (i.e., "El hombre [que es alto] es bueno").

In the constituent sentence, there are three possible noun phrase positions (subject, object-of-verb, and object-of-preposition) which may be relativized. In the matrix sentence there are four possible noun phrase positions that can be followed by any one of the three relativized constituent noun phrases. Thus, there are twelve possible combinations. All combinations are described in this section.

A relativized noun phrase, of a constituent sentence, occurring in object-of-verb or object-of-preposition position is transposed to a sentence-initial position within the embedded, constituent sentence. In the case of a relativized noun phrase occurring in the position of object-of-preposition, the preposition of the prepositional phrase accompanies the relativized noun phrase to the sentence-initial position. In like manner, a relativized noun phrase in object-of-verb position which includes the feature [+ human] (i.e., quien) will be accompanied by the "personal a" to the sentence-initial position of the embedded sentence.

The function of these relativized noun phrases is one of modification. This type of modification is commonly referred to a modification by adjective clause (Cf. Sec. 3.6).

The actual phonological or graphic shape that the relativized noun phrase of the constituent sentence assumes depends on the features of its nominal elements. For example, if the nominal element contains the feature [-human], then the noun phrase would be relativized as que. If, however, the nominal elements contain the feature [+human], then the noun phrase would be relativized as either que or quien depending on its basic position in the constituent sentence.

### 3.5.1 Relativization of Noun Phrases

#### 3.5.1.1 Relativization of the Subject Noun Phrase

This relativization of a subject noun phrase in a constituent sentence may occur after a matrix noun phrase functioning as subject, predicate nominal (i.e., the noun follows a form of ser), object-of-verb, or object-of-preposition.

#### Structural Patterns and Examples

General Pattern: Step 1

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Matrix:} \quad \dots \text{NP}_1 \dots \\ \text{Constituent:} \quad \text{NP}_1 \text{ Pred Ph} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \dots \text{NP}_1 [\text{NP}_1 \text{ Pred Ph}] \dots$$

Step 2

$$\dots \text{NP}_1 [\text{NP}_1 \text{ Pred Ph}] \dots \rightarrow \dots \text{NP}_1 [\text{que} \text{ Pred Ph}] \dots$$

(1) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as subject

NP [que Pred Ph] Pred Ph

El hombre que viene mañana es alto.  
La muchacha que es de México viene hoy.

- (2) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as predicate nominal

NP ser NP [que Pred Ph]

Juan es el abogado que dice la verdad.  
José es el hombre que curó al niño.

- (3) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as object-of-verb

NP Vt NP [que Pred Ph]

Veó el coche que está descompuesto.  
José mató el perro que ladraba.

- (4) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as object-of-preposition

NP VP Prep NP [que Pred Ph]

Escribo en el libro que es rojo.  
María vivía en la casa que se destruyó ayer.

- (5) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as object-of-verb with the constituent verb "subjunctivized."

NP Vt (a) {indef  
neg} noun [que Pred Ph]

Busco una persona que hable español.  
No conozco a nadie que sepa la verdad.

In all cases except item 5, the embedded sentence could be "lifted" out of the matrix sentence and made to appear well-formed by substituting the proper NP for the relative element que. Pedagogically, then, one should ensure that both the matrix and the constituent sentences are familiar sentences before employing them together as a relativized construction.

### 3.5.1.2 Relativization of the Object-of-verb Noun Phrase

The relativization of an object-of-verb noun phrase in a

constituent sentence may occur after a matrix noun phrase functioning as subject, object-of-verb, object-of-preposition, or predicate nominal.

Structural Patterns and Examples

General Pattern: Step 1

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Matrix: } \dots \text{NP}_1 \dots \\ \text{Constituent: } \text{NP}_2 \text{ Vt (a) NP}_1 \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \dots \text{NP}_1 [(\text{a}) \text{NP}_1 \text{NP}_2 \text{Vt}] \dots$$

Step 2

$$\dots \text{NP}_1 [(\text{a}) \text{NP}_1 \text{NP}_2 \text{Vt}] \dots - \dots \text{NP}_1 \left[ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{a quien} \end{array} \right\} \text{NP}_2 \text{Vt} \right] \dots *$$

\*Note: NP<sub>2</sub> and Vt of the embedded sentence may switch positions depending on which of the two is to be emphasized.

(1) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as subject

$$\text{NP}_1 \left[ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{a quien} \end{array} \right\} \text{NP}_2 \text{ Vt Pred Ph} \right]$$

La mesa que María ve es buena.

El hombre  $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{a quien} \end{array} \right\}$  vi yo no salió.

(2) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as predicate nominal

$$\text{NP ser NP}_1 \left[ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{a quien} \end{array} \right\} \text{NP}_2 \text{ Vt} \right]$$

Juan es el hombre  $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{a quien} \end{array} \right\}$  María quería.

Esta es la bicicleta que compramos ayer.

(3) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as object-of-verb

$$\text{NP Vt NP}_1 \left[ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{a quien} \end{array} \right\} \text{NP}_2 \text{ Vt} \right]$$

Juan vio el tren que vimos nosotros.

El infante vio el león que El Cid había matado.

Conocimos al chico a quien José hablaba en español.

- (4) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as object-of-preposition

$$\underline{\text{NP VP prep NP}_1 \left[ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{a quien} \end{array} \right\} \text{NP}_2 \text{ Vt} \right]}$$

Juan estaba en el bote que él compró ayer.

José estaba con la chica  $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{a quien} \end{array} \right\}$  conocimos ayer.

### 3.5.1.3 Relativization of the Object-of-Preposition Noun Phrase

The relativization of an object-of-preposition noun phrase in a constituent sentence may occur after a matrix noun phrase functioning as subject, predicate nominal, object-of-verb and object-of-preposition.

#### Structural Patterns and Examples

General Pattern: Step 1

Matrix: ...NP<sub>1</sub>... → ...NP<sub>1</sub> [prep NP<sub>1</sub> NP VP]...  
 Constituent: NP VP prep NP<sub>1</sub>

Step 2

...NP<sub>1</sub> [prep NP<sub>1</sub> NP VP]... → ...NP<sub>1</sub> [prep  $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{quien} \end{array} \right\}$  NP VP]...

- (1) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as subject

$$\underline{\text{NP}_1 \left[ \text{prep} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{quien} \end{array} \right\} \text{NP VP} \right] \text{Pred Ph}}$$

La bicicleta en que hacemos las compras es buena.

La casa en que vive María cuesta mucho.

El chico con quien andamos sabe mucho.

- (2) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as predicate nominal

$$\underline{\text{NP ser NP}_1 \left[ \text{prep} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{que} \\ \text{quien} \end{array} \right\} \text{NP VP} \right]}$$

Juan es el médico con quien hablamos.

Juan es el rey en quien la gente ponía la confianza.

- (3) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as object-of-verb

$$\underline{\text{NP Vt (a) NP}_1 \left[ \text{prep } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{que} \\ \text{quien} \end{array} \right\} \text{NP VP} \right]}$$

Yo leo el libro en que María leyó la verdad.  
José está construyendo la casa en que María va a vivir.

- (4) Relativization after a matrix noun functioning as object-of-preposition

$$\underline{\text{NP VP prep NP}_1 \left[ \text{prep } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{que} \\ \text{quien} \end{array} \right\} \text{NP VP} \right]}$$

José entra en el cine en que Juan entró ayer.  
Estamos con la señorita con quien bailamos anoche.

In item 4, above, an alternate form may be used in place of the preposition plus the relative element que of the constituent clause. If any one of the adverbial notions of time, place, or manner is associated with the noun of the prepositional phrase in the constituent sentence, then the respective elements cuando, donde, or como may be used. For example:

- $$\begin{array}{l} 1. \dots \text{la casa [en que...]} \\ 2. \dots \text{la hora [a que...]} \\ 3. \dots \text{la manera [en que...]} \end{array} \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} 1. \\ 2. \\ 3. \end{array}} \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \dots \text{la casa [donde...]} \\ \dots \text{la hora [cuando...]} \\ \dots \text{la manera [como ...]} \end{array} \right.$$

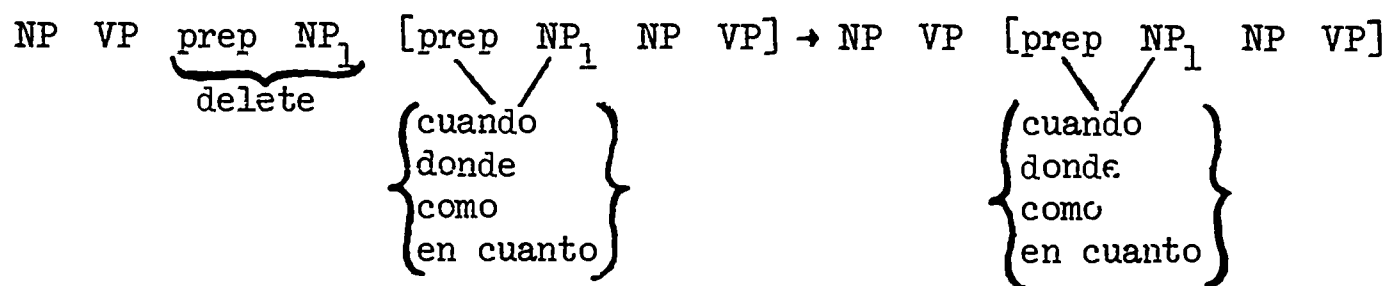
### 3.5.2 Relativization of Adverbial Elements. C. B. Christensen

Item 4 in Sec. 3.5.1.3, above, demonstrates a matrix prepositional phrase followed immediately by a constituent sentence with a relativized prepositional phrase. It is also shown that certain substitutable elements do exist for the relativized phrase.

In the case of a prepositional phrase modifying a preceding matrix prepositional phrase, the latter may be overt as manifested in the above items or covert as follows:



Structural Patterns and Examples



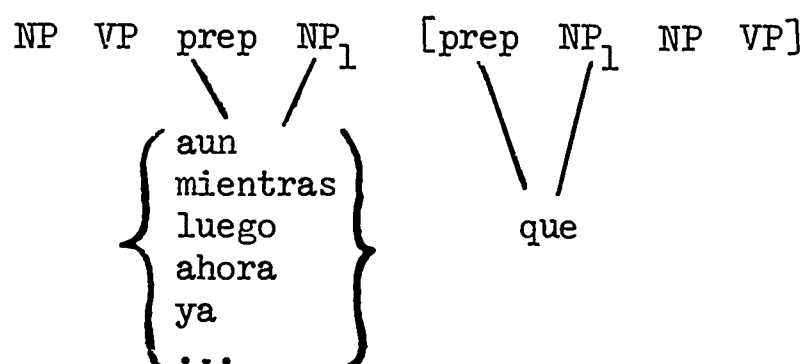
Salgo a esa hora cuando viene Juan → Salgo cuando viene Juan  
 Saldré al momento cuando vaya Juan → Saldré cuando vaya Juan  
 Vivo en el lugar donde vive Juan → Vivo donde vive Juan  
 Viviré en el lugar donde viva Juan → Viviré donde viva Juan  
 Hablo a la manera como habla Juan → Hablo como habla Juan  
 Hablaré a la manera como hable Juan → Hablaré como hable Juan

The choice between the indicative or the subjunctive mood of the verb of the constituent (relativized) sentence depends on the definiteness of the action or state-of-being referred to by the verb phrase of the constituent sentence. When the reference is indefinite (i.e., unfulfilled or indefinite action from the point of view of the speaker's knowledge), the constituent verb is "subjunctivized;" when definite, it is "indicativized" (See Sec. 3.7 for a more complete development of definiteness vs. indefiniteness).

Single adverbs such as ahora, ya, mientras, aun, etc., may also undergo relativization. One way to account for this is to view these single adverbs as corresponding to certain underlying prepositional phrases: ahora--en este momento, mientras--en el momento or durante un plazo, etc. When two similar prepositional phrases are juxtaposed, the second phrase (which is part of the constituent sentence) is relativized to que. The abstract representation of the structure below shows in the matrix sentence an underlying prepositional phrase (of a certain kind) which may be replaced by

a single adverbial element whose counterpart in the constituent sentence is replaced by the element que. With certain single adverbs, the verb in the constituent sentence is "indicativized;" with others, the verb is "indicativized" or "subjunctivized," depending on the definiteness of the action or state-of-being referred to by the constituent verb phrase.

Structural Pattern and Examples



Juan saldrá ya que acaba de comer.  
Juan saldrá aunque venga José.

3.5.3 Terminal Behavior for Relativization      J.R. Shawl,  
C.B. Christensen

- A. The learner correctly relativizes noun phrases functioning as subject, object-of-verb, or object-of-preposition in the constituent sentence by recognizing as correct, or by producing:
- 1 (a) que as a replacement for a relativized constituent subject noun phrase placed with its other constituent elements immediately following its identical noun phrase counterpart of the matrix sentence.
  - (b) in cases where the matrix object-of-verb noun phrase is indefinite and/or negative, (i) que as a replacement for a relativized constituent subject noun phrase and (ii) the constituent verb in the subjunctive; all occurring immediately after the identical object-of-verb noun phrase of the matrix sentence.

- 2 (a) que as a replacement for a relativized constituent object-of-verb noun phrase with the other constituent elements placed immediately following its noun phrase counterpart of the matrix sentence.
- (b) quien as a replacement for a relativized constituent object-of-verb noun phrase whose noun is of the feature [+ human] placed together with the "personal a" and the other elements of the constituent sentence immediately following its identical noun phrase counterpart of the matrix sentence.
- 3 (a) que as a replacement for a relativized constituent object-of-preposition noun phrase whose noun is not of the feature [+ human] placed together with the preposition and the other elements of the constituent sentence immediately following its identical noun phrase counterpart of the matrix sentence.
- (b) quien as a replacement for a relativized constituent object-of-preposition noun phrase whose noun is of the feature [+ human] placed together with the preposition and other elements of the constituent sentence immediately following its identical noun phrase counterpart of the matrix sentence.
- (c) cuando, donde, or como as substitutes for a relativized object-of-preposition noun phrase (prep + que) of time, place, and manner respectively.
- B. The learner correctly relativizes adverbial phrases of indefinite or unspecified time, location, or manner when he recognizes as correct or produces cuando, donde, or como respectively, as substitutes for an unspecified time, location, or manner element in the constituent sentence which has no overtly manifested counterpart in the surface structure of the matrix sentence.

- C. The learner correctly relativizes adverbial phrases of time, location, or manner when he recognizes as correct or produces que as a replacement for certain adverbial elements (ahora, ya, mientras...) in the constituent sentence, and placed at the beginning of the constituent sentence immediately following its identical counterpart of the matrix sentence.
- D. The learner discriminates between the use of the indicative and the subjunctive for the verb of the relativized constituent sentence when he recognizes as correct or produces the subjunctive for the constituent verb in cases where (i) he is not certain whether or not the action or state-of-being denoted by the constituent verb is happening (or has happened) or (ii) he knows that the action or state-of-being has not yet happened, and, therefore, its occurrence is still indefinite.

#### Performance Test of Relativization

##### Auditory Comprehension and Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner recognize as correct, and produce, sentences containing relativized constituents, the examiner presents orally to the learner ten relativized sentences (of not more than 20 syllables each), each of a different pattern according to the descriptions of section 3.5. The learner listens to the relativized sentence and within a period of eight seconds, reproduces a new relativized sentence in which the original matrix clause now becomes the constituent clause, and the original constituent clause now becomes the matrix.

#### Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say a sentence to you in Spanish. You listen to the sentence and within a short period of time, distinguish both the main clause and the minor clause, and produce a new sentence in which the main clause of my sentence

becomes the minor clause of your sentence, and in which the minor clause of my sentence becomes the main clause of your sentence. For example, I could say "El hombre que es alto es bueno," and you could say "El hombre que es bueno es alto."

Examiner: La casa en que vivo no es buena.

Learner: Vivo en la casa que no es buena.

E: El hombre que vino esta mañana es gordo.

L: El hombre que es gordo vino esta mañana.

E: El pueblo en que trabajo está lejos.

L: Trabajo en el pueblo que está lejos.

etc.

### Performance Test of Relativization of Adverbial Elements

#### Oral Production

The examiner presents orally to the learner a series of ten sets of varied sentences containing adverbial elements. Each set contains two basic, input sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). One input sentence, the constituent, may or may not indicate or imply a definite realization of the action or state-of-being of its verbal element. If the indication or implication is a definite realization, then the constituent verb is "indicativized;" if indefinite, "subjunctivized." The constituent sentence contains a prepositional phrase of time, location or manner to specify or imply the definiteness or indefiniteness of the realization of the verbal element. The other input sentence is the matrix sentence. Since, theoretically, the specific adverbial reference in the matrix sentence is not overtly manifested in the surface structure, this input sentence may contain only a verbal element. The latter is to be considered a necessary and sufficient structure for fulfilling the requirements of the matrix sentences. The learner listens to both

sentences, and, within a period of eight seconds, produces an appropriate relativized sentence.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say two sentences to you in Spanish. You listen to each sentence and, within a short period, incorporate both into one sentence using the appropriate elements of cuando, donde, como, ahora que, mientras que, etc. For example, I could say "Saldré mañana" and "Juan llegará mañana por la mañana" and you could say "Saldré mañana cuando llegue Juan."

Examiner: Hablo siempre (de una manera)  
Juan habla bien.

Learner: Hablo siempre como habla Juan.

E: Hablaré de una manera.  
Juan hablará de una manera.

L: Hablaré como hable Juan.

E: Vivo bien (en una casa)  
El hombre vive en esa casa.

L: Vivo bien donde vive el hombre.

E: Voy a trabajar ahora.  
Ahora acabo de comer.

L: Voy a trabajar ahora que acabo de comer.

etc.

