PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED TO LEARNING SECOND LANGUAGE A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

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APPROVAL PAGE

This research project has been approved by the Department of Modern European Languages and Linguistics, Faculty of Arts and Islamic Studies, Usmanu Danfodiyo University Sokoto, as partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of Bachelor Degree Arts (BA. English Language).

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my father late Alh. Musa Anka, my mother Fatima Ahmad, and Hadiza Musa Anka my brothers and sisters and the entire students of language.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

All praise is due to Almighty ALLAH (S.W.A), may His peace and blessing be upon his noble Prophet Muhammad (S.A.W).

To this end I must extend my gratitude and appreciation to my parents, most importantly for their prayers, their help and concern toward my future. I wish to express my profound gratitude to the H. O. D Modern European Languages and Literature Dr Aminu Maude and Dr. B.B Usman for guiding me trough out my studies in the university. I also wish to thank my supervisor Mallam Bello Dogondaji. Also to some people who help me in one way or the other toward achieving this great certification: Alh Ahmed Sani, Sarkin Zamfaran Anka, Sarkin Burmin Bakura, Mukutar Ahmed Anka, and Uncle Tukur

I also wish to acknowledge the decision of the Senate of the University for granting Amnesty to students with outstanding courses to come back and register their courses, pass them and graduate.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This research work aims at the investigating aspects of language that causes problems in learning second language. Many teachers have conducted researches and discovered some aspects that cause problems in learning second language. Those aspects of second language learning include difficulties with linguistic codes (such as phonetics, phonology, semantics and syntax), mother tongues interference, and student academic history, dyslexia, anxiety, lack of effort and motivation and diverting much time and afford to other courses, are factors believe to be affecting proper learning of second language. We are going to look into the presentation of those aspect believe to be the causes of failure during the process of learning a second language, analyze them and provide some experiments and conduct questionnaires to examine critical thinking about those aspects that affect second language learning.

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

To became competitive on global scale, the world need individuals who can work in a culturally diverse environment and who have strong skill in languages. Due to the fact that many countries of the world have added foreign languages to their curricula either as a lingua franca or a language policy. The study of second language learning difficulties background information is to get understanding of aspects that causes problems in learning second languages to enhance academic skills, raises scores, and prefers students for a career. As languages promote understanding between people of different cultural background also to format subject matter in other languages.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

This paper aims at discovering why some students are unsuccessful in learning second language. To achieve this, second language learning must be examined. Research behind second language difficulties is vast and varied, I

hope to be able to review and summarize the root causes of differences inability to learn second language, so that I can identify the reason why students are struggling in their language classes.

1.4 STATEMENT OF PROBLEMS

I encountered some problem during the process of data collection as well as typing. In data collection I started my researching under the topic "problems associated in learning foreign language", which has been change during the process to "problems associated to learning second language". Secondly during the typing, the business center where I start typing the project, after I have typed two chapters submitted to my supervisor, weeks later I went there with chapter three, they told me that they have corrupt with virus and they format it. I left to another business center where I meet a lot of people doing project, assignments and so on, which delay the completion of my project.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Numerous explanations have been proposed and debated concerning some students who do well in other courses (e.g. mathematics, science, and social sciences) do not performance well in or fail second languages courses. This chapter is going to cite some review of related literature to examine the literary meanings of the aspects that affect second language learning.

Theoretical Rationale

Researches trying to get the root of the problem have studied listening problems, native language differences, cognitive variables (such as language aptitude, individual differences, brain function and pedagogical tasks assigned) and affective variables (such as anxiety, motivation and personality).

In 1964, Pimsleur and his colleagues were the first to question why some students performed well in other classes and did not perform well in second language classes. They proposed that it was not a lack of motivation or intelligence, but rather had problems with an "auditory ability," the ability to deal with sounds and sound symbol learning. In (1971) Dinklages studies proposed those students problems in language classes were not due to lack of motivations, effort or anxiety, but rather a learning disability similar to dyslexia. Cummins (1997) studied problems of English language acquisition. After studying bilingual educational classes, he concluded that students competence in second language depend in their level of first language ability. Following this lead into the 1980s psychologies Ganschow and Spaks further proposed that students FL learning difficulties were not, a result of learning disabilities, but instead were directly related to problems with their learning in their native language. They Formulate 'Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis' into the disabilities in native language literature and the second literature. It theorized that second difficulties stem from

deficiency in one or more linguistic codes (phonological, semantics, and syntactic) in student's native language system. These deficiencies result in mild to extreme problems with oral and writing language.

2.2 MOTHER TONGUE

A Wikipedia define first language (also native language, arterial language or L1) as the language or are languages a person has learned from birth or within the critical period, or that person speaks the best and so is often basic for sociolinguistic identity. In a country, mother tongue refers to the language of one's ethnic group rather than one's first language. Children brought up speaking more than one native language, and be bilingual. By contrast, a second or second language is any language that one speaks other than one's first language.

2.3 SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Second language is defined as a language indigenous to another country. It can also be a language not spoken in the native country of person

referred to. Cook (1987) added that those two characterizations do not exhaust the possible definition; however, the label is occasionally applied in ways that are variously misleading or factually inaccurate. Second language is a language that is learned in an area where that language is not generally spoken. More informally a second language can be said to be any language learned in addition to one's native language, especially in the context of second language acquisition. (That is learning a new language). The distinction between acquisition and learning is that acquisition of language is a natural process, where as learning a language is a conscious one. In the later, errors correction is present as it is the study of grammatical rules isolated from natural language. Second language learning is influenced by both linguistics and psychology.

Edward Amold in a seminar presentation proposes "one of the dominant linguistics theories hypothesizes that a device or modules of sorts in brain contain innate knowledge". Many psychological theories, on the

other hand, hypothesize cognitive mechanism, responsible for much of human learning language process. other dominant theories and points of research include second language acquisition studies (which examine if L1 findings can be transfer to L2 learning), verbal behavior (the view that constructed linguistic stimuli can create a desired speech response). Morpheme studies, behaviorism error analysis, stages and other acquisition structuralism (approach that look how the basic rules of languages related to each other according to their common characteristics). First language acquisition studies, constructive analysis (approach where languages were examine in terms of differences and similarities) and inter languages (which describe L2) learning language as a rule governed, dynamic system. All of which had impact on second language learning. Vivian Cooks (2009).

2.4 THE LINGUISTIC CODES

2.4.1 Charts of International Phonetic Alphabet

2.4.2 VOWEL AND CONSONANT

When we study the sounds of speech scientifically we find that it is not easy to define exactly what they mean. The most common view is that vowels sounds are sounds which there are no obstruction to the flow of air as it passes from the larynx to the lips. We need to know the way vowel differ from each other. The first matter to consider is the shape and the position of the tongue. It is possible to simplify the very complex possibilities by describing just two things: firstly, the vertical distance between the upper surface and the tongue and the palate, and secondly, the part of the tongue, between front and back, which is raised highest. An example is shown in a simple diagram.

	Front	Back
Close	i:	u:
Open	æ	a:

Let's examine some of vowels

i.   Short vowels: the symbols of this short vowel are: /i/, /e/, /æ/, / /, /o/, /u/, short vowels are only relatively short: as we shall see later, vowels can have quite different length in different context.

ii.   **Long vowel:** these are the vowels which tend to be longer than the short vowels in similar contest. It is necessary to say ''in similar context'' because, as well as we shall see later the length of the vowel vary much according to their context. These vowels tend to be long, the symbols consist of one vowel symbol plus a length mark made of two dots: thus we have /i:/, /u:/, /a:/ Long vowels differ from short vowels not only in length but also in quality. The length mark is important not because it is essential but because it helps learners to remember the lengthy difference.

iii.   **Diphthong:** they are sounds which consist of movement or a glide from one vowel to another in terms of length, diphthongs are likely

long vowels; perhaps the first part of diphthongs is longer and stronger than the second part. The total number of diphthongs is eight. The easiest way to remember them in terms of three groups divided as in the following diagram.

Diphthong

```
              Diphthong
             /         \
        Centing        closing
          /            /      \
   Eding h a     ending in i   ending in u
    /|\            /|\           / \
  Ia ǝa ua       ei i ci       u   ǝu
```
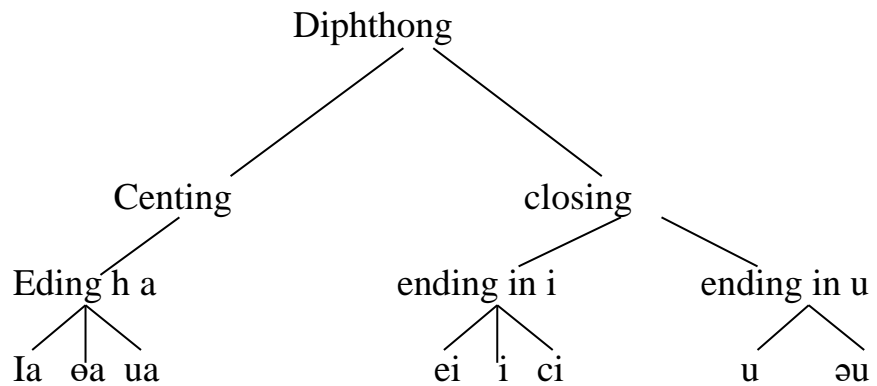
iv.   **Tripthong:** This is the most complex sound of the vowel to type. It is a glide from one vowel to another and to the third all produce rapidly and without interruption. A tripthong can be looked on as being composed of one of the five closing diphthongs above with /a/ added on the end. Thus we get:

ei + ǝ= eiǝ   au + ǝ = euǝ

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əi + ə = aiə   au + ə = auə

i + ə = iə

To help these tripthongs, some example words are given here:

eiə 'player', 'layer'.   uə 'lower', 'mower'.

əiə 'liar', 'fire'.   uə 'power', 'hour'.

 iə 'loyal', 'royal'.

This aspect of the vowel sounds are difficult and confusing and can cause problems in learning second language.

Sounds that obstruct the flow of air within the mouth cavity are called consonant sounds. The air from the larynx through the vocal cord to the mouth cavity where muscles like pair of lips, teeth, hard and soft petal etc. make several modification and produce different types of sounds call consonant sounds. Example considers consonant sound /p/ is a bilabial because it is produce by the lips close. While /f/ is labiodentals, because, it is

produce by upper teeth and the lower lip. The case of consonant sounds in learning a second language is very less.

Let us look at some functions and examine the autonomy physiology that is, how consonant sound is constructed and how it works.

The larynx in the neck made of cartilage that is attach to stop of trachea: when we breathe, the air passes through the trachea and larynx to a point that is commonly called Adam's apple. Inside the 'box' made two cartilages called vocal folds. When the two cartilages of the back called the arytenoids cartilages are attached to a pair of smell cartilages, so that when they move, the vocal folds move too. But they can move so as to move the vocal folds apart. In fact, we can produce a very complex range of changes in the vocal folds and their positions. These changes are important in speech.

2.5 PHONOLOGY

When we talk about phonemes function in language and the relationship among different phonemes, when in other words we study the abstract side of the sounds of the language we are studying the subject of phonology. Research have identified that phonology have the most immediate and saver impact on second language learning and the result of my questionnaire show that aspects of sounds and sentences has the most difficulty in learning a second language. Let us look into those phonological processes.

2.5.1 The Phoneme

Many significant sound contrasts are not result of differences between phonemes. There may be different realization of various phonemes. In every language, we find that there are restrictions on the sequences of phonemes that are used. Each one of these meaning distinguishing sound in language is described as a phoneme. The concept of phoneme as single sound type,

come to be represented by a single symbol. It is in this sense that the phoneme /t/is described as a sound type, of which all the different spoken versions of /t/ are tokens. Note that slash marks are conventionally used to indicate the phoneme.

An essential property of a phoneme is that it functions contrastively. The English phonemes /f/ and /v/ are basis of contrast in meaning between the forms fat and vat or fine and vine. The contrastive property is the basis of operational test for determining phonemes which exist in a language. If we substitute one sound for another in a word and there is a change of meaning, then the two sounds represent different phonemes. The consonant and vowel represented earlier can be seen as essentially mapping out the phonemes of English.

2.5.2 The Syllable

The syllable is a very important unit even if you cannot define what syllable is; you can count how many syllables are there in a given word or

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sentence. You illustrate the importance in the rhythm of speech. Counting syllables in a recorded sentence, there is often a considerable amount of disagreement.

In looking at the nature of syllable one could decide whether a particular sound was a vowel or a consonant on phonetic ground; (In relation to how much they obstruct the air flow) or in phonology grounds; (vowels and consonants having different distributions). In that it may be defined both phonetically and phonologically. Phonetically (that is in relation to the way we produce them and the way they sound), syllables are usually described as consisting of a center which has little or no obstruction to air flow and which sound comparatively loud. We will now look at some examples.

1. Minimum syllable would be a single vowel in isolation, e.g. the words are a:, or, :, err. These are preceded and followed by a silence.

2. Some syllables have an onset (that is, they have more than just silence preceding the centre of the syllable):

'Bar' **ba:,** 'key' **ki:**

3. Syllables may have no onset but have a code.

'sat' **sæt** 'fill' **fil.**

When we have two or consonants together we call them consonant clusters. Examples of such clusters are found in words such as 'sting' **stiij,** 'sway' **swei,** 'smoke' **smauk**. The s in the cluster is called pre-initial consonant and the other consonants are called the initial consonants. As we have seen the syllable, many have an onset, but this is not obligatory. The structure is thus the following:
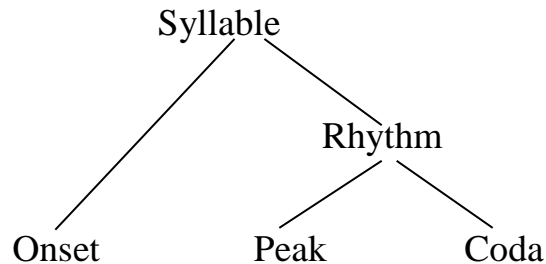
2.5.3 Stress

The nature of stress is simple enough; Practically everyone will agree that the firs syllable of the words like 'father', 'open', 'camera' is stressed, that the middle syllable is stress in 'potato', 'apartment', 'relation', and that the final syllable is stress in 'about', 'receive', 'perhaps'.

There are two important characteristics of stress syllables that enable us to identify them. 1 is to consider what the speaker does in producing stress syllables and 2 is to consider what characteristics of sounds make a syllable seem to a listener to be stressed. In other words, we can study stress from the point of view of production and perception. The production of stress is generally believed to depend on the speaker using more muscular energy than used for unstressed syllables, the muscle that we use to expel air from the lungs are often more active, producing higher sub-glottal pressure. The words that were described are called simple word stress. In this context mean not composed of more than one grammatical unit. So that for example

the word 'care' is simple while 'careful' and 'careless' (being composed of two grammatical units) are complex: while 'carefully' and carelessness are also complex and are composed of three grammatical units each.