### 3.6 Noun Modification C. B. Christensen

The function of a noun modifier is to indicate a quality or characteristic of a noun; it describes the kind of noun one is dealing with. In Level II, nouns may be modified by any of the following: (1) by a relativized constituent sentence (See Sec. 3.5), (2) by a prepositional phrase, and (3) by a simple, descriptive adjective. Relative-clause modifiers and prepositional-phrase modifiers always follow the noun. Prepositional-phrase modifiers and simple-adjective modifiers are derived by deleting the linking verb between the subject noun and the modifier (See Secs. 3.2.1

and 3.2.2). A simple, descriptive adjective may follow or precede the noun. The meaning of a simple adjective, however, generally varies according to the position of the adjective.

### Structural Patterns and Examples

#### (1) Relative Clause

...NP [que Pred Ph]...

El hombre que es alto es bueno.  
Veo la casa en que vive María.

#### (2) Prepositional Phrase

NP Link prep NP → NP prep NP

El libro es de España. ∴ El libro de España  
El chico está con María. → El chico con María  
La casa es de madera. → La casa de madera

#### (3) Simple Adjective (following the noun)

NP Link Adj<sub>s</sub> → NP Adj<sub>s</sub>

La casa es roja. → La casa roja  
El coche es suyo. → El coche suyo

#### (4) Simple Adjective (preceding the noun)

Det Noun Adj<sub>s</sub> → Det Adj<sub>s</sub> Noun

La casa roja → La roja casa  
El coche suyo → Su coche

With the sub-class of simple adjectives commonly referred to as "possessives," a transposition from a post-nominal position to a prenominal position requires that any determiner be deleted and that the "possessive" form not be marked for gender in all but the nuestr- and vuestr- forms. It is interesting to note that in some dialects of northern Spain the determiner is retained, e.g., "la mi alcoba."

### 3.6.1 Terminal Behavior for Noun Modification

A learner correctly modifies nouns by recognizing as correct, or by producing:

- (1) an appropriate relativized constituent sentence immediately following a noun, according to the restrictions noted in Section 3.5 above.
- (2) a single-word adjective immediately following a noun, and marked appropriately for the features of gender and number possessed by the noun.
- (3) a single-word adjective immediately before a noun, and marked appropriately for the features of gender (with the exception of the 'possessives' mi, tu, su which are not marked for gender in the prenominal position) and number possessed by the noun.
- (4) a prepositional phrase immediately following a noun.

#### Performance Test of Noun Modification

##### Auditory Comprehension

The examiner presents orally to the learner a set of ten sentences (of not more than 15 syllables each), each with a noun modified by some eligible modifier according to the general description of Sec. 3.6. After the examiner presents each sentence, the learner decides which elements are the noun and noun modifier and repeats them to the examiner. The learner's response is made within a period of five seconds after the examiner's cue.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say a sentence to you which contains a noun and a word or phrase that modifies the noun. The modifier indicates a characteristic of the noun. After I say the sentence to you, and, within a short period of time, decide which elements are the noun and noun modifier and repeat them to



me. For example, I could say, "El hombre que es alto llega pronto" and you would say, "El hombre que es alto."

Examiner: Veo la casa roja.

Learner: La casa roja.

E: Vino un hombre de Madrid para visitarnos.

L: Un hombre de Madrid.

etc.

### Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner produce sentences in which nouns are modified by adjectival elements, as described in Sec. 3.6, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of ten sets of varied sentences. Each set contains two basic, input sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). One input sentence, containing a noun functioning as subject, object-of-verb, object-of-preposition, or predicate nominal, serves as the matrix sentence. The other input sentence, containing an identical noun functioning as subject, object-of-verb, or object-of-preposition, serves as the source of adjectival elements to be used in modifying the noun of the matrix sentence. The learner hears the two input sentences and within a period of seven seconds, produces the appropriate sentence.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say two sentences to you in Spanish. One sentence is to be used as the main sentence of your response. The other sentence contains an adjectival element which you are to use as a modifier of some noun found in the main sentence. You listen to the sentences and, within a short period of time, produce your response. For example, I could say "La señorita sale hoy" and "La señorita es bonita" and you could say "La señorita (que es) bonita sale hoy."

Examiner: El hombre es bueno.  
El hombre es alto.

Learner: El hombre alto es bueno.

E: La casa es roja.  
Vivo en la casa.

L: Vivo en la casa (que es) roja.

E: No me gusta la lección.  
La lección es para hoy.

L: No me gusta la lección para hoy.

E: Hoy compré la chaqueta.  
La chaqueta es de Juan.

L: Hoy compré la chaqueta de Juan.

E: El alumno trabaja mucho.  
El alumno es el mejor.

L: El mejor alumno trabaja mucho.

E: Juan juega con la pelota.  
La pelota es mía.

L: Juan juega con la pelota mía.  
or Juan juega con mi pelota.

etc.

### 3.7 Nominalization (Nom) C. B. Christensen

In general, nominalization is said to occur when a sentence element not belonging to the major lexical category noun functions in a sentence as if it were a noun; that is, it occurs in the same positions in which nouns occur. Nouns can occur in any one of the following positions: subject, object-of-verb, predicate nominal (i.e., following ser), and object-of-preposition. Nominalized sentence elements, therefore, can occur in all of these positions.

Due to the variety and detail of nominalized constituent sentences, each type of nominalization will be discussed in turn. The following nominalizations are included in Level II.

#### 3.7.1 Nominalization of a constituent sentence with que.

A sentence may be nominalized, that is, function as a noun through a process which introduces it with the element que. It may



emotion, personal opinion, or inclination (showing oneself to be for or against a given proposition). The feature [- bias] is used here as a cover term to reflect the notions of information, that is, getting, having, or giving information, whether that information is true or false, real or imagined.

When the matrix verb phrase includes the feature [+ bias], the verb of the constituent sentence is "subjunctivized." When the matrix verb includes the feature [- bias], the verb of the constituent sentence is "indicativized."

A constituent sentence occurring in object-of-verb position of the matrix sentence is nominalized through a process which introduces it with the element que. For this type of nominalization to occur, the subject noun phrases of the constituent and matrix sentences must not be identical, that is, must not have the same referent.

#### Structural Patterns and Examples

(1)  $\text{NP}_1 \text{ Vt } \text{Nom}^\wedge[\text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}] \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \text{ Vt } \text{que } \text{NP} \text{ Pred Ph}$   
[+ bias] [+ bias] [+ subjunc]

Yo quiero  $\text{Nom}^\wedge[\text{Juan sale ahora}] \rightarrow$  Yo quiero que Juan salga ahora.

(2)  $\text{NP}_1 \text{ Vt } \text{Nom}^\wedge[\text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}] \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \text{ Vt } \text{que } \text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}$   
[- bias] [- bias]

Yo sé  $\text{Nom}^\wedge[\text{Juan sale ahora}] \rightarrow$  Yo sé que Juan sale ahora.

Pedagogically, the relationship between a nominalized constituent sentence in object-of-verb position and a simple noun in the same position may be demonstrated by relating the phrase "yo sé algo" to "Yo sé que Juan sale ahora." Both algo and the que-clause have the same function. Incidentally, the sentence "Juan sale ahora"

has a basic structure listed previously in Section 3.2.4. It is good practice to introduce new structures by applying familiar material.

All Spanish prepositions are followed by some kind of nominal element. One of these elements may be a constituent sentence. A constituent sentence occurring in object-of-preposition position of the matrix sentence is nominalized through a process which introduces it with the element que. For this type of nominalization to occur the following two conditions must be met: (i) the subject noun phrases of the constituent and matrix sentences must not be identical, that is, must not have the same referent, and (ii) the preposition of the prepositional phrase of the matrix sentence must be distinguished for the feature [ $\pm$  subsequent indefiniteness] (Sub Indef). The feature [+ subsequent indefiniteness] is used here as a cover term for the notions of indefiniteness or unfulfillment of the action or state-of-being of the following constituent verb. A preposition of the feature [+ subsequent indefiniteness] forces the verb of the constituent sentence to be "subjunctivized." Typical prepositions which include this feature are: antes de, para, sin....

#### Structural Pattern and Example

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{NP}_1 \text{ VP prep Nom}^\wedge[\text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}] \\ \text{[+Sub Indef]} \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{NP}_1 \text{ VP prep que} [\text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}] \\ \text{[+Sub Indef] [+Subjunc]} \end{array}$$

Yo vengo para Nom<sup>^</sup>[Juan sale] - Yo vengo para que salga Juan

If, however, condition (i) is met, but the preposition of the prepositional phrase of the matrix sentence is of the feature [- subsequent indefiniteness], then the verb in the constituent

sentence is forced into the indicative. The feature [- subsequent indefiniteness] is used here as a cover term for the notions of definiteness or fulfillment of the action or state-of-being of the following constituent verb. Typical prepositions which include this feature are: desde, por,....

Structural Pattern and Example

$$\text{NP}_1 \text{ VP prep Nom}^\wedge [\text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}] \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \text{ VP prep que } [\text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}]$$

[- Sub Indef]
[- Sub Indef]

Yo voy por Nom<sup>^</sup>[Juan sale] → Yo voy porque Juan sale.

Some prepositions are ambivalent, and can be of either feature, that is, either [+subsequent indefiniteness] or [- subsequent indefiniteness]. The choice as to which feature actually occurs with the preposition in any given sentence depends on the tense selection for the matrix verb. If the matrix verb is marked for subsequence (Subseq), that is, (1) either future or conditional, (2) the present tense with future meaning, or (3) imperative, then the feature [+ subsequent indefiniteness] will occur with the preposition, and the constituent verb will be "subjunctivized." If, however, the verb of the matrix sentence is marked for a tense which does not indicate subsequence, then the feature [- subsequent indefiniteness] will occur with the preposition, and the constituent verb will be "indicativized." Typical prepositions which include both features are: hasta, después de,....

Structural Pattern and Examples

$$(1) \text{ NP}_1 \text{ VP prep Nom}^\wedge [\text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}] \rightarrow \text{NF}_1 \text{ VP prep que } \text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}$$

[+ Subseq]
[+ Subseq] [+sub indef]

Yo lo haré hasta Nom<sup>^</sup>[Juan sale] → Yo lo haré hasta que salga Juan  
 Juan irá después de Nom<sup>^</sup>[lo llamo] → Juan irá después (de) que lo  
 llame

(2) 
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{NP}_1 \quad \text{VP} \quad \text{prep} \quad \text{Nom}^{\wedge}[\text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph}] \\ [+ \text{Subseq}] \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{NP}_1 \quad \text{VP} \quad \text{prep} \quad \text{que} \quad \text{NP}_2 \text{ Pred Ph} \\ [+ \text{Subseq}][+ \text{sub} \\ \text{indef}] \end{array}$$

Yo lo hice hasta Nom<sup>^</sup>[Juan salió] → Yo lo hice hasta que Juan salió.  
 Juan fue después de Nom<sup>^</sup>[lo llame] → Juan fue después (de) que Juan  
 salió.

### 3.7.2 Nominalization of a Constituent Sentence with Inf (Infinitive)

A constituent sentence in either object-of-verb or object-of-preposition position is nominalized through a process which places the constituent verb in its infinitive form, and deletes the constituent subject noun phrase. For this type of nominalization to occur, the following condition must be met: the subject noun phrases of the constituent and matrix sentences must be identical, that is, have the same referent. The element Nom in this case refers to the "infinitivization" of the constituent verb.

#### Structural Patterns and Examples

(1) In Object of Verb Position:

$$\text{NP} \quad \text{Vt} \quad \text{Nom}^{\wedge}[\text{NP}_1 \text{ Pred Ph}] \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \quad \text{Vt} \quad \text{Inf}^{\wedge} \text{Pred Ph}$$

Yo quiero Nom<sup>^</sup>[Yo salgo ahora] → Yo quiero salir ahora.

(2) In Object of Preposition Position:

$$\text{NP}_1 \quad \text{VP} \quad \text{prep} \quad \text{Nom}^{\wedge}[\text{NP}_1 \text{ Pred Ph}] \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \quad \text{VP} \quad \text{prep} \quad \text{Inf}^{\wedge} \text{Pred Ph}$$

Yo comeré después de Nom<sup>^</sup>[Yo salgo ahora] → Yo comeré después de  
 salir ahora.

There is a subclass of transitive (Vt) verbs which, when followed by a nominalized verb in the infinitive form, require a relator element to intervene between the transitive verb and the

following infinitive. These relators (shaped like prepositions) carry no meaning, and can be viewed as semantically empty elements; it is in this way that they differ from true prepositions. For example:

Empiezo a trabajar: the a carries no meaning

Vengo a trabajar: the a indicates goal. It may substitute for para. It does carry meaning.

A constituent sentence whose verb is liable to "infinitivization," may occur in the matrix subject position. The predicate phrase of the matrix sentence consists of a linking verb (ser or estar) plus an adjective or a sub-class of intransitive verbs. The "infinitivized" subject is normally placed after the predicate phrase of the matrix sentence.

#### Structural Pattern and Examples

Nom<sup>^</sup>[NP Pred Ph] Pred Ph → Inf<sup>^</sup>[Pred Ph] Pred Ph → Pred Ph Inf<sup>^</sup>[Pred Ph]

Nom<sup>^</sup>[Alguien trabaja] es bueno → Trabajar es bueno → Es bueno trabajar  
 Nom<sup>^</sup>[Juan canta] le gusta → Cantar (a Juan) le gusta → (A Juan) le gusta cantar

#### 3.7.3 Terminal Behavior for Nominalization C. B. Christensen, J. R. Shawl

The learner nominalizes when he recognizes as correct, or produces:

- (1) a sentence introduced by the element que, with a "subjunctivized" verb, where this sentence occurs in the object-of-verb position of the matrix sentence for those cases where:
  - (i) the matrix verb includes the feature [+ bias], and
  - (ii) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and the object-of-verb sentences are not identical, that is, do not have the same referent.



- (2) a sentence introduced by the element que, with an "indicativized" verb, where this sentence occurs in object-of-verb position of the matrix sentence for those cases where: (i) the matrix verb includes the feature [- bias], and (ii) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and the object-of-verb sentences are not identical, that is, do not have the same referent.
- (3) a sentence introduced by the element que, with a "subjunctivized" verb, where this sentence occurs in object-of-preposition position of the matrix sentence for those cases where: (i) the matrix preposition includes the feature [+ subsequent indefiniteness], and (ii) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and object-of-preposition sentences are not identical.
- (4) a sentence introduced by the element que, with an "indicativized" verb, where this sentence occurs in object-of-preposition position of the matrix sentence for those cases where: (i) the matrix preposition includes the feature [- subsequent indefiniteness], and (ii) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and object-of-preposition sentences are not identical.
- (5) a sentence introduced by the element que, with a "subjunctivized" verb, where this sentence occurs in object-of-preposition position of the matrix sentence for those cases where: (i) the matrix preposition includes the feature [ $\pm$  subsequent indefiniteness], (ii) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and object-of-preposition sentences are not identical, and (iii) the matrix verb is marked for subsequence (i.e., future, conditional, command or the present tense used with a future meaning).
- (6) a sentence introduced by the element que, with an "indicativized" verb, where this sentence occurs in object-of-preposition position of the matrix sentence for

those cases where: (i) the matrix preposition includes the feature [- subsequent indefiniteness], (ii) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and object-of-preposition sentences are not identical, and (iii) the matrix verb is not marked for subsequence (i.e., future, conditional, command, or the present tense used with future meaning).

- (7) a sentence introduced by que in subject position.
- (8) an infinitive in object-of-verb position (which has been derived according to Section 3.6.2 above) for those cases where the subject noun phrases for the matrix and object-of-verb sentences are identical, that is, have the same referent.
- (9) an infinitive in object-of-preposition position (which has been derived according to Section 3.6.2 above) for those cases where the subject noun phrases for the matrix and object-of-preposition sentences are identical, that is, have the same referent.
- (10) a relator preceding an infinitive in object-of-verb position for those cases where: (i) the subject noun phrases for the matrix and object-of-verb sentences are identical, and (ii) the matrix verb is of that class of verbs requiring a relator when followed by an infinitive. The actual shape that the relator assumes depends on the matrix verb itself; that is, it is an idiosyncratic feature of the matrix verb.
- (11) an infinitive functioning as subject and usually in a post-verbal position (as described in Section 3.6.2).

### Performance Test of Nominalization

#### Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner (1) produce nominalized que-clauses and (2) discriminate between the use of the

subjunctive and the indicative moods, as used in clauses functioning as subject or as object-of-the-verb, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of fifteen sets of varied sentences. Each set contains two input sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). One input sentence is the matrix sentence and contains a verb either of the feature [- bias] or [+ bias]. It also contains the element algo as a slot filler into which a constituent sentence will be embedded. The second input sentence is the constituent sentence whose verb will be either "indicativized" or "subjunctivized." The learner listens to the two input sentences, and, within a period of seven seconds, he produces an appropriate sentence containing a que-clause (taken from the constituent sentence) in place of algo of the matrix sentence.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say two Spanish sentences to you. You listen to the two sentences, and, within a short period of time, combine them into one sentence. You combine them by substituting one of the sentences for the word algo found in the other sentence. Be sure to make all other necessary changes in your response. For example, I could say "Yo sé algo" and "Juan habla español," and you could say "Yo sé que Juan habla español."

Examiner: Juan sabe algo.  
María es bonita.

Learner: Juan sabe que María es bonita.

E: José quiere algo.  
María va al cine.

L: José quiere que María vaya al cine.

E: Algo es seguro.  
Papá viene temprano.

L: Es seguro que papá viene temprano.

E: Algo es importante.  
Vamos al partido de fútbol.

L: Es importante que vayamos al partido de fútbol.  
etc.