2.5.4 Aspects of connected speech

1. ***Rhythm***: the notion of rhythm involves some notable events happening at regular interval of time. It has often been claimed that English speech is rhythmical in nature, and rhythm is detectable in the regular occurrence in stressed syllables. An example is given below:

   1   2   3   4   5

`Walk   `down the   `path to the   end   of   the canal

In the sentence the stress syllables are given numbers 1 and 2 are not separated by any unstressed syllable, 2 and 3 are separated by unstressed syllable, 3 and 4 by two and 4 and 5 by three. In another example the word 'twenty' has one strong and one week syllable, forming one foot. A diagram

of its rhythmical structure can be made where s stands for 'strong' and w

stands for 'weak'.

```
        /\
       /  \
      S    W
    twen   ty
```
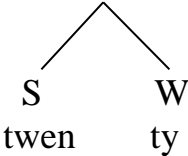
Let's look at another example in the context of a long phrase.

```
                    /\
                   /  \
                  W    S          W    S
                 / \  / \        / \   |
                S  W S  W  S    W  S  W  S
              twen  ty pla  ces fur  ther back
```
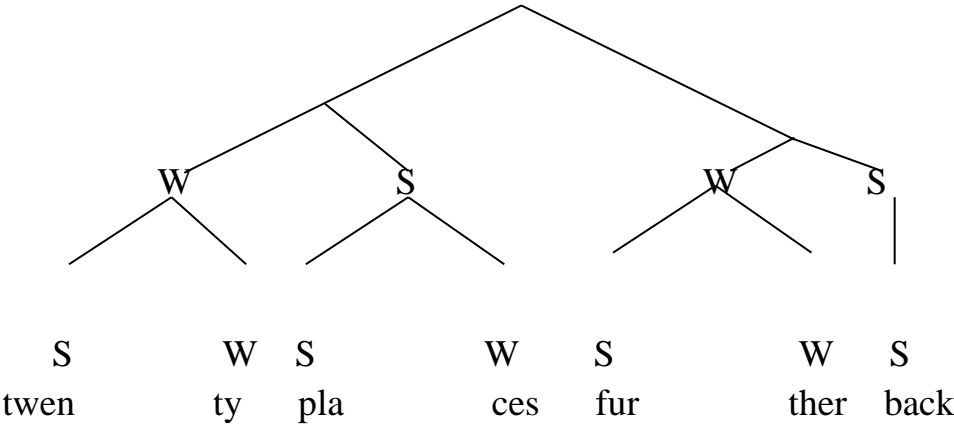
By analysis, we must look at what happens to the rhythm in normal speech.

Although in twenty places the right hand foot is stronger, in 'twenty places'

for their back when spoken in conversational style the world twenty is stronger than places.

2. Assimilation

A significant difference in natural connected speech is the way sound belongs to one word can cause difference in sound belonging to neighboring words. In cases where we find a phoneme realized differently as a result of being near some other phoneme belonging to a neighboring word it is called an instance of assimilation. Assimilation is something which varies in extent according to speaking rate and style. It is more likely to be found in a more rapid casual speech and less likely in slow careful speech. Sometimes the difference caused by assimilation is very noticeable and sometimes it is very slight. Generally the cases that have most often been described are assimilating consonants. For example, the final consonant in 'that' the alveolar t, in rapid casual speech will become p before a bilabial consonant, as in 'that person' 'meat pie'. Before a velar consonant, the t will become k

as in 'that case', 'bright color'. In similar contexts d would become b, and g respectively and n would become m, and d. Alveolar consonants s and z behave different. The only notable changes being that s is become l or j as in: 'this shoe', 'those years' it is possible case to find cases where a final plosive become a fricative or nasal (e.g. 'that side', 'good night'). It is essentially a natural phenomenon that can be seen in any sort of complex physical activity and the only important matter is to remember the restriction, specific to English on voicing assimilation mentioned above. Assimilation creates something of a problem for phoneme theory.

3. The elision

The nature of elision, under certain circumstances sounds disappear. In more technical language that is in a certain circumstances a phoneme may be realized as zero or have zero realization or be deleted. As with assimilation, edition during elision is something important for second learners to be aware when the native speakers talk to each other's quite a number of phonemes

which a learner expect to hear are not actually pronounced. We will look at some small number of some examples of the many possibilities.

1. Loss of week vowel after p, t, k, in words like potato, tomato, canary, perhaps, toady. The vowel in the first syllable may disappear.

2. Week vowel t, n, l, or r becomes syllabic consonant. For example tonight, police, correct.

3. Avoidance of complex consonant clusters. It has been said that no normal English speaker would ever pronounce all the consonants between the last words of the following: George the sixth's throne.

4. Loss of final v in 'of' before consonants, for example:

   'Loss of them', 'waste of money'.

4. Linking

In mechanical speech all words will be separated unit placed next to each other in sequence. In real connected speech however, we sometimes link words together in special ways. The most familiar case is the use of linking

r: the phoneme r does not occur in syllable final position in the BBC accent, but when a word's spelling suggest a final r and a word begin with a vowel follows the usual pronunciation is to pronounce with r for example:

'here are', 'four egg'.

BBC speakers use r in a similar way to link words ending with a vowel, even when there is no 'justification' for speaking as in 'formula A', 'Australia all out', 'media event'. This has been called in the case of intrusive r some speakers regard this as sub-standard pronunciation, but it is undoubtedly wide spread. 'Linking and intrusive r' are special case of juncture. The relationship between sound and the sound that immediately precede and follow it.

I cited the definitions as well as examples and the explanations of those aspects of phonetics and phonology from English Pronunciation Dictionary Third Edition by Peter Roach.

2.6 MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is the identification, analysis and description of the stricture of a given language. Morphemes and other linguistic units, such as root wards, affix, parts of speech intonation and stress, or implied context. In contrast, morphological topology is the study of those wards forming a language ward stock.

The term morphology is a makeup of morph meaning 'shape, form' and ology which means 'the study of something'.

2.6.1 Word

If morphology is the study of the internal structure of words, we need to define the words before we can continue. That might sound easy-surely word in texts are particularly easy to spot since they are divided by spaces. But how do we identify words in speech? A reliable definition of words is that they are the smallest independent units of language. They are

independent in that they do not depend on other word which means that they can be separated from other units and can change position. Consider the sentences.

The man looks at the horses.

The plural ending in horses is dependent on the noun horse to receive meaning and can therefore not be a word. Horses however, is a word, as it occur in other position in the sentence or stand on its own.

The horses looked at the man

What is the man looking at? - Horses. Words are thus both independent since they can be separated from other words and move around in sentences and the smallest unit of language since they are only units for which this is possible.
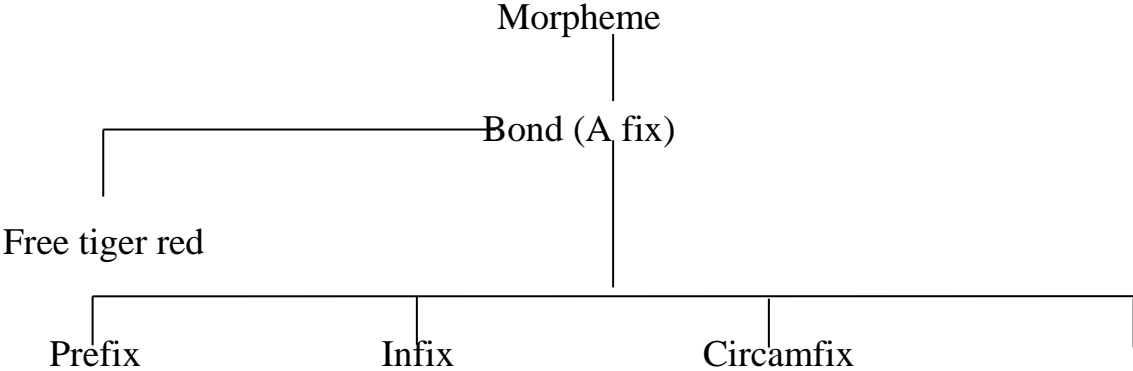
2.6.2 Morphemes

The building blocks of morphology although, words are the smallest independent units of language, they have an internal structure and are built up by even smaller pieces. There are simple words that don't have an internal structure and only consist of one piece like work. There is no way we can divide meaning or function. Complex words however do have an internal structure and consist of two or more pieces.