To accomplish the task of having the learner discriminate between the use of the subjunctive and the indicative moods in clauses functioning as object-of-preposition, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of ten sets of varied sentences. Each set contains two input sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). One input sentence is the matrix sentence and contains a preposition either of the feature [- subsequent indefiniteness] or [+ subsequent indefiniteness]. It also contains an element such as algo or situación, etc., used as a slot filler in the position of object-of-preposition. The second input sentence is the constituent sentence whose verb will be either "indicativized" or "subjunctivized." The learner hears the two input sentences and, within a period of eight seconds, produces an appropriate sentence containing a que-clause (taken from the constituent sentence) in place of the slot filler of the matrix sentence.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--Similar to those given above.

Examiner: Juan trabaja para algo.  
La familia vive bien.

Learner: Juan trabaja para que la familia viva bien.

E: Juan irá después de una situación.  
Yo lo llamo.

L: Juan irá después de que yo lo llame.

E: José cantó después de una situación.  
María llegó.

L: José cantó después de que llegó María.

etc.

To accomplish the task of having the learner produce sentences in which a verbal infinitive functions as subject, object-of-verb, object-of-preposition, or predicate nominal, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of ten sets of varied sentences. Each set contains two basic input sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). One input sentence is the matrix sentence containing a slot filler such as algo, situación, etc., into which a constituent element will be placed. The other input sentence is a constituent sentence whose verb will be "infinitivized" and substituted for the slot filler of the matrix sentence. One condition must prevail in the case of object-of-verb or object-of-preposition. The condition is that the subjects of both input sentences must refer to the same entity. The learner listens to the two basic sentences and, within a period of seven seconds, produces a sentence containing an infinitive (taken from the constituent sentence) in place of the slot filler of the matrix sentence.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--Similar to those given above.

Examiner: Juan come para algo.  
Juan vive.

Learner: Juan come para vivir.

E: Algo es bueno.  
Alguien trabaja.

L: Es bueno trabajar (or Trabajar es bueno)

E: Yo quiero algo.  
Yo voy ahora.

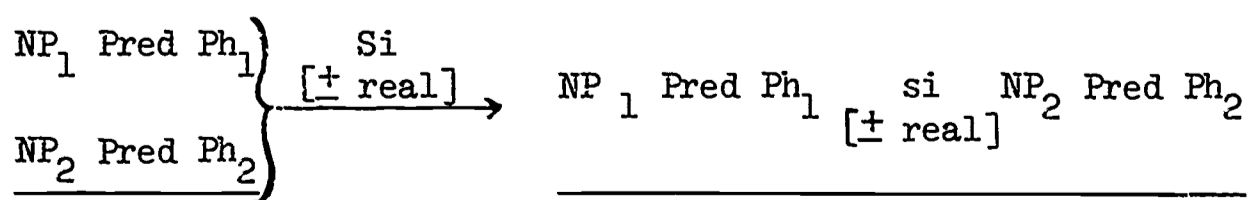
L: Yo quiero ir ahora.

etc.

3.8 Si-clause. C. B. Christensen

The form si of a Si-clause in Spanish may be viewed as a cover-term for such elements as "con tal (de) que," "a condición (de) que," or "aunque." Since the function of these latter phrases is to introduce constituent sentences (see Secs. 3.5 and 3.5.2), the form si may be viewed as performing the same function. In the description below, the Si-clause follows the matrix clause. The Si-clause may, however, precede the matrix clause (see Sec. 3.16, Alternate Sentence Patterns). The realization of the verbal state or action of the matrix clause depends on the conditions set forth in the Si-clause. The form si is "loaded" with the feature [ $\pm$  real] (read plus or minus real). [+ real] is a cover-term for such conditions as truth, fact, or reality; being-opposed to fantasy and imaginary or hypothetical situations. [- real], on the contrary, relates to conditions which are contrary to fact, imaginary, or hypothetical.

When si is marked [+ real], both the matrix and constituent verbs are "indicativized." When si is marked [- real], the constituent verb is "subjunctivized," with the verbal aspect of imperfectiveness set in the past; and the matrix verb is "indicativized" with the verbal aspect of subsequence set in the past (see Sec. 3.3, Verbal Aspects). In the following description, NP<sub>1</sub> and NP<sub>2</sub> may or may not be the same; that is, have the same referent.

Structural Pattern and Examples

Juan compra algo       $\xrightarrow{\text{si}}$   
 José compra algo       $+ \text{ real}$       Juan compra algo si José compra algo.

No iré a México       $\xrightarrow{\text{si}}$   
 No tengo el dinero       $+ \text{ real}$       No iré a México si no tengo el dinero.

Iría a México       $\xrightarrow{\text{si}}$   
 No tengo el dinero       $- \text{ real}$       Iría a México si tuviera el dinero.

No lo haría       $\xrightarrow{\text{si}}$   
 Yo no soy usted       $- \text{ real}$       No lo haría si yo fuero usted.

### 3.8.1 Terminal Behavior for Si-clause.

The learner correctly discriminates the use of the Si-clause when he recognizes as correct, or produces:

- (1) two clauses, one (the constituent) of which is introduced by the form si and used to imply certain conditions which affect the realization of the verbal state or action of the other (the matrix).
- (2) appropriate verbal aspects of the indicative mood for the verbs of both matrix and constituent elements for cases when the form si is marked [+ real].
- (3) the verbal aspects of imperfectiveness and subsequence set in the past for the verb of the matrix clause and the verbal aspects of past subjunctive for the verb of the si-clause for cases when the form si is marked [- real].

### Performance Test of Si-clause

#### Auditory Comprehension

To have the learner recognize as correct the use of the Si-clause, the examiner presents ten sets of varied sentences--five sets of [+ real] situations and five of [- real] situations. Each set contains two sentences. The first sentence (of not more than ten syllables) is used to establish basic information. The second sentence (of not more than twenty syllables) contains a matrix and a

si-clause. The second sentence is based on the information given in the first. The learner listens to each set of sentences and, based on the information given, and in a period of four seconds, decides if the second sentence is used correctly or incorrectly. If the second sentence is used correctly, the learner responds with "correcto;" if used incorrectly, he responds with "incorrecto."

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say two sentences to you in Spanish. The second one is based on the information given in the first. If the second one accords with the information given in the first sentence, you say "correcto;" if not, then you say "incorrecto." You listen to both sentences, and within a short period of time, make your reply of "correcto" or "incorrecto." For example, I could say "Juan tiene dinero" and "Juan puede comprar algo si tiene dinero;" and you could say "correcto."

Examiner: El alumno no estudia.  
El alumno no aprenderá si no estudia. (This accords with the preceding information)

Learner: Correcto.

E: El chico tiene dinero.  
El chico compraría algo si tuviera dinero. (This does not accord with the preceding information)

L: Incorrecto.

E: Pepe no canta bien.  
Pepe no estaría contento si no cantara bien.

L: Incorrecto.

E: A José le gusta leer.  
José está contento si lee.

L: Correcto.

etc.

### Oral Production

To have the learner produce the Si-clause correctly, the examiner presents the learner with a series of eight varied sentences (of not more than fifteen syllables each). Four sentences are of the



type "Es verdad que...", and four are of the type "Es verdad que no...". The learner listens to the information given in each sentence. The information cues the learner to an appropriate response. If the examiner says "Es verdad que..." the learner is cued to respond with a sentence whose si-clause is of the feature [+ real]. In this case the learner uses in his si-clause whatever information was given him in the examiner's cue sentence. If the examiner says "Es verdad que no..." the learner is cued to respond with a sentence whose si-clause is of the feature [- real]. Together with the si-clause, which is composed of the information obtained from the examiner's sentence, the learner is to invent an appropriate matrix clause. All this is done within a period of ten seconds after the learner hears the examiner's cue sentence.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will give you a sentence in Spanish. If the sentence is positive (does not have the element no), you use the information of my sentence in a si-clause that demonstrates the real facts of my sentence and add another clause to be used as a logical result of the si-clause. If my sentence is negative, use the information of my sentence in your si-clause in a way that demonstrates a situation contrary to the facts supplied by my sentence. Also, invent another clause to be used as a logical result of the si-clause. For example, I could say "Es verdad que Juan estudia mucho" and you could say "Si Juan estudia mucho, aprende mucho." But if I said "Es verdad que Juan no estudia mucho," you could say "Si Juan estudiara mucho, aprendería mucho."

Examiner: Es verdad que Juan tiene dinero.

Learner: Si Juan tiene dinero,...

E: Es verdad que José no come mucho

L: Si José comiera más,...

E: Es verdad que el señor no supo las noticias.

L: Si el señor hubiera sabido las noticias,...

E: Es verdad que Juan supo el nombre.

L: Si Juan supo el nombre,...

etc.

### 3.9 Interrogatives J. R. Shawl

In general, interrogatives in Spanish can be divided into two major types: (1) yes-no interrogatives, and (2) information interrogatives. The former anticipate a "yes" or "no" reply while the latter require information of one kind or another for one or more of the sentence elements.

The several sub-types of interrogatives which are included in Level II are described below.

#### 3.9.1 Yes-No Interrogatives

The following descriptions schematicize the various sub-types of yes-no interrogatives. A rising intonation--arrow, /↑/, marks the structure as a yes-no interrogative.

For reading and writing, a rising intonation is signaled by question marks both in pre- and post-sentence positions (e.g., ¿...?).

#### Structural Patterns and Examples

(1) NP (neg) Predicate Phrase → NP (neg) Predicate Phrase ↑  
 Juan está aquí → Juan está aquí↑  
 (¿Juan está aquí?)

Subject noun phrase and full predicate phrase are transposed.

(2) NP (neg) Predicate Phrase → (neg) Predicate Phrase NP ↑  
 Juan está aquí → Está aquí Juan↑  
 (¿Está aquí Juan?)  
 María no viene mañana → No viene mañana María↑  
 (¿No viene mañana María?)

The following description sets forth the third sub-type of yes-no interrogatives. A rising intonation marks the structure as a yes-no interrogative, and the subject noun phrase is placed immediately after the Verb or Linking Verb.

For reading and writing, a rising terminal juncture /↑/ is signaled by question marks both in a pre- and post-sentence position, ¿...?.

Subject noun phrase placed immediately after the verbal element

(3) NP (neg) Verb X → (neg) Verb NP X ↑  
Link

Juan mató el tigre → Mató Juan el tigre↑  
(¿Mató Juan el tigre?)

Esa es la muchacha → Es esa la muchacha↑  
(¿Es esa la muchacha?)

### 3.9.2 Information Questions

Those interrogatives that cannot be answered by a simple "yes" or "no," but require information of one kind or another are signaled by an interrogative element. In the following structural descriptions the element wh is used to indicate formally which of the sentence elements is being questioned. The actual shape that the interrogative element takes depends on the features included with the wh element.

An interrogative element with wh can occur in any of four possible positions within a sentence: subject, object-of-verb, object-of-preposition, or predicate nominal position. The following structural descriptions illustrate those interrogative elements occurring within these four positions.

#### Structural Patterns and Examples

##### A. In Subject position

wh indefinite Noun Predicate Phrase → qué (Noun) Predicate Phrase

wh indefinite libro está en la mesa → qué (libro) está en la mesa

wh definite Noun Predicate Phrase → cuál (Noun) Predicate Phrase

wh definite hombre viene mañana → cuál (hombre) viene mañana

wh definite fecha es la fecha de hoy → cuál (...) es la fecha  
de hoy

wh quantifier Noun Predicate Phrase → cuánt- (Noun) Predicate Phrase  
wh quantifier hombres vienen → cuántos (hombres) vienen

wh indefinite [+ human] Predicate Phrase → quién- Predicate Phrase  
wh indefinite [+ human] está aquí → quién está aquí

B. In Object-of-Verb Position

NP Verb wh indefinite Noun X → NP Verb qué (Noun) X  
Juan tiene wh indefinite libro aquí → Juan tiene qué (libro) aquí  
(¿Juan tiene qué (libro) aquí?)

NP Verb wh definite Noun X → NP Verb cuál (Noun) X  
Juan pintó wh definite casa → Juan pintó cuál (casa)  
(¿Juan pintó cuál (casa)?)

NP Verb wh quantifier Noun X → NP Verb (a) cuánt- (Noun) X  
Juan tiene wh quantifier libros → Juan tiene cuántos (libros)  
(¿Juan tiene cuántos (libros)?)

NP Verb wh indefinite [+ human] X → NP Verb a quién X  
María vio wh indefinite [+ human] → María vio a quién  
(¿María vio a quién?)

C. The following description schematicizes the pre-sentence position  
for those object-of-verb interrogatives listed in (B) above.

NP Verb  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{qué} \\ \text{cuál} \\ \text{cuánt-} \end{array} \right\}$  (Noun) X →  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{qué} \\ \text{cuál} \\ \text{cuánt-} \end{array} \right\}$  (Noun) Verb NP X

José tiene cuántos libros → Cuántos (libros) tiene José  
(¿Cuántos (libros) tiene José?)

Juan pintó cuál (Noun) → Cuál (casa) pintó Juan  
(¿Cuál (casa) pintó Juan?)

NP Verb a quién → a quién Verb NP

María vio a quién → A quién vio María  
(¿A quién vio María?)

D. In Object-of-Preposition Position

NP VP prep wh indefinite Noun → NP VP prep qué (Noun)  
Juan llega a wh indefinite hora → Juan llega a qué (hora,  
(¿Juan llega a qué (hora)?)

NP VP prep wh definite Noun → NP VP prep cuál (Noun)  
Juan vive en wh definite casa → Juan vive en cuál (casa)  
(¿Juan vive en cuál (casa)?)

NP VP prep wh quantifier Noun → NP VP prep cuánt- (Noun)  
Se construyó Roma en wh quantifier días → Se construyó Roma en  
cuántos (días)  
(¿Se construyó Roma en cuántos (días)?)

NP VP prep wh indefinite [+ human] → NP VP prep quién  
María corre con wh indefinite [+ human] → María corre con quién  
(¿María corre con quién?)

NP VP prep wh indefinite [+ Temp] → NP VP (prep) cuándo  
Juan trabaja hasta wh indefinite [+ Temp] → Juan trabaja hasta  
cuándo  
(¿Juan trabaja hasta cuándo?)

NP VP prep wh indefinite [+ Loc] → NP VP (prep) dónde  
José sale para wh indefinite [+ Loc] → José sale para dónde  
(¿José sale para dónde?)

NP VP de wh indefinite [+ Mann] → NP VP cómo  
José de wh indefinite [+ Mann] → José llegó cómo  
(¿José llegó cómo?)

E. The following description depicts the pre-sentence position for those object-of-preposition interrogatives listed in section (D) above.

NP VP prep  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{qué} \\ \text{cuál} \\ \text{cuánt-} \end{array} \right\}$  (Noun)  $\rightarrow$  prep  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{qué} \\ \text{cuál} \\ \text{cuánt-} \end{array} \right\}$  (Noun) VP NP

Juan llegó a qué hora  $\rightarrow$  A qué hora llegó Juan  
(¿A qué hora llegó Juan?)

NP VP prep quién  $\rightarrow$  prep quién VP NP

María corre hacia quién  $\rightarrow$  Hacia quién corre María  
(¿Hacia quién corre María?)

NP VP (prep)  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{cuándo} \\ \text{dónde} \end{array} \right\}$   $\rightarrow$  (prep)  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{cuándo} \\ \text{dónde} \end{array} \right\}$  VP NP

Juan trabaja hasta cuándo  $\rightarrow$  Hasta cuándo trabaja Juan  
(¿Hasta cuándo trabaja Juan?)

NP VP cómo  $\rightarrow$  cómo VP NP

Juan habla cómo  $\rightarrow$  Cómo habla Juan  
(¿Cómo habla Juan?)

### 3.9.3 Terminal Behavior for Interrogatives

- A. The learner correctly discriminates yes-no questions when he recognizes as correct, or produces, a sentence of the following structural description:
1. "NP (neg) Predicate Phrase" with an appropriate intonation pattern or with question marks (¿...?) in a pre- and post-sentence position.
  2. "(neg) Predicate Phrase NP" with an appropriate intonation pattern or with question marks (¿...?) in a pre- and post-sentence position.
  3. "(neg)  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Verb} \\ \text{Link} \end{array} \right\}$  NP X" with an appropriate intonation pattern or with question marks (¿...?) in a pre- and post-sentence position.
- B. The learner discriminates among the elements qué, cuál, cuánt-, and quién when he recognizes as correct or produces (i) the element qué for a noun phrase which includes an indefinite determiner, (ii) the element cuál for a noun phrase which includes a definite determiner, (iii) the

element quant- for a noun phrase which includes a quantifier, and (iv) the element quien for a noun phrase which includes an indefinite determiner and a noun of the feature [+human].

- C. The learner correctly discriminates information questions when he recognizes as correct, or produces, appropriate intonation patterns (or question marks in a pre- and post-sentence position) for:
1. a sentence with the element que in sentence-initial position, with or without a following noun, under the following conditions:
    - (a) It functions as subject, object of the verb, or as predicate nominal
    - (b) It is preceded by a preposition and functions as object of the preposition.
  2. a sentence with the element cual marked for number (sg/pl), in sentence-initial position with or without a following noun, under the following conditions:
    - (a) It functions as subject or as predicate nominal
    - (b) It is or is not preceded by the personal 'a', depending on whether cual is marked [+ human] or [- human], and it functions as the object of the verb
    - (c) It is preceded by a preposition and functions as the object of the preposition.
  3. a sentence with the element quant- marked for number (sg/pl) and gender (masc/fem), in sentence-initial position with or without a following noun, under the following conditions:
    - (a) It functions as subject or as predicate nominal
    - (b) It is or is not preceded by a personal 'a',

depending on whether it is marked [+ human] or [- human], and it functions as the object of the verb.