Consider 'worker', where the ending –'er' is added to the root work to make it into a noun. These pieces are called 'morphemes' and are the smallest meaning-bearing units of language.

We said that words are independent forms and a simple word only consisting one single morpheme, that is, it is a word itself. Examples are house, work, high, us and we. Morphemes that must be attached to another morpheme to receive meaning are bound morphemes. If we break the word 'unkindness' into three morphemes un-kind-ness, we get two examples of

bound morphemes: un and ness as they require the root 'kind' to make up a word. These are also called affixes as they are attached to the stem. The affix un that go to the front of a word is a prefix and ness that goes to the end is a suffix. There are also infexes and circumfixes, although they are not very common in English. We mostly see infixes as course words integrated in morphemes like the once you can see below, or like the example from the American sitcon yo.

Morpheme

Bond (A fix)

Free tiger red

Prefix   Infix   Circamfix

Suffix

Un-happy   abso-blody-lutely   ge-wandl-d waked   horses

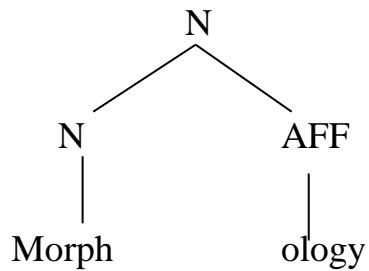Pre-disposal legen-wait for it-dary ge-studeer-d-studid   kindness

Pro-active linder-failing-ella ge-bounw-d-built customse

The graphic shows free and bound morphemes according to position.
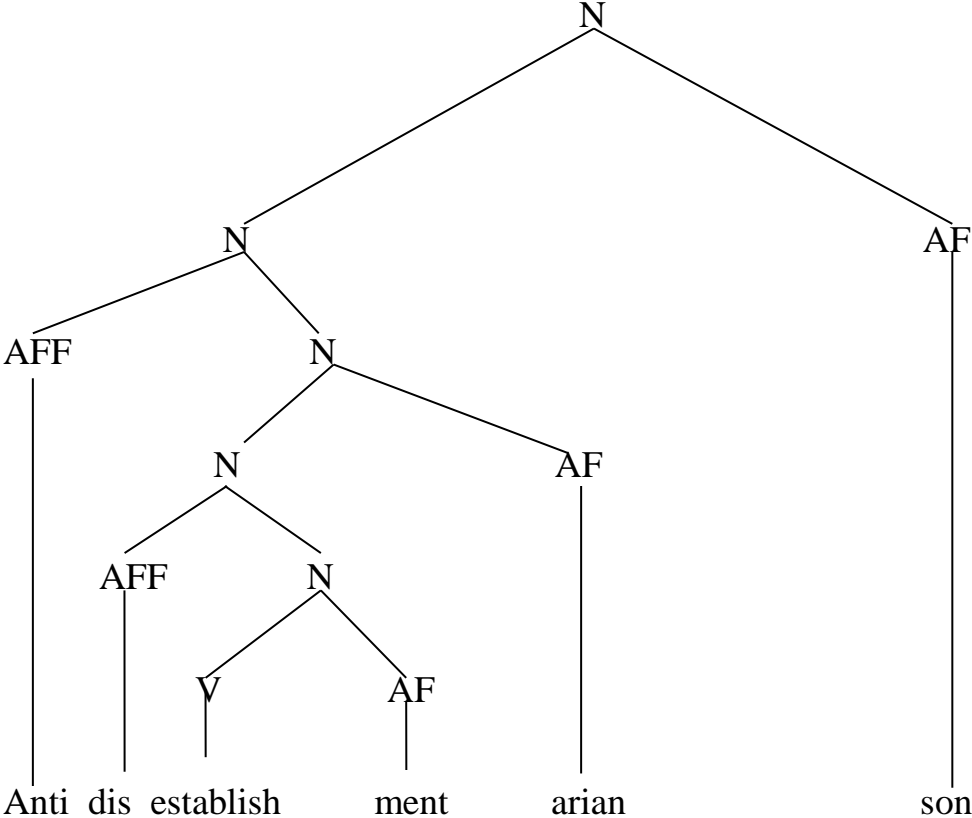
Drawing morphology tree

In order to show the internal structure of word we draw morphology tree.

2.6.3 Simple morphology tree

```
            N
          /   \
         N     AFF
         |      |
       Morph   ology
```

Complex morphology tree

```
                                    N
                          ┌─────────┴──────────────────────┐
                          N                                AF
                  ┌───────┴────┐                            │
                AFF            N                            │
                          ┌────┴──────────┐                 │
                          N               AF                │
                    ┌─────┴────┐          │                 │
                  AFF          N          │                 │
                          ┌────┴───┐      │                 │
                          V        AF     │                 │
                          │        │      │                 │
   Anti   dis   establish      ment     arian              son
```
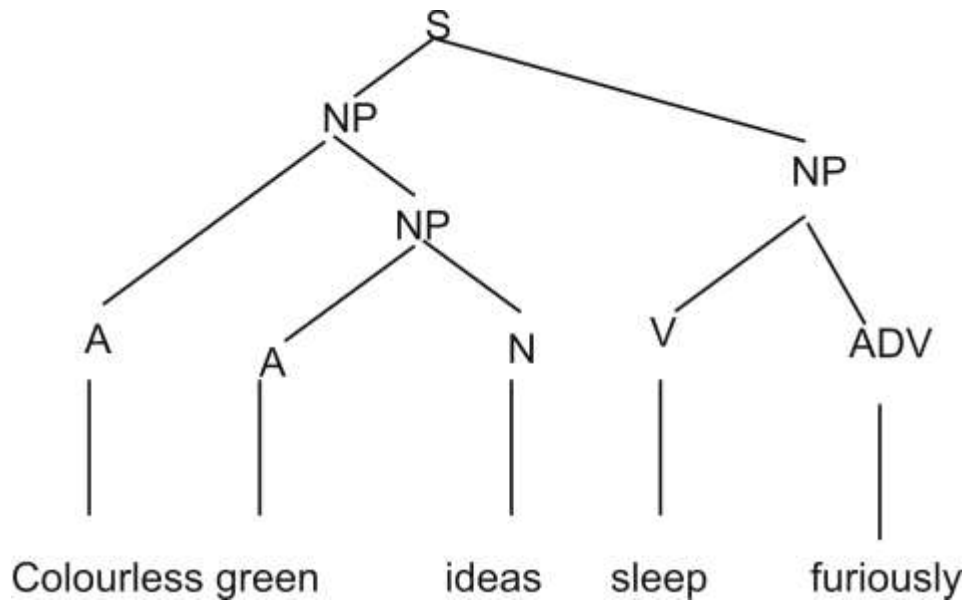
The internal structure of words and the segmentation into different kind of morphemes is essential to the two basic purposes.

5 The creation of new words and

6 Modification of existing words.

A $\longrightarrow$ BC

Meaning that the constituent A is separated into sub constituents B and C.

some examples for English are as follows:

S $\longrightarrow$ (DET) N1

NP $\longrightarrow$ (AP) N1

N1 $\longrightarrow$ (AP) N1 PP.

The first rule reads: An S (sentence) consists of NPS (Noun Phrase).

The second reads: A NP of an optional DET (Determiner) followed by a noun can be proceeded by an optional AP (Adjective Phrase) and followed by an optional PP (prepositional phrase). The root brackets indicate optional constituents. It is expected that the rules will generate syntactically correct semantically nonsensical sentences, such as the following well known example.

Colorless green ideas sleep furiously.

This sentence was constructed by Noam Chomsky as an illustration that phrase structure rules are capable of generating syntactically correct sentences. Phrase structure rule can break sentence into their constituent parts, as tree structure.

"CITE" Collins English Dictionary completed and unabridged (c) Haper Collins publishers 1991, 1994, 1998, 2000, 2003,

Ologies and Isms. Copy right 2008 the Gale Group, Inc

2.7 SYNTAX

The word syntax originated from Greek and laterally meant "a setting out together" or "arrangement". Usually in English Language syntax should follow a pattern of subject + verb + object arrangement. Therefore syntax refers to the rules and principles that govern sentences stricture: i.e. how words therefore is not a strictly device, but instead a part of every utterance, written line, and even majority of thoughts. Though, linguists have looked at syntax that is universal in every language. Syntax varies widely among different languages. Let us look at those aspects of syntax of English Language.

"CITE" American Heritage Dictionary of English. By Houghton Mifflin fifth edition

2.7.1 Phrase

A phrase may be any group of words, often carrying a special idiomatic meaning. In linguistic analysis, a phrase is a group of words (or possibly a single word) that functions as a constituent in the syntax of a sentence-a single unit within a grammatical hierarchy. A phrase appears within a clause, although it is also possible for a phrase to be a clause, contain a clause within it. It functions in a sentence as a complete grammatical unit. For example, in a sentence 'yesterday, I saw an orange bird with a white neck' form noun phrase.

2.7.2 Types of Phrase

These are various types of phrase in which the ordering of head and compliment(s) may be considered when attempting to determine the head directionality of a language.

1. Noun phase or a nominal phrase (abbreviated NP) is phrases which have noun (or indefinite pronoun) as its head word/ a noun phrase may be the most frequently occurring phrase type. Some example of NP are underlined in the sentences below:

   i. The election year politics are annoying for many people.

   ii. Almost every sentence contain at least one noun phrase

   iii. Abdul has finished his project.

2. Adjective phrase (or Adjectival phrase) is a phrase whose head word is an adjective e.g. found of steak, very happy, quite upset about it.

3. Adpositional phrase: This category includes prepositional, post position or circum position as heads and usually compliment such as noun phrase. Example

   She walks around his desk.

4. Determiner phrase: Example, in determiner phrase below, the determiners are underlined.

i. <u>A</u> little dog, <u>the</u> little dog (in definite or definite article).

ii. <u>My</u> little dog, <u>your</u> little dog (demonstrations).

iii. <u>Every</u> little dog, <u>each</u> little dog, <u>no</u> little dog (quantifiers).

The head of the DP is always the determiners.

"CITE" Callings English Dictionary – complete and unabridged by Haper Callings.

2.7.3 Clauses

In grammar, a clause is a smallest grammatical unit that can express a complete preposition. A typical clause consists of a subject and predicate, where the predicate is typically a verb phrase together with any object and other modifiers. Simple sentences usually consist of one finite clause with a finite verb that is independent. More complex sentence may contain multiple clauses. Main clauses (i.e. matrix clause, independent clause) are those that

can stand alone as a sentence. Subordinate clause (i.e. embedded clause) dependent clauses are those that would be awkward or incomplete alone.

i.   An independent clause: (or main clause) is a clause that can stand by itself as a simple sentence. An independent clause contain subject and predicate; it make sense by itself and therefore expresses a complete thought. Independent clause can be joined by using a semicolon or a comma followed by a coordinating conjunction (for, and, not, but, or, yet, so, however etc).

ii.   Dependent clause: A dependent clause usually begins with a dependent word. One kind of dependent word is a subordinating conjunction; used to begin dependent clause known as adverbial clauses, which serves as adverb. Example:

a. Wherever she goes, she leaves an item of luggage behind.

b. Bob enjoyed the movie more than I did. The adverbial clause 'that I did modify the adverb more'. A subordinating conjunction can introduce a noun clause.

c. I know that she likes me

(The noun clause 'that she likes me' serves as the object of the main-clause verb 'know').

"CITE" Callings English Dictionary – complete and unabridged by Haper Collings.

2.7.4 Sentence

A sentence is a group unit consisting of one or more words that are grammatically linked. A sentence includes words grouped meaningfully to express a statement, question, exclamation, request, command or suggestion. It is also a set of words that it principle tells a complete thought (although it may make a little sense taken to isolation out of context). Typically, a

sentence contain subject and predicate. The subject is one of the two main constituents of a clause, whereby predicate says something about the subject.

2.7.5 Classification of Sentences

1. **By Structure:** one traditional scheme for classifying sentences is by clause structure, the number and type of clauses in a sentence with a finite verb.

   a. A simple sentence: Consist of a single independent clause with no dependent clauses.

   b. A compound sentence consists of multiple independent clauses with no dependent clauses. These clauses are joined together using conjunctions, punctuations or both.

   c. Complex sentences consist of one independent clause and at least dependent clause.

d. A compound complex sentence or (complex-compound sentences) consists of multiple independent clauses, at least one of which at least has one dependent clause.

2. **By purpose:**

Sentences can also be classified as based on their purpose.

a. A declarative sentence or declaration, the most common type, commonly makes a statement like "I have to go to work".

b. An interrogative sentence or question is commonly used to request information. "Do I have to go to work?"

c. An exclamatory sentence or exclamation is generally a more emphatic form of statement expressing emotion: "I have to go to work!"

d. An imperative sentence or command tells someone to do something (and if done strongly may be considered both imperative and exclamatory).

A phrase tree or a parsing tree or deviation or syntax tree is an ordered, rooted tree that represents the syntactic structure of a string according to some context free grammars (phrase structure grammars). A phrase tree may be generated for sentences I natural language. Below it shows syntactic structure of a sentence 'John hit the ball'.
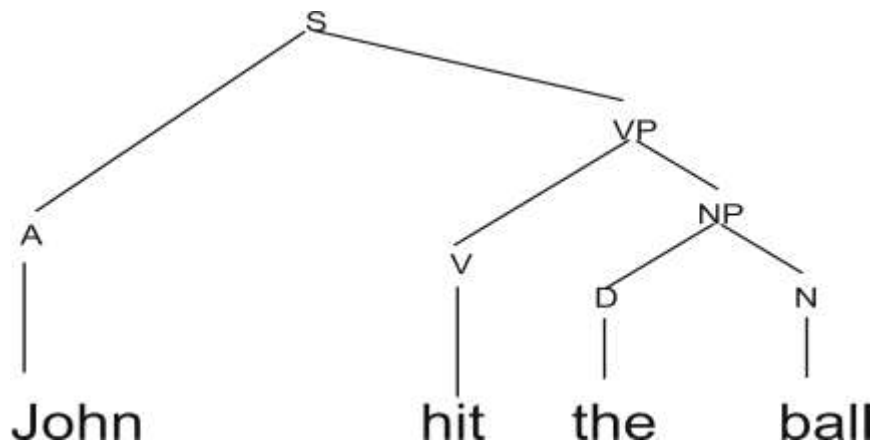
"CITE" Dictionary of Unfamiliar words by diagram.

The following abbreviations are used in the tree:

i.   S Stands for sentence the top level structure of the tree.

ii.   NP stands for Noun phrase the first (left-most) a single noun 'John' serves as the subject of the sentence.

iii.   VP for verb phrase, which serves as the predicate.

iv.   V for verb in this case it is a transitive verb hit.

v.   D for determiner, in this instance, definite article.

Phrase structure rules are types of rewrite rules used to describe a given languages syntax and are closely stages of transformational grammar being first proposed by Noam Chomsky in 1957 they are used to break down a natural language apart. A phrase structure rules are commonly employed to operate according to the constituency of relational and grammar that employ the rules.