- (c) It is preceded by a preposition and functions as the object of the preposition
4. a sentence with the element quien marked for number (sg/pl), in sentence-initial position, under the following conditions:
    - (a) It functions as subject or as predicate nominal
    - (b) It is preceded by the personal 'a' and functions as the object of the verb
    - (c) It is preceded by a preposition and functions as the object of the preposition.
  5. a sentence with the elements (prep) cuando, placed in sentence-initial position for questioning temporal elements.
  6. a sentence with the elements (prep) dónde, placed in sentence-initial position for questioning locative elements.
  7. a sentence with the element como, placed in sentence-initial position for questioning adverbial elements of manner.

### Performance Test of Interrogatives

#### Auditory Comprehension

To have the learner recognize as correct each interrogative element used in a sentence, the examiner asks the learner a set of twenty varied questions (of not more than ten syllables each). Whenever possible, the interrogative elements of qué, cuánto, quién, cuál, cuándo, dónde and cómo are to be applied to the functions of subject,



object-of-verb, and object-of-preposition. The learner listens to each question posed to him, and, within a period of six seconds, replies with just enough information to answer the question without repeating all the elements of the examiner's question.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will ask you a question in Spanish. You listen to the question and within a short period of time, invent a short, logical answer that satisfies the question. For example, I could say "¿Dónde está su mamá?" and you could answer "En casa."

Examiner: ¿Qué está en la mesa?

Learner: ...

E: ¿A quién conoció usted hoy?

L: ...

E: ¿Cómo dormimos?

L: ...

etc.

### Oral Production

To have the learner produce interrogative sentences, the examiner cues the learner with two elements. One is an interrogative form; the other, a word around which the question can be posed. The learner listens to the two cues, and, within a period of eight seconds, produces a question. Sufficient testing is to be carried out to examine the learner in all of the interrogative elements.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will give you two cue words. One will be a question element. The other one will be a theme word around which the question is to be centered. You listen to the two cue words, and within a short period of time, you produce a question that utilizes both cue words. For example, I could say a question-word such as "Dónde" and a theme-word such as "casa," and you could say "¿Dónde está la casa?"

Examiner: Cómo, llegar

Learner: ¿Cómo llegamos al centro?

E: Quién, coche  
 L: ¿Quién tiene coche?  
 E: Cuando, hermano  
 L: ¿Cuándo viene su hermano?  
 E: Qué, hora  
 L: ¿A qué hora salieron?

etc.

### 3.10 Comparison C. B. Christensen

Members of the lexical categories Noun, Adjective, and Adverb can be compared: nouns with like-nouns or other nouns, adjectives with like-adjectives or other adjectives, and adverbs with like-adverbs or other adverbs. The degree to which these lexical categories can be compared is specified in terms of two different scales: (i) equality and (ii) inequality. In this study the comparison of equality is formally specified by the elements tan(t-)...como, and that of inequality by either the elements más...que and menos...que or más...de and menos...de.

The specific descriptions and conditions under which each comparison occurs are described below.

#### 3.10.1 Comparison of Nouns

The following explanation describes the comparison (either of equality or inequality) of nouns where: (i) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are different, and (ii) the verb phrases (VP) of matrix and constituent sentences are the same. It is instructive to point out that two basic sentence constructions are employed to derive one sentence structure of comparison. For example, we note the existence of two basic sentences "Juan tiene dinero" and "José tiene dinero." By comparison we may derive "Juan

tiene más dinero que José (tiene dinero)." That part of the comparison which is usually not uttered, but understood, is indicated here by means of enclosing it in parentheses. The verb can be negative (Cf. Sec. 3.11). Examples sentences demonstrate the negative element.

Sentence Pattern and Examples

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{NP}_1 \text{ verb NP}_2 \\ \text{NP}_3 \text{ verb NP}_2 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{más...que} \\ \text{tant-...como} \end{array} \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \text{ verb } \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{más} \\ \text{tant-} \end{array} \right] \text{NP}_2 \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{que} \\ \text{como} \end{array} \right] \text{NP}_3 \text{ (verb NP}_2 \text{)}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Juan tiene dinero} \\ \text{José tiene dinero} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{Juan tiene más dinero que José (...).$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Juan tiene 5 libros} \\ \text{José tiene 4 libros} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{José no tiene tantos libros como Juan (...).$$

Note that the noun in object-of-verb position of the matrix sentence may be deleted, but in the case of tant-, the deletion can occur only after tant- has been marked for the features of gender and number possessed by the noun. For example:

Juan tiene tanto(s)...como José.  
Juan tiene tanta(s)...como José.

The following description sets forth the comparison (equality or inequality) of nouns where: (i) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical, that is, have the same referent, (ii) the verbs of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical, but (iii) the object-of-verb noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are not identical, that is, do not have the same referent.

Sentence Pattern and Examples

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{NP}_1 \text{ verb NP}_2 \\ \text{NP}_1 \text{ verb NP}_3 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{más...que} \\ \text{tant-...como} \end{array} \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \text{ verb } \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{más} \\ \text{tant-} \end{array} \right] \text{NP}_2 \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{que} \\ \text{como} \end{array} \right] \text{(NP}_1 \text{ verb) NP}_3$$

Juan tiene inteligencia } → Juan tiene más inteligencia que (...)  
 Juan tiene dinero } dinero

María tiene oro } → María tiene tanto oro como (...) plata.  
 María tiene plata }

The next sentence pattern shows the comparison (inequality) of nouns where: (i) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical, that is, have the same referent, and (ii) the object-of-verb noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical with the exception that the object-of-verb noun phrase of the constituent sentence includes an element of quantity. Note that the object-of-verb noun phrase of the matrix sentence is not expressed.

#### Sentence Pattern and Examples

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{NP}_1 \text{ verb NP}_2 \\ \text{NP}_1 \text{ verb NP}_2 \\ \text{[+ quant]} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mas...de} \\ \text{menos...de} \end{array} \text{NP}_1 \text{ verb más (NP}_2\text{) de (NP}_1 \text{ verb) NP}_2 \\ \text{[+quant]}$$

Juan tiene pesos } → Juan tiene más (...) de (...) 5 pesos.  
 Juan tiene 5 pesos }

José me dio unas corbatas } → José me dio más (...) de (...) tres  
 José me dio tres corbatas } corbatas.

José tiene una parte } → José tiene más (...) de (...) la  
 José tiene la tercera parte } tercera parte.

#### 3.10.2 Comparison of Adjectives

The following description illustrates the comparison (equality or inequality) of adjectives where: (i) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical, that is, have the same referent, and the adjectives are not identical. This description presents only the "linking" verb classes ser and estar as the verbal elements. The element tan of the construct tan(t-)...como is used

before simple adjectives.

Sentence Pattern and Examples

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{NP}_1 \text{ link Adj}_1 \\ \text{NP}_1 \text{ link Adj}_2 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{más...que} \\ \text{tan...como} \end{array} \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \text{ link } \begin{bmatrix} \text{más} \\ \text{tan} \end{bmatrix} \text{ Adj}_1 \begin{bmatrix} \text{que} \\ \text{como} \end{bmatrix} (\text{NP}_1 \text{ link}) \text{ Adj}_2$$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Juan es guapo} \\ \text{Juan es inteligente} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{Juan es más guapo que (...) inteligente.}$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{María es bonita} \\ \text{María es inteligente} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{María es tan bonita como (...) inteligente.}$

The following description illustrates the comparison (equality or inequality) of adjectives where: (i) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are not identical, and (ii) the adjectives of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical.

Sentence Pattern and Examples

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{NP}_1 \text{ link Adj}_1 \\ \text{NP}_2 \text{ link Adj}_1 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{más...que} \\ \text{tan...como} \end{array} \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \text{ link } \begin{bmatrix} \text{más} \\ \text{tan} \end{bmatrix} \text{ Adj}_1 \begin{bmatrix} \text{que} \\ \text{como} \end{bmatrix} \text{NP}_2 (\text{link Adj}_1)$$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Juan es bueno} \\ \text{María es buena} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{Juan es más bueno que María (...).}$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{María es guapa} \\ \text{Elena es guapa} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{María es tan guapa como Elena (...).}$

or

María no es tan guapa como Elena (...).

### 3.10.3 Comparison of Adverbs

The following description illustrates the comparison (equality or inequality) of adverbs where: (1) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical, (ii) the verb phrases (VP) of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical, and (iii) the adverbs of the matrix and constituent sentences are not identical, but are members of the same sub-class of adverbs, i.e., Temp, Loc, or Mann. The element tan of the construct tan(t-)...como is used

before simple adverbs. It expands to tanto when used before prepositional phrases functioning as adverbs.

Sentence Pattern and Examples

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{NP}_1 \text{ VP}_1 \text{ Adv}_1 \\ \text{NP}_1 \text{ VP}_1 \text{ Adv}_2 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{más...que} \\ \text{tan(to)...como} \end{array} \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \text{ VP}_1 \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{más} \\ \text{tan(to)} \end{array} \right] \text{Adv}_1 \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{que} \\ \text{como} \end{array} \right] (\text{NP}_1 \text{ VP}_1) \text{Adv}_2$$

Juan trabaja en el campo } → Juan trabaja más en el campo que (...)  
 Juan trabaja en la ciudad } en la ciudad.

José corre en el campo } → José corre tanto en el campo como (...)  
 José corre en la ciudad } en la ciudad.

The following description illustrates the comparison (equality or inequality) of adverbs where: (i) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are not identical, and (ii) the verb phrases and adverbs of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical.

Sentence Pattern and Examples

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{NP}_1 \text{ VP}_1 \text{ Adv}_1 \\ \text{NP}_2 \text{ VP}_1 \text{ Adv}_1 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{más...como} \\ \text{tan(to)...como} \end{array} \rightarrow \text{NP}_1 \text{ VP}_1 \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{más} \\ \text{tan(to)} \end{array} \right] \text{Adv}_1 \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{que} \\ \text{como} \end{array} \right] \text{NP}_2 (\text{VP}_1 \text{ Adv}_1)$$

Juan trabaja en el campo } → Juan trabaja más en el campo que José  
 José trabaja en el campo } (...).

Juan corre rápidamente } → Juan corre tan rápidamente como José (...).  
 José corre rápidamente }

The following description illustrates the comparison of adverbs with más que and tanto como as the adverbial elements. This comparison occurs where (i) the subject noun phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are identical and (ii) the verb phrases of the matrix and constituent sentences are not identical.

Sentence Pattern and Examples

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} NP_1 \quad VP_1 \\ NP_1 \quad VP_2 \end{array} \right\} \xrightarrow{\text{más que} \quad \text{tanto como}} NP_1 \quad VP_1 \quad \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{más que} \\ \text{tanto como} \end{array} \right] (NP_1) \quad VP_2$$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{José duerme} \\ \text{José trabaja} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{José duerme tanto como (...) trabaja.}$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Juan ríe} \\ \text{Juan llora} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{Juan ríe más que (...) llora.}$

#### 3.10.4 Terminal Behavior for Comparison

- (1) The learner discriminates correctly between the two scales of comparison by recognizing as correct, or by producing, the structural elements más...que and menos...que or más...de and menos...de for the comparison of inequality, and the structural elements tan(t-)...como for the comparison of equality.
- (2) The learner compares nouns correctly when he recognizes as correct, or produces, a comparative sentence according to the conditions set forth in Sec. 3.10.1
- (3) The learner compares adjectives correctly when he recognizes as correct, or produces, a comparative sentence according to the conditions set forth in Sec. 3.10.2.
- (4) The learner compares adverbs correctly when he recognizes as correct, or produces, a comparative sentence according to the conditions set forth in Sec. 3.10.3.

#### Performance Test of Comparison

##### Auditory Comprehension

To accomplish the task of having the learner distinguish between the two scales of comparison, the examiner presents to the learner six sets of situations in Spanish which cue the learner to certain, real facts. The teacher then makes two comparative statements in Spanish;

one which reports the truth of the facts as revealed by the situation given in the cue sentence and one which does not report the truth.

The learner listens to the two Spanish sentences and within a period of five seconds, chooses the right one.

Examples:

Examiner: Instructions--I will tell you a situation in Spanish. The situation contains some important information. I will then make two comparative sentences in Spanish; one of them will reflect the true information as given in the cue sentence and one will not. You listen to the two Spanish sentences, and, within a short period time, choose the correct one.

1. Examiner: Juan tiene cinco casas y José tiene seis casas.  
 (a) Juan tiene tantas casas como José.  
 (b) José tiene más casas que Juan.

Learner: ...

2. Examiner: El hombre maneja 20 millas por hora y la señora maneja 15 millas por hora.  
 (a) El hombre maneja más rápido que la señora.  
 (b) La señora maneja tan rápido como el hombre.

Learner: ...

3. Examiner: La alumna es muy inteligente y ella es muy bonita también.  
 (a) La alumna no es tan bonita como inteligente.  
 (b) La alumna es tan inteligente como bonita.

Learner: ...

### Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner produce orally the two scales of comparison, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of ten sets of varied sentences. Each set contains two input sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). Both sentences of a set contain members of the same lexical category under comparison. The learner hears the two input sentences and, within a period of eight seconds, verbally produces a new sentence according to the appropriate scale of comparison.



## Examples:

Examiner: Instructions--I will give you two sentences. You listen to the sentences, and, within a short period of time, produce a sentence of comparison by utilizing the appropriate elements of the two sentences plus some comparison device such as más... que, tanto...como, etc.

1. Examiner: Juan tiene cinco pesos.  
José tiene cuatro pesos.

Learner: 1. Juan tiene más pesos que José.  
or 2. José tiene menos pesos que Juan.  
or 3. José no tiene tantos pesos como Juan  
but not 4. Juan no tiene tantos pesos como José.  
nor 5. José tiene tantos pesos como Juan.

2. Examiner: Juan va al campo por dos días.  
Juan va a la ciudad por dos días.

Learner: 1. Juan va tanto al campo como a la ciudad.  
or 2. Juan no va más al campo que a la ciudad.  
or 3. Juan no va más a la ciudad que al campo.  
but not 4. Juan va más al campo que a la ciudad.  
nor 5. Juan no va tanto al campo como a la ciudad.

etc.

### 3.11 Negation C. B. Christensen, J. R. Shawl

In Spanish negation can be associated with three grammatical categories: the noun phrase, the verb phrase and the adverb. The noun phrase may contain a negative determiner (ningún) or consist of a negative pronoun (nadie, nada). The pronoun nadie includes the feature [+ human], that is, has a human referent, whereas, the pronoun nada includes the feature [- human], that is, has a non-human referent. Negative adverbs include nunca, jamás, and tampoco. The following descriptions illustrate these negative elements in terms of their syntactic behavior.

Structural Patterns and Examples(1) Negativized Verb Phrase

NP VP X → NP no VP X

Juan habló en clase → Juan no habló en clase.  
 Juan lo había hecho → Juan no lo había hecho.  
 María puede hacerlo → María no puede hacerlo.

(2) Negative Subject Noun Phrase in Pre-Verbal Position

{ Nada  
 Nadie  
 Ningún-(Noun) } Predicate Phrase

Nada pasó ayer.  
 Nadie vino por tren.  
 Ninguna persona vive aquí.

(3) Negative Subject Noun Phrase in Post-Verbal Position

{ Nada  
 Nadie  
 Ningún-(Noun) } Verb X → no Verb { nada  
 nadie  
 ningún-(Noun) } X

Nada pasó ayer → No pasó nada ayer.  
 Nadie vino por tren → No vino nadie por tren  
 Ninguna persona vive aquí → No vive ninguna persona aquí.

(4) Negative Object-of-Verb Noun Phrase in Post-Verbal Position

NP no Verb { nada  
 a nadie  
 (a) ningún-(noun) }

Juan no hizo nada.  
 María no verá a nadie en el parque.  
 José no había visto a ninguna persona.  
 Yo no tengo ningún libro.

(5) Negative Object-of-Preposition Noun Phrase in Post-Verbal Position

NP no VP prep { nada  
 nadie  
 ningún-(noun) }

Juan no viajaba con nadie.



Performance Test of Negation

To accomplish the task of having the learner recognize as correct, or produce orally, the various negative elements and their syntactic patterns listed in section 3.11.1, the examiner gives the learner the explicit instruction to change a positive sentence to its negative counterpart and change a negative sentence to its positive counterpart. The examiner presents orally fourteen varied sentences (of not more than ten syllables each)--seven positive and seven negative. The learner listens to each sentence in turn, and, within a period of five seconds, transforms the sentence into its negative or positive counterpart.

## Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will give you a series of negative and positive sentences. When you hear a negative sentence you produce its positive counterpart. When you hear a positive sentence you produce its negative counterpart. After you hear my sentence, make your reply within a short period of time. For example, I could say "No digo nada" and you could say "Digo algo."

Examiner: Siempre voy al mercado.

Learner: Nunca voy al mercado.

E: No voy nunca al mercado.

L: Siempre voy al mercado.

E: No tengo nada.

L: Tengo algo.

etc.

3.12 Pronouns J. R. Shawl

In this study, pronouns, like nouns, are viewed as consisting of bundles of features. The actual shape a particular pronominal bundle of features will take depends on (1) the features themselves, that is, which ones occur, and (2) the specific position in which

they occur. For example, the features [1 person] [sg] will become yo in subject position; me in object-of-verb position; and mí in object-of-preposition position.

There exists, however, a special problem with Spanish pronouns due to the formal-informal distinction which must be made for second person reference, that is, the pronoun usted is used for formal reference to second person while the pronoun tú is used for informal reference to second person. The usted pronoun, however, requires that the verb be inflected with the same endings as are used with third person pronouns. For most textbooks, therefore, the pronoun usted has been identified as a third person form in order to obtain proper agreement with the verb. On the other hand, however, because in other respects usted behaves as a non-third person pronoun, it must be so marked and distinguished from the other third person pronominal forms. For example, if a direct and an indirect object pronoun occur with the same verb, and both pronouns are non-third person, then the restriction that the two non-third person pronouns must not be of the same person applies to usted as well as to me, te, nos, and os, that is, usted is considered as a non-third person pronoun. For example, such sequences as:

Juan me me da a mí  
 Juan nos me da a nosotros  
 \*Juan le te da a usted

are clearly ungrammatical. If, on the other hand, one or both object pronouns are third person (excluding usted), then there are no such restrictions on co-occurrence. Thus, such sentences as:

Se lo da a él. "He gives him to him."  
 "He gives himself to him."

even though ambiguous, are grammatical.

This problem can be dealt with in one of two ways: (1) mark the pronoun usted as some kind of a deviant third person form, or (2) mark the pronoun usted as a second person form, and create a formality distinction for second person, that is, usted would include the feature [+formal] and tú would include the feature [-formal]. The first solution avoids the problem of verb agreement, but creates other problems on the syntactic level such as the problem of co-occurrence mentioned above. The second solution creates a verbal agreement problem, but accounts for the other syntactic problems of co-occurrence.

In this study, the second alternative will be followed, that is, of listing two second person pronouns, one marked as formal and the other as informal.

### 3.12.1 Subject Pronouns

The subject noun phrase of a Spanish sentence, besides a noun, a nominalized sentence, or a verbal noun, may consist of a pronoun. The actual shape the pronoun assumes depends on the features for person, number, and in some cases gender included in the pronoun's set of features. One other distinction must be made with regard to subject pronouns: the formality-informality distinction for second person reference. The set of features which produce the tú pronoun will also include the feature [-formal] whereas the set of features which produce the usted pronoun will include the feature [+formal]. That is, the usted pronoun (a post-Latin addition to the system) is marked for formality, and the tú pronoun is marked for informality. Since, however, the usted pronoun is a contraction from vuestra merced,

it requires the verb to be marked for third person, just as in English the form your honor requires a third person verb (e.g.,...your honor has seen...), although making second person reference.

Table XIV, below, lists the subject pronouns included in Level II:

Table XIV

yo	tú	él	ella	usted
[ 1 person 1 number ]	[ 2 person 1 number - formal ]	[ 3 person 1 number 1 gender ]	[ 3 person 1 number 2 gender ]	[ 2 person 1 number + formal ]
nosotros	nosotras	vosotros	vosotras	
[ 1 person 2 number 1 gender ]	[ 1 person 2 number 2 gender ]	[ 2 person 2 number 1 gender + formal ]	[ 2 person 2 number 2 gender - formal ]	
	ellos	ellas	ustedes	
	[ 3 person 2 number 1 gender ]	[ 3 person 2 number 2 gender ]	[ 2 person 2 number + formal ]	

### 3.12.2 Object-of-Preposition Pronouns

When a pronoun is governed by a preposition, that is, is in object-of-preposition position, then the prepositional form of the pronoun is required. The actual shape the pronoun assumes in any given instance will depend on the features for person, number, and in certain cases, gender, included in the pronoun's set of features. The formality-informality distinction for second person reference found in subject pronouns is also needed for object-of-preposition pronouns.

Table XV, below, lists the object-of-preposition pronouns included in Level II:

Table XV

mí*	ti*	él	ella	usted
[ 1 person 1 number ]	[ 2 person 1 number - formal ]	[ 3 person 1 number 1 gender ]	[ 3 person 1 number 2 gender ]	[ 2 person 1 number + formal ]
nosotros	nosotras	vosotros	vosotras	
[ 1 person 2 number 1 gender ]	[ 1 person 2 number 2 gender ]	[ 2 person 2 number 1 gender - formal ]	[ 2 person 2 number 2 gender - formal ]	
	ellos	ellas	ustedes	
	[ 3 person 2 number 1 gender ]	[ 3 person 2 number 2 gender ]	[ 2 person 2 number + formal ]	

\*There is a morphophonemic change involved with the preposition con.

#### B. Indirect Object Pronoun

The indirect object pronoun in Spanish is derived from a kind of prepositional phrase consisting of a certain class of preposition (a or para) plus a noun or pronoun. The indirect object in Spanish cannot be understood as a noun phrase as such, for whereas in English the verb phrase may be followed by two noun phrases (e.g., "I gave the girl the book"), in Spanish this is not possible, since the indirect object is always a prepositional phrase or is derived from a prepositional phrase.

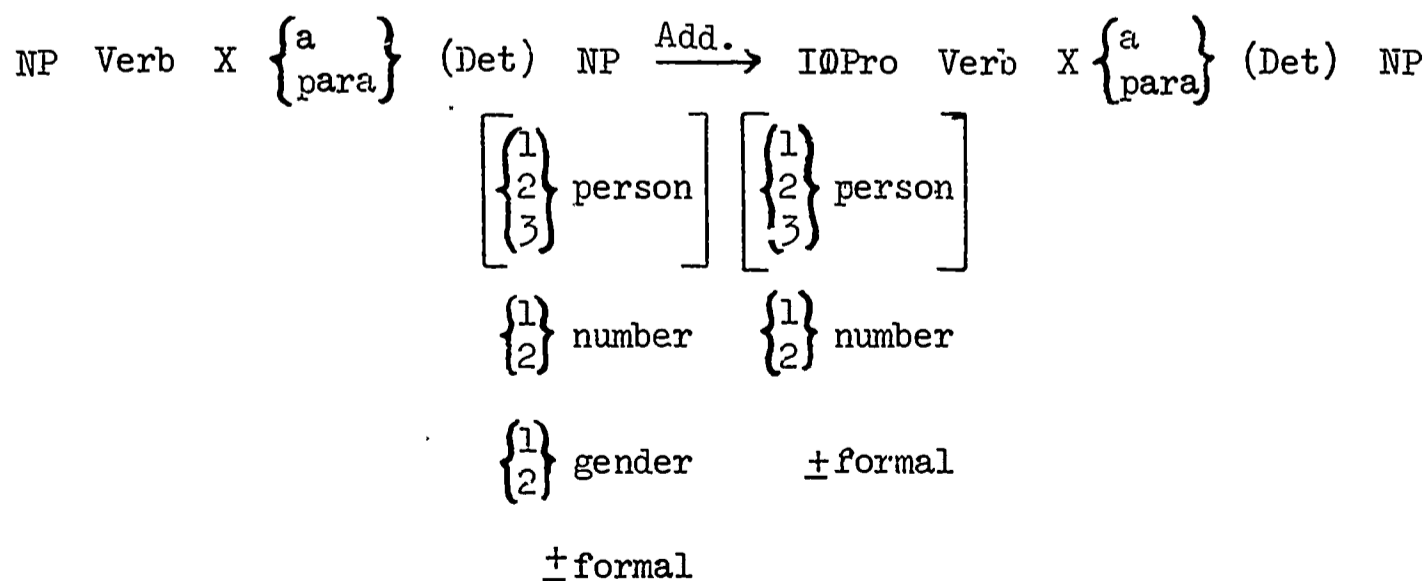


The indirect object pronoun in Spanish is "created" from the features included in the noun or pronoun's set of features occurring in the indirect object prepositional phrase (IOPh). That is, the indirect object pronoun is dependent upon the indirect object prepositional phrase for its existence. Once, however, the indirect object pronoun has been created from the prepositional phrase, then the latter becomes optional, that is, may be deleted.

#### B. Indirect Object Pronoun (creation of)

The indirect object pronoun in Spanish is created from the features of person and number of the noun; or person, number, and formality of the pronoun of the indirect object prepositional phrase. The features for person, number, and formality found in the noun or pronoun of the indirect object prepositional phrase will be used in the creation of the indirect object pronoun. For example, in the sentence given below, the features [3 person] and [1 number] included in the noun María of the prepositional phrase are used in the creation of the indirect object pronoun le.

#### Structural Patterns and Examples



Juan dio el libro a María → Juan le dio el libro a María.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \{3 \text{ person}\} \\ \{1 \text{ number}\} \end{array} \right\} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \{3 \text{ person}\} \\ \{1 \text{ number}\} \end{array} \right\}$$

C. Indirect Object Prepositional Phrase (deletion of)

Structural Pattern and Example

NP IOPro Verb X  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \{a\} \\ \{para\} \end{array} \right\}$  NP Delete → NP IOPro Verb X  
 Juan le dio el libro a María → Juan le dio el libro

The above description indicates that, for every sentence in Spanish which contains both an indirect object prepositional phrase and an indirect object pronoun (the latter created from the former), the indirect object prepositional phrase is optional, that is, may or may not be included in the sentence. The reverse, however, is not so easily explained, and consists of a series of restrictions dependent on the features for person, and whether the object of the preposition of the indirect object prepositional phrase is a noun or a pronoun. For example, for transitive verbs, the indirect object pronoun is optional in all cases involving the third person where the object of the indirect object prepositional phrase is a noun. If, however, the object of the prepositional phrase is a pronoun, no such deletion is allowed. Both sentences

(i) "Dio el libro a Juan"

and

(ii) "Le dio el libro a Juan"

are acceptable, whereas

(iii)\*Dio el libro a él

is not acceptable. These latter restrictions, which involve the

deletion of the indirect object pronoun, will not be included in Level II. It is probably best that the learner be completely proficient with the full form before any deletions are introduced, and for Level II only the deletion of the indirect object prepositional phrase.

#### D. Reflexive Indirect Object Pronoun

The reflexive indirect object pronoun, like the non-reflexive indirect object pronoun, is created from the features of person and number included in the noun or pronoun of the indirect object prepositional phrase. One added condition must be met, however, for indirect reflexivization to occur: the features for person and number of the subject noun phrase and the indirect object prepositional phrase must be identical, and indicate the same referent. For example, if María is the subject and Jorge is the indirect object (both are [3 person] [1 number]), then indirect reflexivization will not occur since the nouns do not indicate the same referent. If, on the other hand, Juan is the subject and Juan is the indirect object (both are [3 person] [1 number]), and both nouns have the same referent, that is, the "Juans" are the same person, then indirect reflexivization occurs.

#### Structural Pattern and Example

$$NP_1 \text{ Verb } X \left\{ \begin{array}{c} a \\ \text{para} \end{array} \right\} NP_1 \xrightarrow{\text{Add}} NP_1 \text{ IOPro}_{\text{reflx.}} \text{ Verb } X \left( \left\{ \begin{array}{c} a \\ \text{para} \end{array} \right\} NP_1 \right)$$

Juan lava las manos a Juan → Juan se lava las manos (a Juan)

$\left[ \begin{array}{c} 3 \text{ person} \\ 1 \text{ number} \end{array} \right] \swarrow$ 
 $\left[ \begin{array}{c} 3 \text{ person} \\ 1 \text{ number} \end{array} \right] \swarrow$ 
 $\left[ \begin{array}{c} 3 \text{ person} \\ 1 \text{ number} \end{array} \right] \swarrow$

The symbol ( $\swarrow$ ) indicates that the referents are identical.

#### 3.12.3 Direct Object Pronouns

A transitive verb is one that allows a noun phrase to follow

in object-of-verb position This object noun phrase may either be a noun or a pronoun. If the latter, then it will include features for person, number, formality for second person, and gender for third person and second person formal. The actual overt form that the object-of-verb pronoun assumes depends on the features themselves. For example, a set of features which includes [1 person] [1 number] will take the shape me; [1 person] [2 number] will take the shape nos etc.

Structural Pattern and Example

NP   Verb<sub>t</sub>   DOPro    $\xrightarrow{\text{Transpose}}$    NP   DOPro   Verb

$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} \left. \begin{array}{l} (1) \\ (2) \\ (3) \end{array} \right\} \text{person} \\ \left. \begin{array}{l} (1) \\ (2) \end{array} \right\} \text{number} \\ \left. \begin{array}{l} (1) \\ (2) \end{array} \right\} \text{gender} \\ [+ \text{ formal}] \end{array} \right]$$

Juan mató   DOPro    $\rightarrow$    Juan las mató

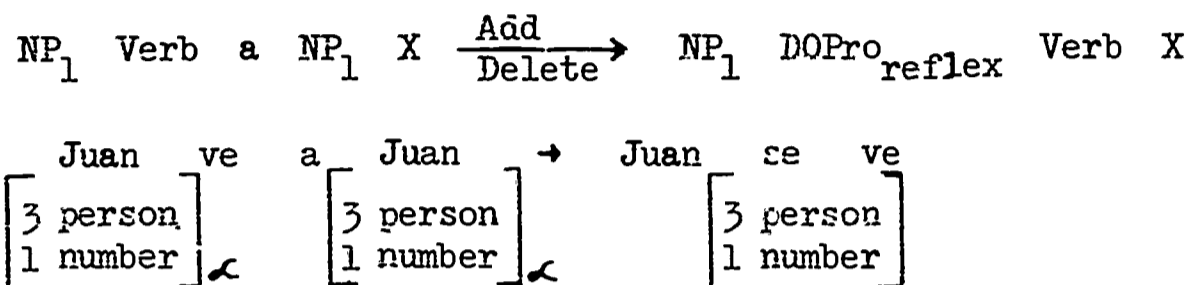
$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} 3 \text{ person} \\ 2 \text{ number} \\ 2 \text{ gender} \end{array} \right]$$

#### 3.12.4 Reflexive Direct Object Pronouns

Direct reflexivization occurs when the subject noun phrase and the object-of-verb noun phrase are identical. They must, however, be identical in two ways. First, they must be identical in terms of the features for person and number they include: and second, they must be identical as to the referent they indicate. For example,

if Juan ([3 person] [1 number]) is the subject, and Juan ([3 person] [1 number]) is the object-of-verb, then both must refer to the same person.

Structural Pattern and Example



The symbol (c) indicates that the referents are identical.

### 3.12.5 Clitic Pronoun Combinations

Of the clitic pronouns discussed above, certain combinations of two of these pronouns are possible since certain verbs in Spanish allow more than one clitic pronoun to accompany them. A verb like dar, for example, may be accompanied by both a direct and an indirect object pronoun. But all combinations of these pronouns are not possible. If, for example, both these pronouns are non-third person, that is, include either the feature [1 person] or [2 person] in their set of features, then in order to co-occur they must not include the same feature for person. Such sequences as:

\*Ella me me dio

\*Ella nos me dio

are clearly ungrammatical. That is, a direct object pronoun and an indirect object pronoun which include the same feature for person in their set of features cannot co-occur in the same sentence. If, however, one or both pronouns include the feature [3 person], then no such restriction of co-occurrence applies. Thus a sentence such as:

Juan se lo dio. "John gave him to him"  
even though ambiguous, is grammatical.

The following combinations of clitic pronouns are included  
in Level II:

Structural Patterns and Examples

X IOPro<sub>reflex</sub> DOPro Y

Juan se las lava.

X IOPro DOPro Y

José me lo dio.

CONDITION: the sequences [1 person] [1 person] or [2 person]  
[2 person] are not permitted.

There are in Spanish a number of intransitive verbs which are accompanied by a "reflexive" pronoun. These pronouns, although inflected exactly like true reflexive pronouns, cannot be considered reflexive in the true sense of the word, that is, as being derived from a sentence whose subject noun phrase and direct or indirect object noun phrases are identical. Verbs of this class are considered to be accompanied by pseudo-reflexive pronouns. The verbs quejarse and irse are examples. These pseudo-reflexive pronouns, however, behave, in terms of position with the verb phrase, in the same manner as do true reflexive pronouns, that is, the reflexive whether pseudo or true will precede other pronouns.

### 3.12.6 Clitic Pronoun Position

In relation to the verb phrase, clitic pronouns can occur in either a pre-verbal or a post-verbal position. Which position

they assume depends on the structure of the verb phrase of the particular sentence in which they are found. For certain structures a pre-verbal position for clitic pronouns is obligatory, while for others a post-verbal position for clitic pronouns is obligatory, whereas for still other structures either a pre- or a post-verbal position for clitic pronouns is allowed. Whatever the case may be, that is, either pre- or post-verbal, the relative order of the pronouns to each other remains the same: Reflexive-Indirect-Direct.

The following structural descriptions illustrate the conditions under which clitic pronouns are placed in either a pre- or post-verbal position.

A. An optionally negative sentence which contains a single verb or a compound verb with haber obligatorily places any clitic pronouns in a pre-verbal position.

Structural Pattern and Examples

NP (neg) (Pro<sub>reflex</sub>) (IOPro) (DOPro) (ha- - -do) { Verb }  
 { Link } X

Juan se lava hoy.  
 José no se lavó ayer.  
 María lo ha visto en el mercado.  
 El hombre me lo había dado el año pasado.

B. A negative imperative, either formal or informal; an indirect imperative, either affirmative or negative, require that any clitic pronouns obligatorily be placed in a pre-verbal position.

Structural Pattern and Examples

{ que (neg) }  
 { neg } (Pro<sub>reflex</sub>) (IOPro) (DOPro) { Verb }  
 { Link } subjunctive X

Que me lo diga María.  
 No me lo diga.  
 No lo hagas.

C. An optionally negative sentence whose verb phrase consists of either estar or a modal plus a Verb or Linking Verb; or a sentence whose verb is followed by a nominalized sentence in the form of an infinitive, allow any clitic pronouns to be placed in either a pre- or a post-verbal position. Once the choice as to position is made, however, all clitic pronouns appearing in a particular sentence must be placed in the one selected position. That is, placing one clitic pronoun in a pre-verbal and another in a post-verbal position in the same sentence is not permitted.