"CITE" American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, Fifth Edition. 2011 by Houghton Miff.

2.8 ANXIETY

Anxiety is a feeling of worry, nervousness, or unease about something with an uncertain outcome. It is an emotion characterized by an unpleasant state of inner turmoil, often accompanied by nervous behavior, such as

pacing back and forth, somatic complains and ruminations. It is the subjectively unpleasant feelings of dread over anticipated events, such as the feeling of imminent death. Anxiety is often accompanied by muscular tension, restlessness, fatigue and problems in concentration. When experience anxiety regularly individual may suffer from an anxiety disorder.

People facing anxiety may withdraw from situations which have provoking anxiety in the past. There are various types of anxiety external anxiety can occur when a person faces angst, an existential crisis or nihilistic feelings. People can also face learning anxiety, test anxiety, semantic anxiety, social anxiety e.t.c. are caused when people are apprehensive around strangers or other people in general.

Anxiety can either be short term "state" or long term "trait". In there as trait anxiety is worry about future events, close to the concept of neuroticism. An anxiety disorder is group of mental disorders characterized by feeling of anxiety and fear. Anxiety disorders are partly genetic but may

also be due to drug use, including alcohol and caffeine, as well as we-drawer from certain drugs.

"CITE" English medical dictionary (2006) by the McGraw-Hill

2.9 DYSLEXIA

Dyslexia, also known as reading disorder is a learning disability characterized by trouble with reading despite normal intelligence. Different people are affected to varying degrees. Problems may include difficulties in spelling words, reading quickly, writing words, "sounding out words in the head, pronouncing words when reading a loud and understanding what one read. Often these difficulties are first noticed at school. When someone who previously could read looses their ability, it is known as alexia. The difficulties are involuntary and people with this disorder have normal desire to learn.

The cause of dyslexia is believed to involve both genetic and environmental factors. Some cases run in families. It often occurs in people

with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and is associated with similar difficulties with numbers. The underlying mechanisms are problems within brain's language processing. Dyslexia is separated from reading difficulties cause by insufficient teaching; or either hearing or vision problems. It is the most common learning disability affecting 3-7% of the population.

"CITE" The British Dyslexia Association. Website

Other aspects that causes problems in learning second language not discussed above include

1. Lack of effort and motivation
2. Students
a. Diverting more time to other courses
b. Lack of interests in second language
c. Poor study habit or reading skill

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHOOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is going to present the research method use in collecting data. It is vital to pick approach for research in which the whole dissertation will rest on.

The type of research methodology I use to underpin my work and method use in collecting data is by measuring variables and verifying hypothesis base on the different aspects of language learning and acquisition. However collection of data of a certain research is not answer to understanding meanings. Definitions of the terms that are associated to problems in learning second language have been provided aim at understanding meaning. While help at better understanding I conducted questionnaires and to verify variables from excising theories.

3.2 NATIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS AND SECOND LANGUAGE APTITUDE DIFFERENCES

In one study, Gangschow *et al* (1991) administered measures of native language skill (e.g. reading), spelling, vocabulary and writing and second language aptitude. 15 posts secondly students had successfully passed second language courses with good graded. 15 who receive petition to wave or substitute the second language requirement. Result showed that successful second language learners exhibit significantly stronger native language skills on measures of phonologically orthographic processing (but nest semantics) and greater aptitude than unsuccessful learners.

In another study, sparks, et al (1992) administered a similar battery of native language and second language aptitude measures to first year second language learners in high school. Students were divided into group base on their first quarter second language grade (i.e. 36 low high risk learner's achieves A.B and 29 high risk learners achieve D.F). Results showed that low-risk learners exhibit significantly stronger phonological orthographic

and greater aptitude than did the high risk learners. No significant different differences were found on most native language and second language aptitude between high risk and leaning disabled group. Only measures of spelling differentiated the groups.

Another educator Humes Bertlo (1989) found that poor language learners show mild deficit in their native language skills when compared to good learners. Skehan (1986) also reported that children who "make rapid progress in their first language learning tend to better second language learning in school.

3.3 ANXIETY AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Ganschow et al (1994) investigated the relationship between second language aptitude and native language skills and anxiety among 36 low, moderate and anxious learners grouped by scores on second language classroom anxiety scale. Significant group differences by anxiety level, ware found on measures of native language phonology/orthography, overall

reading, oral language and second language aptitude. No differences ware found among the three groups on native language semantics and short term memory (verbal memory measures). They repealed theses result in a study with a large group (Ganschow and sparks, 1996) found that students with lower level of anxiety about second language learning, show stronger native language skills, and greater second language aptitude scored significantly higher on measure of second language proficiency than students with higher level of anxiety about second language learning.

3.4 NEGATIVE TRANSFER IN PSYCHOLOGY

During the 1950s, memory research began investigating interference theory. This refers to the idea that forgetting occurs because the recall of certain items interferes with the recall of other items. The prior existence of old memories makes it harder to recall newer memories. While, negative transfer concerns itself with a detrimental effect of prior experience on the learning of the new task whereas proactive interference relates to a negative

effect of a second task. The most obvious and used proactive interference and negative transfer paradigm from the 1950s was the use of AB-AC or AB-DE. Participants would be asked to learn a list of paired associated in which each pair consists of three letters consonant vowel consonant, nonsense syllable (e.g. dyl), used because it was easy to learn and lacked pre-earned cognitive associations, and common word (e.g. road). In this paradigm, two lists of paired associations are aimed at. The first list commonly known as (AB list) would consist of nonsense syllables as a primer (which constitutes a term). The second list consist either the same nonsense syllable primer and a different word (A-C lists) or different nonsense syllable primer and a different word (D-E lists). The AB-AC list was used because its second set was used because its second set of associations (A-C) constitute a modification of the first set of Association (A-B), whereas the AB-DE lists were used as a control.

Negative transfer was examined, and found differential learning between trials. Specifically differences in the learning rates of list 2 provide

a clear evidence of the negative transfer phenomenon. Subject learned an A-C paired association list to a criterion of all associations correct, following earning list of A-B paired associations to criterion. Ultimately, it was found that those subjects took an increased amount of trial to complete the learning task compared to subject who did not learn the A-B list or from the subject who had to learn a D-E list.

QUESTIONNAIRE

PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED IN LEARNING SECOND LANGUAGE

USMANU DANFODIYO UNIVERSITY SOKOTO,

DEPARTMENT OF MODERN EUROPEAN LANGUAGES AND

LITERATURE, ENGLISH UNIT

All the information provided will be for the purpose of research and will be treated with care.

SECTION A

Data of Respondent

Full name:

…………………………………………………………………

Tribe: …………………………………….....

Sex: Male [   ]   Female [   ]

Level of education: Diploma [ ]   HND [ ]   BSc/Ba [ ]   MSC [ ]

Others Specify: …………………………………

SECTION B

1. Have you learn a second language?   Yes [ ]   No [ ]

If yes name the language: ………………………………………………

2. Which of the following aspects causes problems in learning second

   language?

   a. Sound and sentences [   ]

   b. Understanding/recognizing meaning [   ]

   c. Impact or interferences of the first language [   ]

   d. Student academic history [   ]

   e. Anxiety [   ]

   f. Dyslexia in (brain function) [   ]

   g. Lack of effort [   ]

h. Others specify: ……………………………………………………….

3. Followed by

    a. Sound and sentences [   ]

    b. Understanding/recognizing meaning [   ]

    c. Impact or interferences of the first language [   ]

    d. Student academic history [   ]

    e. Anxiety [   ]

    f. Dyslexia in (brain function) [   ]

    g. Lack of effort [   ]

    h. Others specify: ………………………………………………..