Structural Patterns and Examples

NP (neg) (Pro<sub>reflex</sub>) (IOPro) (DOPro)  $\left[ \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{esta- - -ndo} \\ \text{Modal} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Verb} \\ \text{Link} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{Verb} \text{ [Verb}^{\wedge}\text{inf]} \end{array} \right] \text{ X}$

NP (reg)  $\left[ \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{esta- - -ndo} \\ \text{Modal} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Verb} \\ \text{Link} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{Verb} \text{ [Verb}^{\wedge}\text{inf]} \end{array} \right] \text{ (Pro}_{\text{reflex}}) \text{ (IOPro) (DOPro) X}$

Juan no me lo puede hacer.  
Juan no me la está leyendo.  
Juan lo quiere matar.

OR

Juan no puede hacérmelo.  
Juan no está leyéndomela.  
Juan quiere matarlo.

D. An affirmative imperative sentence, either formal or informal, obligatorily places all clitic pronouns in a post-verbal attached position.



Structural Pattern and Examples

Verb  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{subjunctive} \\ \text{indicative} \end{array} \right\}$  (Pro<sub>reflex</sub>) (IOPro) (DOPro) (NP) X

Hágamelo (usted).  
Siéntese (usted).  
Démelo.

## 3.12.7 Terminal Behavior for Pronouns

A. The learner pronominalizes when he recognizes as correct, or produces:

1. yo in subject position; me in direct object position; and mi in object-of-preposition position, for the features [1 person, sg].
2. tú in subject position; te in direct object position; and ti in object-of-preposition position, for the features [2 person, sg, - formal].
3. usted in subject position or object-of-preposition position for the features [2 person, sg, + formal] and lo in object-of-verb position for the features [2 person, sg, + formal, 1 gender] and la for the features [2 person, sg, + formal, 2 gender] also in object-of-verb position.
4. él in subject position or object-of-preposition position, and lo in object-of-verb position for the features [3 person, sg, 1 gender].
5. ella in subject position or object-of-preposition position, and la in object-of-verb position for the features [3 person, sg, 2 gender].
6. nosotros in subject position or object-of-preposition position for the features [pl, 1 person, 1 gender].
7. nosotras in subject position or object-of-preposition position for the features [pl, 1 person, 2 gender].

8. nos in object-of-verb position for the features [1 person, pl].
9. ustedes in subject position or object-of-preposition position for the features [2 person, pl, + formal]; and los in object-of-verb position for the features [2 person, pl, + formal, 1 gender], and las for the features [2 person, pl, + formal, 2 gender] also in object-of-verb position.
10. ellos in subject position or object-of-preposition position, and los in object-of-verb position for the features [3 person, pl, 1 gender].
11. ellos in subject position or in object-of-preposition position, and las in object-of-verb position for the features [3 person, pl, 2 gender].
12. me from the features [1 person, sg] occurring in object-of-preposition position of either of the indirect object phrase prepositions a or para.
13. te from the features [2 person, sg, - formal] occurring in object-of-preposition position of either of the indirect object phrase prepositions a or para.
14. lo from the features [2 person, sg, + formal] occurring in object-of-preposition position of either of the indirect object phrase prepositions a or para.
15. le from the features [3 person, sg, 1-2 gender] occurring in object-of-preposition position of either of the indirect object phrase prepositions a or para.
16. nos from the features [1 person, sg, 1-2 gender] occurring in object-of-preposition position of either of the indirect object phrase prepositions a or para.
17. les from the features [2 person, pl, + formal] occurring in object-of-preposition position of either of the indirect object phrase prepositions a or para.

18. les from the features [3 person, pl, 1-2 gender] occurring in object-of-preposition position of either of the indirect object phrase prepositions a or para.
19. me when (1) the subject and object-of-verb noun phrases, or (2) the subject noun phrase and the noun phrase of the indirect object prepositional phrase, both contain the features [1 person, sg] as well as make the same reference.
20. te when (1) and (2) above, both contain the features [2 person, sg, - formal] as well as make the same reference.
21. se when (1) and (2) above, both contain the features [2 person, sg, + formal] as well as make the same reference.
22. se when (1) and (2) above, both contain the features [3 person, sg, 1-2 gender] as well as make the same reference.
23. nos when (1) and (2) above, both contain the features [1 person, pl, 1-2 gender].
24. se when (1) and (2) above, both contain the features [2 person, pl, + formal] as well as make the same reference.
25. se when (1) and (2) above, both contain the features [3 person, pl, 1-2 gender].

B. In Level II the learner discriminates the correct positioning of pronouns when he recognizes as correct or produces:

1. any clitic pronouns in a pre-verbal position in a sentence which contains a single verb or a compound verb with haber.
2. any clitic pronouns in a pre-verbal position in a sentence which contains a negative imperative, either formal or informal; or an indirect imperative, either affirmative or negative.
3. any clitic pronouns in either a pre- or a post-verbal position in a sentence whose verb is followed by a

nominalized sentence in the form of an infinitive;  
 or an optionally negative sentence whose verb phrase  
 consists of either estar plus the -ndo form of a verb;  
 or a modal plus a verb or linking verb.

4. any clitic pronouns in a post-verbal position in an affirmative imperative sentence, either formal or informal.

C. In Level II the learner correctly discriminates combinations of clitic pronouns when he recognizes as correct, or produces:

1. an indirect object pronoun (either reflexive or non-reflexive) before a direct object pronoun whether in a pre- or a post-verbal position.
2. an indirect object pronoun with a direct object pronoun where the pronouns' sets of features do not include the same feature for person.

### Performance Test of Pronouns

#### Auditory Comprehension

To accomplish the task of having the learner recognize the various pronominal forms described in section 3.12, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of ten sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). Each sentence contains only one pronoun. The learner listens to each sentence and, within a period of six seconds, invents a logical noun to substitute for the pronoun and places it correctly within the syntactic structure he repeats from the examiner's cue.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say a sentence to you in Spanish. The sentence will have a pronoun you can replace with an appropriate noun. You listen to the sentence, and, within a short period of time,

invent a logical noun for the pronoun, and put it in the sentence I gave you. For example, I could say "María lo tiene" and you could say "María tiene el libro."

Examiner: El llegó tarde.

Learner: Juan llegó tarde.

E: Mamá salió con nosotros.

L: Mamá salió con Juan y yo.

E: Enséñele la lección.

L: Enseñe la lección a Juan.

### Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner produce the various pronominal forms described in section 3.12, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of ten sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). Each sentence contains only one noun which can be pronominalized. The learner listens to each sentence, and, within a period of six seconds, produces the appropriate pronominal form and places it correctly within the syntactic structure he produces.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say a sentence to you in Spanish. The sentence will have a noun that you can replace with an appropriate pronoun. You listen to the sentence and, within a short period of time, reproduce the sentence with the change of pronoun for noun. For example, I could say "Veo la casa" and you could say "La veo."

Examiner: Juan está.

Learner: El está.

E: Tenemos los pesos.

L: Los tenemos.

E: Estoy con María.

L: Estoy con ella.

E: Lo doy a Paco.

L: Se lo doy.

E: Deme el libro.

L: Démelo.

E: Delo a Juan.

L: Déselo (a Juan)

etc.

3.13 Imperatives J. R. Shawl

In Spanish there are four distinct but related imperative constructions. The first type, the so-called Indirect Imperative, can be viewed as a certain kind of nominalized constituent sentence. The matrix sentence used in this type of imperative consists of a subject noun phrase which includes the feature [1 person] (e.g., yo), and a specified verb which includes the feature [+ bias] (e.g., querer). The Indirect Imperative is obtained by a process which deletes the above mentioned matrix sentence leaving the constituent sentence preceded by the nominalizing element que. For example:

Yo quiero que [usted sal-] → Que usted salga

The remaining types of Imperatives (Formal, Informal, and Horatatory) can be viewed as derivations from the Indirect Imperative by means of a process which: (i) deletes the nominalizing element que, (ii) makes the subject noun phrase of the constituent sentence optional, and (iii) places all clitic (i.e., with-verb) pronouns in an attached, post-verbal position for all non-negative imperatives. For example:

- (a) que usted salga → salga (usted)
- (b) que ustedes salgan → salgan (ustedes)
- (c) que usted no salga → no salga (usted)
- (d) que ustedes no salgan → no salgan (ustedes)
- (e) que nosotros salgamos → salgamos (nosotros)
- (f) que nosotros no salgamos → no salgamos (nosotros)
- (g) que tú no salgas → no salgas (tú)
- (h) que tú salgas → sal (tú)

One motivation for analyzing the Formal, Informal, and

Hortatory Imperatives as similar in structure as well as in derivation (i.e., in viewing them as derived from a nominalized constituent sentence with the Indirect Imperative as an intermediate step) can be found in the above examples in which all but one (h) verbal form exhibit morphological conformity. The affirmative Informal Imperative, that is, (h) requires a further morphological change. For example:

que usted salga → salga (usted)  
 Que tú salgas → \*Salgas (tú) → Sal (tú)

Another motivation for this analysis can be found in the fact that any clitic pronouns associated with the verb phrase behave in an identical manner for all three forms. That is, negative Formal, Informal, and Hortatory Imperatives require that clitic pronouns be placed in an attached, post-verbal position. For the imperatives, there is then, in regard to the clitic pronouns, syntactic conformity for all three types. For example:

Affirmative:	dímelo	Informal
	dígame	Formal
	comámosla	Hortatory
Negative:	no me lo digas	Informal
	no me lo diga	Formal
	no la comamos	Hortatory

The following descriptions set forth those imperatives included in Level II:





## 3.13.1 Terminal Behavior for Imperatives

- (1) The learner commands by means of the Indirect Imperative when he recognizes as correct or produces either an affirmative or a negative sentence introduced by the element que, whose verb is in the subjunctive, as illustrated in section (1) above.
- (2) The learner commands by means of the affirmative Formal Imperative when he recognizes as correct or produces a sentence (i) whose verb has been subjunctivized, (ii) whose optional noun phrase in post-verbal position is either usted or ustedes, as illustrated in section (2) above, and (iii) where any clitic pronouns have been placed in an attached post-verbal position, as illustrated in section (3.12.6).
- (3) The learner commands by means of the negative Formal Imperative when he recognizes as correct or produces a sentence (i) whose verb has been subjunctivized and contains the negative element no, (ii) whose optional noun phrase in post-verbal position is either usted or ustedes, as illustrated in section (2) above, and (iii) where any clitic pronouns have been placed in a pre-verbal position, as illustrated in section (3.12.6).
- (4) The learner commands by means of the affirmative Informal Imperative when he recognizes as correct or produces a sentence (i) whose verb has been imperativized, (ii) whose optional noun phrase in post-verbal position is tú, as illustrated in section (4) above, and (iii) where any clitic pronouns have been placed in an attached post-verbal position as illustrated in section (3.12.6).
- (5) The learner commands by means of the negative Informal Imperative when he recognizes as correct or produces a sentence (i) whose verb has been subjunctivized, and contains the negative element no, (ii) whose optional noun phrase in post-verbal position is tú, as illustrated in

section (3) above, and (iii) where any clitic pronouns have been placed in a pre-verbal position, as illustrated in section (3.12.6).

- (6) The learner commands by means of the affirmative Hortatory Imperative when he recognizes as correct or produces a sentence (i) whose verb has been subjunctivized, (ii) whose optional noun phrase in post-verbal position is nosotros or nosotras, as illustrated in section (5) above, and (iii) where any clitic pronouns have been placed in an attached post-verbal position, as illustrated in section (3.12.6).
- (7) The learner commands by means of the negative Hortatory Imperative when he recognizes as correct or produces a sentence (i) whose verb has been subjunctivized, and contains the negative element no, (ii) whose optional noun phrase in post-verbal position is nosotros or nosotras, as illustrated in section (5) above, and (iii) where any clitic pronouns have been placed in a pre-verbal position, as illustrated in section (3.12.6)

### Performance Test of Imperatives

#### Auditory Comprehension

To accomplish the task of having the learner recognize the imperative forms as described in section 3.13, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of eight imperative sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). Each sentence gives a command to the learner. (In some cases the learner may have to pretend and act out his response: e.g., eating). The learner listens to each sentence and, within a period of five seconds, responds appropriately to the command.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will tell you something in Spanish.  
You listen to what I tell you and respond accordingly

within a short period of time. In some cases you may have to pretend and act out your response. For example, I could say "Levántese usted" and you could respond by standing up. Or I could say "Dígame su nombre" and you could say "Juan" (or whatever).

Examiner: Coma toda la sopa.

Learner: ...

E: Salúdeme ahora.

L: ...

E: Cierre los ojos.

L: ...

etc.

### Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner produce orally the imperative, the examiner gives the learner a series of eight varied sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). Each sentence indicates that some imaginary person does or does not do some particular thing. The learner listens to each sentence and, within a period of seven seconds, produces an imperative that would tell that person to do the opposite of the examiner's cue.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions—I will tell you in Spanish something about an imaginary person whom we will pretend is sitting right here (indicate a near-by chair). You listen to each sentence I tell you, and, within a short period of time, you command this imaginary person to do just the opposite of what I say he is doing or not doing. For example, I could say "El señor no dice nada" and you could say "Señor, diga algo," or I could say "María no come" and you could say "María, come."

Examiner: La señora no se sienta.

Learner: Señora, siéntese.

E: Juan habla mucho.

L: Juan, no hables tanto.

etc.

3.14 Exclamations J. R. Shawl, C. B. Christensen

The exclamatory element qué is a kind of intensifier of whatever follows. The intensifier may precede nouns, simple adjectives, and some simple adverbs of time, location and manner. Normally, these nouns occurring with the exclamatory element are those functioning as predicate nominal or object-of-verb.

Structural Patterns and Examples

## 1. Exclamation with post-verbal nouns:

NP Vt Det Noun → NP Vt qué Noun → qué Noun Vt NP  
 [+common]

Juan tiene un\* coche → Juan tiene qué coche → qué coche tiene Juan  
 (¡Qué coche tiene Juan!)

\*Un is merely a member of the class Determiners of which other members (e.g., una, el, aquel...) are possible in this structure.

## 2. Exclamation with adjectives and nouns after linking verbs:

NP Link  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Int} \text{ Adjs} \\ \text{Det} \text{ Noun} \\ [+ \text{ common}] \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{NP Link } \underline{\text{qué}} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Adj}_s \\ \text{Noun} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \underline{\text{qué}} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Adj}_s \\ \text{Noun} \end{array} \right\} \text{ Link NP}$

Juan es un hombre → Juan es qué hombre → qué hombre es Juan  
 (¡Qué hombre es Juan!)

María es muy\* bonita → María es qué bonita → qué bonita es María  
 (¡Qué bonita es María!)

\*Muy is merely a member of the class Intensifiers of which other members (e.g., tan, bastante,...) are possible in this structure.

## 3. Exclamation with post-verbal adverbs:

NP VP Int  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Loc}_s \\ \text{Temp}_s \\ \text{Mann}_s \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{NP VP } \underline{\text{qué}} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Loc}_s \\ \text{Temp}_s \\ \text{Mann}_s \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \underline{\text{qué}} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Loc}_s \\ \text{Temp}_s \\ \text{Mann}_s \end{array} \right\} \text{ VP NP}$

Juan llegó muy tarde → Juan llegó qué tarde → qué tarde llegó Juan  
 (¡Qué tarde llegó Juan!)

Juan lo hizo muy bien → Juan lo hizo qué bien → qué bien lo hizo Juan  
 (¡Qué bien lo hizo Juan!)

El barco va muy lejos → El barco va qué lejos → qué lejos va el barco  
 (¡Qué lejos va el barco!)

### 3.14.1 Terminal Behavior for Exclamations

- (1) The learner exclaims when he recognizes as correct or produces (i) a sentence with the element qué in sentence initial position for a sentence with the following structural description: "        Noun Verb NP"; and where (ii) the  $\left[ \begin{array}{c} + \\ \text{common} \end{array} \right]$  above sentence is marked with exclamation marks (¡...!) in a pre- and post-sentence position for reading and writing or is characterized by stress on the element qué for speaking.
- (2) The learner exclaims when he recognizes as correct or produces (i) a sentence with the element qué in sentence initial position for a sentence with the following structural description: "        Adj<sub>s</sub> Copula NP"; and where (ii) the above sentence is marked with exclamation marks (¡...!) in a pre- and post-sentence position for reading and writing or is characterized by stress on the element qué for speaking.
- (3) The learner exclaims when he recognizes as correct or produces (i) a sentence with the element qué in sentence initial position for a sentence with the following structural description: "         $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Loc}_S \\ \text{Temp}_S \\ \text{Mann}_S \end{array} \right\}$  VP NP"; and where (ii) the above sentence is marked with exclamation marks (¡...!) in a pre- and post-sentence position for reading and writing or is characterized by stress on the element qué for speaking.

### 3.15 Passivization J. R. Shawl

In Spanish most sentences which contain a transitive verb plus a direct object, that is, an object-of-verb noun phrase, can be converted into a passive construction. There are, however, verbs which allow an object-of-verb phrase, but which cannot be passivized.

These are the so-called middle verbs. For example, the verb tener, although allowing an object-of-verb noun phrase, cannot enter into a passive construction. On the other hand, a verb like cerrar allows an object-of-verb noun phrase, and can enter into a passive construction.

Juan cierra la puerta → La puerta es cerrada por Juan

but not Juan tiene el libro → \*El libro es tenido por Juan

A passive sentence in Spanish is formed in the following way:

(1) the object-of-verb noun phrase of the active sentence is moved into the subject position of the passive sentence, (2) the original subject noun phrase of the active sentence is assigned to a position after por as the agent, (3) the link ser is inserted immediately before the verb, and must be inflected for the tense of the active verb, and for the person-number features of the subject noun phrase of the passive sentence, and (4) the verb is changed into its past participle form which agrees in gender and number with the subject noun phrase of the passive sentence.

#### Structural Pattern and Example

NP<sub>1</sub> Vt NP<sub>2</sub> → NP<sub>2</sub> ser Verb -d- por NP<sub>1</sub>

José cerró la caja → La caja fue cerrada por José.