4. Followed by

    a. Sound and sentences [   ]

    b. Understanding/recognizing meaning [   ]

    c. Impact or interferences of the first language [   ]

    d. Student academic history [   ]

    e. Anxiety [   ]

f. Dyslexia in (brain function) [   ]

g. Lack of effort [   ]

h. Others specify: ……………………………………………

2. Have you ever notice errors while speaking to a second language learner?

If yes

specify:……………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………….

3. Suggest the possible ways that will help in overcoming the problems of

learning second

language:………………………………………………………… ……

…………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is going to focus on the analysis on the data present in previous chapter. In chapter two, we saw that, in accordance to some teachers and scholars "that most of the problems that are bound to second language learning are linguistic aspects and some others related aspects to second language acquisition and learning. In previous chapter, we look into presentation of aspects of linguistics in English language. While in this chapter we are going to look at the analysis of those aspects presented earlier to see how they cause difficulties and problems in learning second languages.

4.2 PHONOLOGICAL PROBLEMS

In every language we find that there are restrictions on the sequence of phonemes. For example, no English words begin with consonant

sequence zbf and no word end with the sequence jeh. Many significant sound contrasts are not result of differences between phonemes. For examples stress is important: when word 'import' is pronounced with the first syllable sounding stronger than the second, English speaker hear it as a noun, where as when the second syllable is stronger the word is heard as verb. Intonation if the word right is said with a pitch of voice rising it is likely to be heard as a question or as an invitation to a speaker to continue, while falling pitch is move likely to be heard as confirmation or agreement. These sound contrasts are difficult to understand by second languages leaner's of English language.

Phonologically h is a consonant it is usually found before vowels. It is noticeable that when occurs between voiced sounds (as in words 'ahead' and 'green house'), it is pronounced with voicing not the normal voicing of vowels but a week slightly, fricative sound called "breathy vice". Many English speakers ten to judge sub standard pronunciation in which h

missing. In reality, however English speakers carefully omit h in unstressed pronunciation of the words 'her', 'he', 'him' and 'his' and auxiliary 'have', 'has', 'had', although few second language speakers are aware that they do this. In word which binging with 'wh'; most speaker pronounce the initial sound in such words (e.g. 'which', 'why', 'whip', 'whale') as w. since the substitution of sound for the other causes a difference in meaning the two sound are two different phonemes and can cause confusion to second language learners of English.

The voiced continuant consonants choose their voicing. so words like 'tray', 'play', 'quick', contain devoiced l,r,w, whereas 'lay', 'ray' wick contain voiced l,r,w consequently if for example 'tray' were to be pronounce without devoicing of the r (ie. With fully devoiced r) English speaker is likely to hear the word 'dray'. The glotiliseds pronunciation in which a glottal stop p,t,k occurs is only found in certain contexts and second language learners usually find the rules too difficult to learn. In some

pronunciation the consonant l has one unusual characteristic. The realization of l found before vowel sound quite different from that found in other context. For example, the realization of L in the word 'lea' is quite different from that of 'eel'. The sound of 'eel' is what is called the "dark l" it has a quality rather similar to a [u] vowel. The sound in 'lee' is what is called a "clear l", it resembles an [i] vowel, with the front of the tongue raised. To pronounce or to realize which of the clear or dark will occur in a particular context by learners is a difficult tax. Similarly, in the same context is the difference found in consonant sound r, which has differences in its articulation and its distribution as found in different accents of English. As far as the articulation of sound it concerned, there is really only one pronunciation that can be recommended to a learner. The consonant is such as a plosive, nasal or fricative. In making r consonant no part of the tongue is in contact with the roof of the mouth. This is of course, very different from the r sound of many other languages where some kind of the tongue palate contact is made. A different r sound is found at the beginning of a syllable if

it proceeded by P, t or k: it is than voiceless and slightly fricative. This pronunciation is found in the word such as 'press', 'tress', 'cress'. Second learners (most of whom quite reasonably expect that if there is a letter r in the spelling then an r should be pronounced) fine it difficult to the rules of r in their own pronunciation.

In the following words there is no r in the pronunciation.

'Car', 'ever', 'here'

'Hard', 'verse', 'cares'

4.2.1 The Syllable

When we have two consonants in a syllable we call it consonants cluster. Example; 'sting', 'smoke', 'try', 'quick'. There are some restrictions on which consonant can occur together. Example of three consonant initial together are 'split', 'stream'. Some doubtful cases about syllable are.

1. Some people pronounce syringe as 'syringe' as 'sirindz' other case of sr, is one count second place name.

2. Many Weles names (including some well known outside Weles) such as girl name like Gwan and place name like country of Gwent have initial gw.

3. The vowel name 'schwa' and the name of the soft drink brand 'Schweppes'. This in however very difficult for a second language learner to pronounce.

4. The only possible occurrence of gj would be in the (heraldic) word 'gules' which is in very few people vocabulary.

Another word is 'student' consisting of one syllable with the three consonant cluster stj for it unset and ending with four consonant clusters. To fit in with what English speaker feel, we say that the word contain two syllables, with a consonant d dividing them. The vowel between d and n occurs in a very slow, careful pronunciation. That led to another problem to second language learners of English.

Analyzing syllable structure, as I have been doing is useful to second language learners of English. Obviously the limitation on the possible combination of vowels and consonants, understanding of basic structures type of consonant clusters can lead a second language learner to pronunciation problems. Most learners find some English clusters difficult, but few fine all of them difficult. In another instance for example, although it is easy enough to decide which vowel you hear in 'beat' or 'bit' it is must less easy to decide which vowel one hears in the second syllable of the word such as 'easy', 'busy'. There are accent of English (for example Weles accents) in which the second syllable much like the first syllable of 'easy' and others (for examples Yorkshire accents) in which the sound more like the first syllable of 'busy'. The aspects of syllable are very vast, second language learners need to learn in other to have full understanding of the native accent.

4.3 LANGUAGE TRANSFER (also known as l1 Interference, Linguistic Interference and cross Linguistics Influence)

It is the transfer of linguistics features between languages in linguistic repertoire of a bilingual or multilingual individual, from first to second language. It can occur in any situation when someone does not have a native level command of language as when translating into a second language.

Negative transfer occurs when speakers and writers transfer items and structures that are not the same in both languages. The theory of pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities state that the greater the differences between two languages, the more negative transfer can be expected. For example in English position is used before a day of the week "I am going to the beach on Friday." In Hausa Language, instead of a preposition the definite article is used: "zan je rahi ranar juma'a". Beginning Hausa students who are native English speakers may produce a transfer error and use a preposition when it is not necessary

due to their reliance on English. According to Whitley "it is natural for students to make these errors based on how the English words are used".

There is some evidence that transfer from first language can result in a king of technical or analytical, advantages over native (monolingual) speaker of a language. For example second language speaker of English whose first language is Korean has been found to be more accurate with the perception of Unreleased stops in English than native English speakers who are functionally monolingual due to different status of unreleased stops in Korean vise-avis English. This "Native Language benefit" appears to depend on an alignment of properties in the first and second languages that favor the linguistic biases of the first language.

4.4. CAUSES OF SECOND LANGUAGE ANXIETY

Although all the aspect of learning and using a second language can cause anxiety listening and speaking are regularly cited as the most anxiety provoking of second language activities. The causes of second language

anxiety have been broadly separated in to three main components: communication apprehension, text anxiety and fear of negatives evaluation.

Communication apprehension is the anxiety experience when speaking to or listening to other individuals. Test anxiety in a form of performance anxiety associated with the fear of doing badly or indeed feeling altogether. Fear of negative evaluations is the anxiety associated with learner's perception of how other onlookers (instructors, classmates or other) may negatively view their language ability.

There can be various physical causes of anxiety (such as hormone levels) but the underlying causes of excessive anxiety which learning are fear and a lack of confidence. Lack of confidence itself can come from various causes. One reason is the teaching approach used.

4.5   FACTOR ANALYSIS

The study was conducted with high school population of high and low risk second language learners and the student with identified learning

disability. the result of the factor analysis of native language measures and second language aptitude differences test; indicate three factors leveled phooey/syntax, second language aptitude and cognition/semantics. In another study (Spark et al, 1995) factors analysis ware conducted a three factors emerged from the analysis: language (memory, phonology recording and spelling word recognition). The language memory and phonological recoding factors accounted for the longest part of the variance in second language proficiency and only these two factors contributed significantly. He further hypothesized that the language/memory component was similar to the meaning and cognition/studies and that the phonological recording and spelling/word recognition. Factors in this study ware similar to phonology/syntax and phonology/orthography factors their study. These measure comprised tasks to which the student had in frequent exposure (i.e. low frequency words, unfamiliar words, second language words).

The result of the factor analysis suggests that all components of language, including phonology, orthography, and lower level for both oral and written can cause second language learning proficiency. To back up the set of findings from the data collected by one methodology I questionnaires 48 people among which some of them are teachers and lecturers. The conceptual idea to seek empirical support comes from exploring the totality of situation to large reams of the study carried out by those teachers cited above. Among 48 respondents to my questionnaire 32 of them believe that sounds and sentences are the major cause of failure in learning second language, 8 believe that understanding the meaning, 4 believe it was the student academic history, and another 4 believe it was lack effort. Followed by; 16 who believe that sounds and sentences are the second aspect that causes problems in learning second language, 20 believe it was understanding and recognizing meaning, 8 believe that it was the interferences of first language, 1believe it was anxiety, and 3 believe it was lack of effort. Followed by; 16 respondents believe that understanding and

recognizing is the third aspect that cause problems in learning second languages, 9 believe it was interferences of first language, 18 believe it was anxiety, 2 believe it was the student academic history another 2 believe it was the brain function.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is going to summaries the research, provide theoretical conclusion and recommend some methods that has been found effective in teaching students facing difficulties in learning second languages.

5.2 SUMMARY

The topic of this research work is "the problems associated to second language learning". In the first chapter of this research I introduced some of the areas that are going to be discussing in the project. All of the areas and the concepts discussed previously are in one way or the other related to language or language learning and acquisition.

The aspects that have been discussed that affect second language learning "as numerous explanations that have been proposed and devoted concerning some students who do well in other classes and failed second language class" proposes. According to Garschow a sparks; (linguistic

coding deficit hypothesis); theorized that second language difficulties system from one or more linguistic codes in student native language system. Later in 1980s researches identified auditory, visual and kinetic as the most important sensory channel for education. Other studies proposed that students' problems in native language classes were due to lack of motivation, efforts or anxiety and a learning disability similar to dyslexia.

Linguistic codes where presented including chart of international phonetics and alphabets help in gaining understanding of sound system of English language. Vowels and consonant sounds where explained, how there are produced and the complex position of describing them. The description of system and patterning of language come under the topic of phonology.

I presented some methods used by Ganschow and his colleagues in testing measures of native language skill and second language aptitude differences. An investigation of native language transfer in psychology which investigated forgetting of idea because of the recall of a certain items

has also been presented. I also presented the questionnaire I use to back up my findings. While In chapter four I pretended the linguistic analysis of phonological problem which looked at the restriction to the sequence of phonemes, the syllable clusters and some examples language transfer. And the factor analyses provide the analysis of the findings.

In chapter five summaries the work concludes, and recommend some of the ways to teach a second language learner the second language

5.3 CONCLUSION

Second languages study is an increasingly prominent part of education everywhere. Not only high school nearly always required studying a second language but many lower middle schools have added second language to their curricula, whether as enrichment or a requirement. Although it is more common, that not only colleges and universities required second language study for graduation. Most of the people of the world are also learning second language for a number of purposes. For learners unencumbered by

learning difficulties, second language study is indeed an enriching and rewarding experience. For learning disable learners, however, it can be unbelievably stressful and humiliating experience the opposite of what is intended.

The field of second language acquisition have blamed language learning failure on a number of factors anxiety in second language classroom (anxiety about making mistakes in grammar and pronunciation, about understanding the teacher, about remembering the vocabulary) has been prominent as a purported cause of failure. Among other causes cited and presented in previous chapters has been lack of effort, lack of motivation, poor learning habits and low ability in language learning. In the late 1960s, Dr. Kenneth Dinklage of Harvard University was compelled to find out why some Harvard's brightest and best were not passing their language classes. He quickly dismiss lack of effort, seeing that most of these students were putting other courses and their degrees at major risk by devoting usual amount of time and effort to their language classes. Similarly lack of

motivation was not a cause, as these students could not graduate without completion of their language requirement. As for anxiety, he realized the students were coming to see him because they were suffering from extremely to pass language classes. Since most of these students had never failed a class before, he felt that anxiety had not originally played a part in their failure. When he interview these students, he found that a number of failing language students had been diagnosed and had overcome their disabilities through good tutoring and very heard word. After testing, Dinklage had previously diagnosed learning disabilities, again the problem not shown up until second language classes were attempted. He uses methods of instruction known to be helpful to those with learning disabilities. The student's taught in the way were mostly able to pass the exams necessary to complete their second requirement.

In research about second language difficulties, a theory has been formulated which explained the problems and aviations in second language acquisition. In which language is described as having component parts or

linguistic code (phonological, semantic and syntax) linguistic coding deficit hypothesis which states that difficulty with second language acquisition stem from deficiencies in one or more of these linguistic codes in the students native language system. These deficiencies result in mild to extreme problems with specific oral and written aspects of language. Those experiencing difficulty with second language learning have problems with basic sound units of the language phonemes and do not recognize otherwise manipulate these basic units of sound efficiently. As a result, the student may have difficulty with actual perception and the production of language necessary for basic comprehension, speaking, spelling or with language comprehension, which may affect understanding on and or production.

While it is the good news that the underlying cause of problems difficulties and disabilities in learning second language has be tentatively identified and that ways have been found to teach students learning second language.

5.4 RECOMMENDATION

Once they had pointed what they felt was the root of the second language problem linguist began the way that learning disabled student could be help to learn a second language. At least two approaches to second language instruction different from normal or traditional language instruction have emerged as being effective.

The first and most research approach is a response by Gangchow and spearks: theorized further that to help those students, the sound system of the target language must be very explicitly taught. In other to test this theory they collaborate and teach using orton-gillgham method of teaching phonology, reading and spelling to very significantly learning disabled students. In this method sound are presented in highly structured fashion with a great deal of visual, kinesthetic and tactile practice and impute. The Spanish teacher has tested the effectiveness of teaching Spanish. The research on other students has shown quite conclusively that learning disabled students taught Spanish has been able to learn and retain it. Another

collaborator, Elkeschneider has had a similar result teaching German to learning disabled students.

In this study on Karen Millers students, it was found that by being taught phonological skills in one language, the student improve their phonological awareness in English. This finding has led to a variation on a method of teaching phonology in target language: teach the fundamentals of phonology in students native language before second language instruction begins. That is students are taught to recognize phonemes, to decode, or read words, efficiently and to encode, or apply the sounds to the written language is and how its sounds and parts function.

The second approach to language instruction which has been affective has been to adapt the second language courses according to be effective for learning disabled students. This means making such change as reducing syllabus to the essential elements showing the pace of instruction demand, and providing review and incorporating as much visual/tactile/kinesthetic (i.e. multiple sensory) stimulation and support as possible.

Other recommendations school should devote an entire second language section or class to learning disabled students. And find teachers trained to teach second language to learning disabled students.

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