#### 3.15.1 Terminal Behavior for Passivization

The learner passivizes when he recognizes as correct or produces:

- (1) the subject noun phrase of the active sentence immediately after por functioning as the agent, and placed in sentence final position.
- (2) the object-of-verb noun phrase of the active sentence in subject position.

- (3) the link ser inflected for the tense of the active verb, and for the person-number features of the subject noun phrase, that is, the noun phrase which is the result of number (2) above; and positioned immediately before the active verb.
- (4) the verb of the active sentence as a past participle which agrees in gender and number of the new subject noun phrase, that is, the noun phrase which is the result of number (2) above.

Performance Test of Passivization C. B. Christensen

To have the learner recognize as correct, or produce orally, the passive construction, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of eight, varied sentences--four passive (of not more than fifteen syllables each) and four actives (of not more than ten syllables each). The learner listens to each sentence. If it is a passive construction, he converts it to an active one; if an active construction, he converts it to a passive one. Each conversion is to be completed within a period of five seconds after the examiner's cue.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will give you a sentence in Spanish. You listen to the sentence. If it is an active construction, you convert it to a passive construction; if passive, convert it to an active construction. Make the conversion within a period of five seconds after you hear my cue-sentence. For example, I could give you the sentence "José vendió el coche" and you could say "El coche fue vendido por José."

Examiner: El alumno practica la lección.

Learner: ...

E: La casa es construída por los obreros.

L: ...

etc.

3.16 Alternation of "Basic" Sentence Patterns J. R. Shawl

The structures included in section 3.2 above are listed by means of a particular arrangement of sentence elements. These sentence elements, so arranged, account for the description of a specified number of "basic" sentence patterns. We can view these sentence patterns as basic in the sense that they provide a spatial arrangement of elements from which further structural changes can be made and described. That is, sentence elements do not always appear in the linear order indicated by these patterns, and, therefore, must be described. Below are listed the sentence pattern alternations included in Level II.

Structural Patterns and Examples

(1) NP Pred Ph → Pred Ph NP

Juan viene temprano → Viene temprano Juan.

(2) NP VP Adverb → Adverb VP NP

Juan viene temprano → Temprano viene Juan.

(3) NP VP Adverb → Adverb NP VP

Juan viene temprano → Temprano Juan viene.

(4) NP Verb X Adverb → Verb NP X Adverb

Juan viene temprano → Viene Juan temprano.

(5) NP<sub>1</sub> IOPro Verb {<sup>a</sup> para} NP<sub>2</sub> → {<sup>a</sup> para} NP<sub>2</sub> IOPro Verb NP<sub>1</sub>

La casa le gusta a Juan → A Juan le gusta la casa.

(6) NP<sub>1</sub> IOPro Verb {<sup>a</sup> para} NP<sub>2</sub> → IOPro Verb {<sup>a</sup> para} NP<sub>2</sub> NP<sub>1</sub>

La casa le gusta a Juan → Le gusta a Juan la casa.



## 3.16.1 Terminal Behavior for Alternation of Basic Sentence Patterns

The learner alternates sentence patterns when he recognizes as correct or produces sentences according to the above structural patterns and restrictions.

3.17 Deletions C. B. Christensen

The sentence patterns and examples in Sec. 3.6 illustrated how nouns undergo modification. A modified, [+ common] noun (i.e., a noun accompanied by a determiner) functioning as subject, object-of-verb, object-of-preposition, or predicate nominal may be deleted. The determiner, then, co-occurs with the modifier (e.g., "los hombres buenos" → "los buenos" = the good ones). The following set of descriptions illustrates those structures included in Level II in which nouns may be deleted.

Structural Patterns and Examples

$$(1) \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{Det} \quad \text{N} \quad \text{Adj}_s \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right] \text{gender} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{sg} \\ \text{pl} \end{array} \right\} \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{Det} \quad \text{Adj}_s \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right] \text{gender} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{sg} \\ \text{pl} \end{array} \right\} \end{array}$$

Veo los lápices rojos → Veo los rojos  
Ella es la chica alta → Ella es la alta

$$(2) \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{Det} \quad \text{N} \quad \text{Prep} \quad \text{NP} \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right] \text{gender} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{sg} \\ \text{pl} \end{array} \right\} \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{Det} \quad \text{Prep} \quad \text{NP} \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right] \text{gender} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{sg} \\ \text{pl} \end{array} \right\} \end{array}$$

la lección de hoy → la de hoy  
ese chico de Chile → ése de Chile

$$(3) \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{Det} \quad \text{N} \quad \text{que...} \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right] \text{gender} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{sg} \\ \text{pl} \end{array} \right\} \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{Det} \quad \text{que...} \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right] \text{gender} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{sg} \\ \text{pl} \end{array} \right\} \end{array}$$

el hombre que viene → el que viene  
 la chica que conozco → la que conozco

(4) Det N Prep que VP → Det Prep que VP

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right\} \text{gender}$	Prep	que	VP	→	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right\} \text{gender}$	Prep	que	VP
$\left. \begin{array}{l} \{sg\} \\ \{pl\} \end{array} \right\}$					$\left. \begin{array}{l} \{sg\} \\ \{pl\} \end{array} \right\}$			

La casa en que vivo es buena → La en que vivo es buena

Unmodified nouns may be deleted when preceded by the determiners est-, es-, and aquel-. The result is that the determiner becomes pronominalized.

#### Structural Pattern and Examples

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{est-} \\ \text{es-} \\ \text{aquel-} \end{array} \right\}$	N	→	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{est-} \\ \text{es-} \\ \text{aquel-} \end{array} \right\}$
$\left. \begin{array}{l} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right\} \text{gender}$			$\left. \begin{array}{l} \{1\} \\ \{2\} \end{array} \right\} \text{gender}$
$\left. \begin{array}{l} \{sg\} \\ \{pl\} \end{array} \right\}$			$\left. \begin{array}{l} \{sg\} \\ \{pl\} \end{array} \right\}$

Este hombre llegó temprano → Este llegó temprano  
 Conozco a aquella chica → Conozco a aquella

The next pattern illustrates that certain transitive verbs allow the following noun-object to be deleted.

#### Sentence Pattern and Examples

NP<sub>1</sub> Vt NP<sub>2</sub> → NP<sub>1</sub> Vt

Los pollos comen grano → Los pollos comen  
 Aprendo español bien → Aprendo bien  
 Entiendo el problema → Entiendo  
 ¿Tienen ellos coche? Sí,  
 tienen coche → Sí, tienen

In cases where the direct object NP has been deleted and the

subject NP has been permuted to a post-verbal position (e.g., Comen los pollos), an obvious ambiguity arises through a new interpretation supplied by the surface structure. In this case, it is apparent that the learner must "understand" that in certain cases the direct object NP may be left in the sentence or may be deleted. In the long run, it is probably more economical to present first the underlying form and a rule stating that the object NP may be deleted, once the context has been established.

Perhaps the most common deletion is that of the subject noun phrase.

#### Sentence Pattern and Examples

NP    Verb    X    →    Verb    X

Juan trabaja mucho    →    Trabaja mucho  
El y yo vamos juntos    →    Vamos juntos

Various other kinds of deletions occur in Spanish under normal conversational conditions. The following list highlights some of these deletions. The deleted portion is enclosed in parentheses.

¿Qué dijo Juan? (Juan dijo) que salió temprano.  
¿Cómo está usted? (Estoy) muy bien.  
¿Qué vio usted? (Vi) la casa.  
¿Quién lo dijo? (Lo dijo) él.  
Juan corre bien, ¿no? Sí, (Juan corre bien) y salta bien, también.

Although this report does not dwell specifically with these kinds of deletions, they are obviously of great importance in the total picture of the foreign-language program. We dare not imply that, for the classroom situation, only a certain few kinds of deletions should be practiced. Proficiency in the target language assumes that the learner ultimately makes similar manipulations of the language

elements that the native speaker makes in economizing the amount of verbage used to transmit a message. Our Level II description of deletions together with a description of terminal behavior suggests mere minimal norms of grammaticality in terms of what is acceptable to the native speaker in normal conversation.

### 3.17.1 Terminal Behavior for Deletion

The learner correctly discriminates the use of noun (or noun phrase) deletion when he recognizes as correct, or produces, a sentence or phrase from which a noun has been deleted after the noun features of gender and number have been appropriately assigned to the determiner according to the structural descriptions in Sec. 3.17.

#### Performance Test of Deletion

##### Auditory Comprehension

To accomplish the task of having the learner recognize as correct, the various patterns in which a noun has been deleted, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of ten varied sentences (of not more than fifteen syllables each) according to the patterns of Sec. 3.17. The learner hears each sentence from which a noun has been deleted, and, within a period of eight seconds, invents a contextually appropriate noun to co-occur with the given determiner and modifier and says it to the examiner.

#### Example:

Examiner: Instructions--You will hear a sentence from which some noun has been deleted. You listen to the sentence, and, within a short period of time, invent a noun which logically goes with the sentence you hear and say it to me.

Examiner: Los que estudian mucho son inteligentes.

Learner: Los alumnos que estudian mucho son inteligentes.

E: La gente come.

L: La gente come carne.

etc.

### Oral Production

To accomplish the task of having the learner orally produce the various patterns in which a noun has been deleted, the examiner presents orally to the learner a series of ten sentences (of not more than fifteen syllables each) according to the patterns of Sec. 3.17. The learner hears each sentence from which no noun has been deleted, and, within a period of eight seconds, deletes an appropriate noun and repeats the sentence.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--You will hear a full sentence. You listen to the sentence, and within a short period of time, delete an appropriate noun from the sentence and repeat the remaining portion of the sentence.

Examiner: Los hombres cansados durmieron mucho.

Learner: Los cansados durmieron mucho.

E: El hotel que es alto es caro.

L: El que es alto es caro.

etc.

### 3.18 Conjunctions C. B. Christensen

The function of the conjunctive element is to coordinate two syntactic structures, whether at the word, phrase, or sentence stage. This section will not describe the common conjunctions y, o (or o... o...), and ni (or ni...ni...), although these conjunctions are presented during Level II. It is felt that their relatively simple nature does not warrant space in this description. This section will, however, present pero and sino que.

The following description of pero employs the symbol X to represent any syntactic structure (i.e., word, phrase, or sentence). The X is marked with the feature [+ contrary] (read plus contrary). The feature [+ contrary] means that an element of one X is in some sense the opposite of, or contrary to, its counterpart in the other X.

Structural Pattern and Examples

$X_1$	pero	$X_2$
[+ contrary]		[+ contrary]

Juan es rico pero José no es rico.  
 Juan es rico pero él no es inteligente.  
 María sí, pero Juan no.  
 El sombrero es bonito pero el vestido es feo.  
 El coche es bonito pero (el coche es) caro.\*  
 No es listo pero no es tonto tampoco.

The description of sino que is similar to that of pero, except that it coordinates only predicate phrases. In addition to the feature [+ contrary], the first predicate phrase (Pred Ph<sub>1</sub>) must be marked with the feature [+ negative]; and the second predicate phrase (Pred Ph<sub>2</sub>), with [+ positive]. Furthermore, Pred Ph<sub>1</sub> and Pred Ph<sub>2</sub> represent two structures whose subjects are similar; that is, have the same referent.

Structural Pattern and Examples

$NP_1$	Pred Ph <sub>1</sub>	sino que	$NP_1$	Pred Ph <sub>2</sub>
	[+ contrary]			[+ contrary]
	[+ negative]			[+ positive]

No es rico sino que es pobre.  
 No tiene una pluma sino que tiene un lápiz.  
 Paco no juega sino que (Paco) trabaja.\*

---

\*See section 3.17, Deletions.

In cases where the verbs of both predicate phrases are identical but with different complements, it is normal to delete the verb of Pred Ph<sub>2</sub> together with the element que following sino. The same features given in the last description, above, apply here.

Structural Pattern and Examples

NP<sub>1</sub> Verb<sub>1</sub> Comp<sub>1</sub> sino que NP<sub>1</sub> Verb<sub>1</sub> Comp<sub>2</sub> → NP<sub>1</sub> Verb<sub>1</sub> Comp<sub>1</sub> sino Comp<sub>2</sub>

No es rico sino que es pobre. → No es rico sino pobre.  
No veo a Juan sino que veo a Paco. → No veo a Juan sino a Paco.

### 3.18.1 Terminal Behavior for Conjunctions

In Level II the learner correctly discriminates the use of conjunctive elements when he recognizes as correct, or produces, two structures of equal syntactic status, coordinated by:

- (1) ...y..., for cases where the two structures (represented here by suspension points) are to be communicated or understood as an accumulated pair of structures such as "uno y uno son dos."
- (2) ...o... (or o...o...), for cases where a selection of one of the two structures is the desired result.
- (3) ...ni... (or ni...ni...), for cases where a selection of neither structure is the desired result.
- (4) pero, for cases where the structure preceding pero is somehow contrary to, or opposite of, the structure following pero.
- (5) sino que, for cases where the predicate phrase preceding sino que is of a negative nature, and is somehow contrary to, or opposite of, the predicate phrase (which is of a positive nature) following sino que.
- (6) sino, for cases where the verbal complement of the (negative) predicate phrase preceding sino is somehow contrary to, or

opposite of, the verbal complement of the (positive) predicate phrase (the verbal element of which is omitted) following sino.

#### Performance Test of Conjunctions

To have the learner produce orally the various conjunctions coordinating two possible syntactic structures, the examiner gives the learner ten sets of varied sentences (of not more than ten syllables each). Each set consists of two sentences. In addition to each set of sentences, the examiner provides a conjunctive element. The learner listens to the conjunction, and the set of sentences, and, within a period of seven seconds, puts the two sentences together coordinated by the conjunctive element.

Example:

Examiner: Instructions--I will say two sentences to you in Spanish. Also, I will give you a special word to be used in linking the two sentences together in some correct way. You listen to the special word plus the two sentences, and, within a short period of time, produce a longer sentence by putting together correctly parts of my two sentences. For example, I could say the special word "y" and "María come ahora" and "Juan come ahora" and you could say either "María come ahora y Juan come ahora también" or simply "María y Juan comen ahora."

Examiner: Pero: Juan va. María va.

Learner: ...

etc.



#### 4. CONCLUSION

C. B. Christensen, J. R. Shawl

In most American schools today the development of a well-articulated foreign-language program remains one of the areas of major concern. Many students are learning foreign languages inefficiently; and one probable reason for this is poor coordination of the steps toward achieving a working knowledge of the language. If progress in the study of foreign language is to be accelerated, or if progress is to be improved at all, successive levels of student achievement must be defined and measured, as a part of a long-range effort to improve articulation of language acquisition.

This study aimed at two main objectives, is an effort to improve upon existing specifications for the syntactic structure to be included in Achievement Level II for Spanish. The first objective, prerequisite to the second, was to postulate explicitly described language structures, relating the derivative structures to the more basic patterns. The description facilitated the attainment of the second objective: to specify in operational terms what the learner does when he uses correctly certain syntactic patterns of Spanish.

The purpose beyond these two objectives is the development of concepts to serve two fundamental educational aims: an ideal methodological approach to language instruction, and a standard of learner performance with respect to the structure of the target language. Some concepts related to these two educational aims were presented in the introduction of this study. It was claimed that

decision-making procedures are important to curriculum operations, and the decisions need to be made on explicit grounds. Course content develops from discrete content items arranged in such a manner as to move, one item at a time, from what is relatively easy for the learner to what is relatively difficult. This arrangement is organized into the learning continuum, by grouping structures into sets and arranging the structures in a smoothly-articulated sequence. Finally, the teacher must have at his disposal an overview of the language structure and expected goals of student performance, in order to segment the learning continuum into optimally small, learning units.

We hypothesized, therefore, that learners who learn a second language by being exposed to materials in which the language data have been organized into sets of related structures and where explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships have been stated, demonstrate a higher degree of learning achievement in the recognition and production of grammatical structures than do learners who learn a second language by being exposed to materials in which language data are not organized into related sets of grammatical structures, and explicit statements of syntactic composition and interrelationships are not included.

Achievement scores of experimental testing suggest that learners who are taught systematically arranged language structures, and who are also given explanations concerning the structures, constituents and interrelationships, as presented under the specific conditions described in this study, demonstrate a higher degree

of performance in the recognition and production of these language structures than learners not exposed to these conditions.

The differences in learner performance, disregarding different innate abilities (Lambert, 1963: p. 61), may be explained by inferring that different teaching procedures and materials help foreign-language pupils attain varying degrees of proficiency. It is assumed, however, that the individuals' learning is more or less thorough to the extent that the teacher is able to guide the learner along a smooth transition from one structure to another so that the learner "understands" the grammatical structure he is learning through drill exercises. We conclude on this basis that one useful method of presenting the syntactic structure of a particular achievement level is to group related structures, and to explain their interrelationships.

In addition to language descriptions which order the structural patterns and explain their interrelations, psychological and educational considerations influence the organization of pedagogical material. Each class of pupils has different needs. The teacher must be sensitive to these needs, and decide which set of structures to present at a particular juncture of the classroom work. The operational statements of learner proficiency, it is proposed, serve to guide the teacher in making such decisions of strategy.

The teacher may use the language description as a background for selecting prospective language materials. At present there are no standard criteria for judging the value of teaching materials. On the basis of test results, it would seem that materials would be

more desirable if they presented the related structures together as a unit, and started with the full basic forms before proceeding to deletions, other transformations, and transpositions of constituents.

In the absence of a proved second language theory, the positing of any specific numbers and kinds of structures for a given level must of necessity be to a great extent arbitrary. Further research must provide facts for many basic and vital questions concerning second language learning before we can, with any degree of certainty, agree upon the numbers and kinds of structures to be included in a given level. We must, for example, find out what the optimal rate is at which lexical items, morphological structures and syntactic patterns can be learned. We must investigate and learn what storage devices are used in language learning, and how they operate.

More experimentation and rigorous testing must be carried out to determine what order of structures is the most effective for presenting each sub-system, and the system as a whole, to a given group of learners. We must answer specific questions: Can a logically-ordered presentation of relativized elements facilitate learning the process of relativization? Is the learner then better able to use the relative forms innovatively? Are sets of related structures, when presented together as a unit, learned better than when the same structures are spread out over a longer sequence, with different structures intermingled?

When answers to such questions are found, teachers will be in a better position to agree on the structures needed for each achievement level, and better equipped to coordinate the achievement levels more effectively.

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## GLOSSARY

-aba-/-ía	= verbal markers of imperfectiveness oriented to the past
Adj	= adjective
Adj <sub>s</sub>	= simple adjective
Aux	= auxiliary elements
Comp	= complement
-d-	= past participle to be used as an adjective
-do	= past participle
Det	= determiner
DOPro	= direct object pronoun
DOPro <sub>reflex</sub>	= direct object reflexive pronoun
h-	= forms of <u>haber</u>
imp	= imperative
Ind	= indicative mood
Inf	= infinitive
Int	= intensifier
IOPh	= indirect object phrase
IOPro	= indirect object pronoun
IOPro <sub>reflex</sub>	= indirect object reflexive pronoun
-l-	= definite article for masculine and feminine genders and singular and plural
Link	= members of the two classes of linking verbs called <u>Ser</u> verbs and <u>Estar</u> verbs
Loc	= adverb of place
Loc <sub>s</sub>	= simple adverb of place
Mann	= adverb of manner
Mann <sub>s</sub>	= simple adverb of manner
N	= noun
Neg	= negative
-ndo	= present participle
NP	= noun phrase
NP <sub>1</sub> ...NP <sub>1</sub>	= the NPs are identical

NP <sub>1</sub> ...NP <sub>2</sub>	= the NPs are not identical
Nom	= nominalization
PhC	= phrase complement
pl	= plural
Pred. Ph	= predicate phrase
prep	= preposition
Quant	= quantifier
-r-	= verbal marker of futurity
-ría-	= verbal marker of posteriority oriented to the past
sg	= singular
Sub Indef	= subsequent indefiniteness
Subjunc	= subjunctive mood
Subseq	= subsequence or futurity
Temp	= adverb of time
Temp <sub>s</sub>	= simple adverb of time
V <sub>i</sub>	= intransitive verb
VP	= verb phrase
V <sub>t</sub>	= transitive verb
wh	= abstract symbol to indicate interrogative construction
X	= any sentence element of a specific position permitted by the grammar of Spanish
+	= the presence of
-	= the absence of
( )	= optional choice
1 number	= singularity
2 number	= plurality
1 gender	= masculine
2 gender	= feminine
/	= nothing occurs in this position

## APPENDIX A

### Group E1: Exemplary Review Materials

#### 1. Basic sentence patterns with ser:

NP<sub>1</sub>    ser    NP<sub>2</sub>    Explain that NP<sub>2</sub> is related to NP<sub>1</sub>. The verb ser makes the relationship possible; that is, in somewhat more abstract terms, in the structure A = B the "equals" sign (=) represents the verb ser (or any of its finite forms).

#### Examples:

El chico es mi amigo  
Imán es mi perro  
Imán no es mi perro  
La señorita López es una persona simpática  
La vida es un sueño  
Miguel es un chico bueno  
La casa no es una escuela  
La calle es un camino  
El día no es la noche  
etc.

#### 1.1 Item substitution drill

<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Student</u>
El chico es mi amigo	El chico es mi amigo
mi hermano	" " " mi hermano
un amigo bueno	" " " un amigo bueno
una persona simpática	" " " una persona simpática
un alumno simpático	" " " un alumno simpático
un mexicano bueno	" " " un mexicano bueno
etc.	

#### 1.2 Making Yes/No questions

<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Student</u>
Imán es un perro	¿Es Imán un perro?
El chico es mi amigo.	¿Es el chico mi amigo?

Miguel es un chico bueno.  
Usted es alumno.  
etc.

¿Es Miguel un chico bueno?  
¿Es usted alumno?

### 1.3 Question/Response drill

#### Teacher

¿Es Imán un perro?  
¿Es Imán mi hermano?  
¿Es la señorita López una  
persona simpática?  
¿Es usted alumno?  
¿Es el día la noche?  
¿Es la calle un camino?  
etc.

#### Student (Watch intonation pattern)

Sí, Imán es un perro.  
etc.

### 1.4 Students invent sentences

### 5. Basic sentence pattern with Vt:

NP<sub>1</sub> Vt NP<sub>2</sub> Point out the relationship of longer phrases  
and clauses (functioning as direct object nouns)  
to the simple nouns in object-of-verb position.

#### Examples:

El profesor dice	algo
El profesor dice	la respuesta
El muchacho quiere	comer
Elena grita	"Buenos días"
Elena agrega	algo nuevo
María responde	que no va al parque
Amelia responde	que fueron a nadar
Pepito sabe	dónde está la universidad
Miguel pregunta	si mamá y papá fueron al camino
etc.	

### 5.1 Item Substitution drill

#### Teacher

El profesor dice algo  
la palabra  
"El gusto es  
mío"  
que pide el  
permiso  
etc.

#### Student

El profesor dice algo  
" " " la palabra  
" " " "El gusto es mío  
" " " que pide el  
permiso

Teacher

Usted espera algo  
 la hora  
 el permiso  
 al señor  
 que Elena lleve a  
 Imán

etc.

Student

Usted espera algo  
 " " la hora  
 " " el permiso  
 " " al señor  
 " " que Elena lleve a  
 Imán

## 5.2 Substitution drill

1st student (invents  
 sentence using algo)

Teacher  
 (gives cue)

2nd student

María dice algo  
 María pregunta algo  
 Pepito sabe algo  
 El profesor hace algo  
 El alumno contesta algo  
 etc.

la palabra  
 si puede ir  
 que Imán está aquí  
 la pregunta  
 la pregunta

María dice la palabra  
 etc.

## 5.3 Making Yes/No questions

Teacher

María dice algo  
 El alumno quiere comer  
 El presidente Johnson sabe algo

Student

¿Dice algo María?  
 ¿Quiere comer el alumno?  
 ¿Sabe algo el presidente Johnson?

## 5.4 Question/Response drill

Teacher

¿Dice algo María?  
 etc.

Student

Sí, María dice algo.

17. ¿Donde? asks the question Where? and is related to the adverb of place or location. Point out that it may be used singly or in combination with certain prepositions.

Derivation

Imán está aquí  
 El perro está ahí  
 Paco espera en el parque  
 Los niños juegan en la  
 calle

Substitution

Imán está ¿dónde?  
 El perro está ¿dónde?  
 Paco espera ¿dónde?  
 Los niños juegan  
 ¿dónde?

Rearrangement

¿Dónde está Imán?  
 ¿Dónde está el perro?  
 ¿Dónde espera Paco?  
 ¿Dónde juegan los  
 niños?

María va a México  
El profesor hace pre-  
guntas en la clase

María va a ¿dónde?    ¿Adónde va María?  
El profesor hace pre-    ¿Dónde hace...?  
guntas ¿dónde?

## 17.1 Making Information questions

TeacherStudent

María va a México\*  
Paco va a Chile  
El perro está en el parque  
El alumno está en la escuela  
Pedro llega a casa  
Los niños se despiden en la  
escuela  
etc.

¿Adónde va María?  
¿Adónde va Paco?  
¿Dónde está el perro?  
¿Dónde está el alumno?  
¿Adónde llega Pedro?  
¿Dónde se despiden los niños?

\*Point out the relationship of adónde to verbs of motion.

## 17.2 Question/Response drill.--student invents question

1st studentTeacher2nd student

¿Dónde está Imán?  
¿Dónde está usted?  
¿Adónde va Pedro?  
etc.

en el parque  
en la clase  
a casa

Imán está en el parque  
Usted está en la clase  
Pedro va a casa

Teacher2nd student

¿Dónde?  
¿Dónde?  
¿Adónde?

¿En el parque!  
¿En la clase!  
¿A casa!

26. Spanish sentence patterns are flexible. That is, certain elements within the sentence have the flexibility of moving around to assume different positions. In the following drill attention is given to the subject noun and the adverbial element(s). The following is a rearrangement drill.

TeacherStudent

Pepito viene aquí  
Ustedes vienen pronto  
Estoy también  
Tú dices algo ya  
La vida es así

Aquí viene Pepito  
Pronto vienen ustedes  
También estoy  
Ya dices algo tú  
Así es la vida

Usted viene mañana	Mañana viene usted
Voy a eso de las dos	A eso de las dos voy
Está aquí.	Aquí está
etc.	

27. Deletions. Subject deletions. Explain that within an established context, the subject noun is generally not uttered. That is, either the verb-ending indicates who or what the subject of the verb is, or else (as in third person), once the speaker and listener have set the context, it is no longer necessary to continue expressing the subject again and again.

<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Student</u>
Yo estoy listo	Estoy listo
Tú estás listo	Estás listo
María es mi hermana	Es mi hermana
Pepito viene al parque	Viene al parque
Amelia responde que fueron al parque	Responde que fueron al parque
etc.	

- 27.1 Question/Response drill. Explain that in the teacher's question the subject is mentioned and, thus, established. The student, then, may omit the subject in his answer, since, through the context of the verbal exchange, the subject is understood.

<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Student</u>
¿Viene Pepito al parque?	Sí, viene al parque
¿Quiere usted el perro?	Sí, quiero el perro
¿Es bonita la señorita?	Sí, es bonita
¿Dice Paco "Buenos días"?	Sí, dice "Buenos días"

- 27.2 Verbal deletions. Explain that within the given (and understood) context, a re-uttering of the verbal elements is unnecessary.



TeacherStudent

¿Quién va al parque?	Paco (or whatever)
¿Quién grita "María, María?"	Pepito "
¿Adónde va Paco?	Al parque
¿Cómo está usted?	Bien
¿Puede usted gritar mucho?	Sí, puedo
¿Puede María encontrar la calle?	Si, puede
etc.	

Explain that underlying these phrases are fuller forms (e.g.,

Rien has underlying it the fuller form Estoy bien, etc.)

## APPENDIX B

### Criterion Test

#### Part I.

1. La señora está bien.
2. Aquí vienen los niños.
3. Tú gritas "Vámonos."
4. \*Yo soy aquí.
5. La familia llega pronto.
6. Ahora están.
7. Va a la calle.
8. También va al parque.
9. Ahora está Pepito.
10. \*Enrique está un chico.
11. \*Los alumnos son en la clase.
12. Hoy contestan bien.
13. \*Tú llamas nosotros.
14. \*Pepito puede que a Imán.
15. ¿No quiere Amelia el perro?
16. \*El libro es Juan.
17. \*La señorita está María también.
18. Vamos a nadar pronto.
19. \*¿Adónde contesta el profesor?
20. \*¿Qué llegan los niños?
21. Enrique dice que no.
22. \*El día es gracias.
23. \*Emilio tiene con donde.
24. \*¿Quién con amigos?
25. \*Tenemos que ustedes.
26. \*Donde va a México.
27. Tú gritas que vamos a las dos.
28. María pregunta si tiene la familia.
29. \*El niño llega cuando pronto.
30. ¿Qué es bonita?

31. \*Pepito está que la mesa.
32. \*La mamá espera responde.
33. ¿Es Gloria la niña de la señora?
34. A las ocho llegan a la escuela.
35. \*Su amigo es bien.
36. \*¿Cuándo María es?
37. \*Mi mamá pregunta somos buenos.
38. Los niños está en la casa ahora.
39. El alumno contesta la pregunta en la clase.
40. Los hermanos dicen "hola" bien.
41. \*¿Qué está una casa?
42. ¿Puede gritar mucho usted?
43. \*¿Cuándo llegan mañana a las dos?

## Part II

1. Juan es \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Mamá vuelve \_\_\_\_\_.
3. María \_\_\_\_\_ aquí.
4. Pronto llegan \_\_\_\_\_.
5. La casa \_\_\_\_\_ de mi papá.
6. La señorita \_\_\_\_\_ lista.
7. María contesta \_\_\_\_\_.
8. Los niños \_\_\_\_\_ "Buenos días."
9. \_\_\_\_\_ sabe español.
10. El muchacho quiere \_\_\_\_\_.
11. También Miguel \_\_\_\_\_ "Hola Pepito."
12. María viene \_\_\_\_\_.
13. Pronto \_\_\_\_\_ Miguel.
14. Ellos van a \_\_\_\_\_.
15. ¿Dónde está \_\_\_\_\_?
16. Dices \_\_\_\_\_.
17. Los niños \_\_\_\_\_ a la casa.
18. Tú conoces a \_\_\_\_\_.
19. ¿Cuándo \_\_\_\_\_ usted al parque?

20. El hombre dice que la universidad \_\_\_\_\_ grande.
21. Miguel \_\_\_\_\_ que vamos a nadar mañana.
22. María responde \_\_\_\_\_ no sabe español.
23. \_\_\_\_\_ saludas a mamá.
24. Los hermanos conocen \_\_\_\_\_ María.
25. Pepito puede \_\_\_\_\_.

## Part III

1. ¿Está bien Pepito?
2. ¿Es grande el parque?
3. ¿Viene aquí Gloria?
4. ¿Vive Enrique bien?
5. ¿Dice María que llega a las tres?
6. ¿Está el perro en el parque?
7. ¿Es la casa suya?
8. ¿Tiene usted quince años?
9. ¿Contesta Miguel al profesor?
10. ¿Sabe usted español?
11. ¿Cómo está usted?
12. ¿Quién es la señora?
13. ¿Qué está en la mesa?
14. ¿Adónde van los niños?
15. ¿Cómo es María?
16. ¿Qué dice el profesor?
17. ¿Dónde está la casa?
18. ¿Quién grita "Vámonos?"
19. ¿Cuándo llega María a casa?
20. ¿A quién conoce usted?

APPENDIX C

Reading Test

I. Choose the grammatically correct item (a, b, c, or d) for each of the following sentences, and place the LETTER in the space provided.

1. Este hombre quiere \_\_\_\_\_.

- a. que María sale temprano
- b. salir a las ocho
- c. a hablar con la chica
- d. la chica salga

2. Es verdad \_\_\_\_\_.

- a. que llueve
- b. que Juan venga temprano
- c. estudiando mucho tiempo
- d. a hablar de México

3. Yo saldré para \_\_\_\_\_.

- a. que José puede dormir
- b. María comió
- c. que Juan venga temprano
- d. a hablar de España

4. Roberto sabe \_\_\_\_\_.

- a. que va a llover
- b. que María venga
- c. a tomar un café
- d. que Juan trabaje

5. Es probable \_\_\_\_\_.

- a. que Juan está en Madrid
- b. que María sabe la lección
- c. a saber la lección
- d. que José venga a tiempo

6. Juan vendrá después de \_\_\_\_\_.

- a. José recibe el dinero
- b. que María comió la fruta
- c. que María iba al cine
- d. que José salga del tren

7. El presidente desea \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. a leer el periódico
  - b. que su hija se case con Juan
  - c. que se termina la guerra
  - d. que Juan saldrá del palacio
8. Es cierto \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. a hablar con Juan
  - b. que José venga ahora
  - c. que yo comiera la fruta
  - d. que Juan lo conoce
9. José quedó en casa para \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. comer la fruta
  - b. que María lo supo
  - c. que Juan lo sabía
  - d. a leer el libro
10. Yo espero \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. que Juan me trae el libro
  - b. a ganar el premio
  - c. que el hombre pague la cuenta
  - d. que yo tengo mucho dinero
11. Es preciso \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. que José sabe la lección
  - b. salir a tiempo
  - c. que María viene ahora
  - d. que yo como la fruta
12. El hombre quiere \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. que José pagará la cuenta
  - b. a saber la verdad
  - c. que su amigo viene a las ocho
  - d. que María salga temprano
13. Las tres mujeres saben \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. que los niños estén enfermos
  - b. que yo salgo
  - c. a hablar español
  - d. escribiendo francés

14. El hombre lo hizo para \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. la chica
  - b. que María lo supo
  - c. que Juan lo sabía
  - d. María venga temprano
15. Este hombre quiere \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. a comer
  - b. viajando a Madrid
  - c. el libro rojo
  - d. que José viene
16. Yo necesito \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. a hablar con usted
  - b. comer la fruta
  - c. hablando con Juan
  - d. que María comió
17. La chica llegó antes de \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. que Juan venía
  - b. las ocho
  - c. que Jorge venga
  - d. saliendo de Madrid
18. Roberto sabe \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. leyendo español
  - b. eso
  - c. que María venga
  - d. José corre bien
19. Me quedé en casa hasta \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. comer la fruta
  - b. que Juan viniera
  - c. terminando el trabajo
  - d. que María coma
20. El presidente desea \_\_\_\_\_.
- a. María venga
  - b. comer la fruta
  - c. que el hombre viene
  - d. terminando la guerra

### Writing Test

I. Complete the following sentence fragments by writing a grammatically correct Spanish structure in the space provided.

1. Juan tiene miedo de que \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Es seguro que \_\_\_\_\_.
3. Me quedaré en casa para \_\_\_\_\_.
4. Los hombres saben que \_\_\_\_\_.
5. Yo salgo después de que \_\_\_\_\_.
6. Las tres muchachas quieren \_\_\_\_\_.
7. Es posible que \_\_\_\_\_.
8. Yo dudo que \_\_\_\_\_.
9. José salió después de que \_\_\_\_\_.
10. Juan quiere que \_\_\_\_\_.
11. María saldrá para que \_\_\_\_\_.
12. Es preciso \_\_\_\_\_.