LEARNING APPROACHES AND STRATEGIES IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Banwo Adetoro Olaniyi, PhD
Department of Linguistics, African and Asian Studies,
University of Lagos, Akoka, Lagos
E-mail: banwotoro@gmail.com

Abstract
This study examines the learning approaches and strategies of acquiring a second language while adopting the use of theories and different applications as depicted by modern scholars. Data for this work was obtained through purposive random sampling and analyzed through content analysis. Stages of language acquisition such as preproduction, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency and advance fluency stages were selected for this study. The framework for this research work emanated from the input hypothesis theory, language output hypothesis and the internal syllabus theory of language acquisition. This study identifies that the acquisition of a second language is based on several factors such as strategies and tactics, beneficial learning environment and the students' personal learning abilities. It suggests that human mental ability is a central feature of learning a second language, although the use of strategies to increase the brain and memory function would go a long way in increasing knowledge processing and information. Furthermore, it does not dissuade the fact that teachers have a fundamental role in this process, they have the power to motivate the learner and identify their individual traits or abilities. They are expected to provide a suitable or interactive learning environment that would increase communicative abilities and processes through students cognitive, social and physiological preferences to ensure a second language acquisition.

Keywords: Language, Acquisition, Theories, Approaches, Processes

Introduction

When we study human language, we are approaching what some might call the human essence, the distinctive qualities of mind that are, so far as we know, unique to humans (Chomsky, 1968). Language is the means we use to convey ideas from one mind to another, and the acquisition of language remains one of the most fascinating aspects of human development. From the first set of monosyllabic utterances to the use of complex, nuanced and context-specific structures, both the rate of progress and the stages of language acquisition have been the focus of innumerable studies in developmental psychology, linguistics and pedagogy (Castello, 2015). To learn a language, one must develop, acquire and maintain the use of complex systems of communication. To compete globally, students are taking up a second language such as Chinese, French, German, Japanese or Spanish. Acquiring a second language such as Chinese is greatly influenced on how students use their indigenous language and the mastery of a new one. In societies such as Nigeria, students are taking up a second language to compete internationally and to be well equipped for the opportunities that are available in the educational sector. Their contact with a second language such as,

Chinese, French, German or Spanish can largely affect extensively how they use their native languages and communicate effectively in a second one.

Humans have the ability not only to acquire their native languages but also the aptitude to learn one or more languages. Learning a second language is a systematic process in which a learner imbibes new communicative skills. While their process might be slow, others obtain this skill at a very fast rate. Linguists have proffered that children have the ability to learn a second language that is spoken around them. Linguists have also asserted over the years that the process of learning a new language includes the ability to construct, exchange, and interpret signs that have been created by someone else. Thus, to be an effective second language speaker one must have the inherent capabilities to demonstrate these tenets.

However, how do we learn a second language? The study of a second language follows certain principles which stem from various properties of human language processing. Likewise, a second language can be acquired from how the learner is motivated or intrinsically driven and then finally from the way in which the learner grasps the information to be learned accordingly. For a language to be learned effectively, the student must go through a practical experience and use his or her pedagogical gifts maximally. Secondly, how a student organizes his or her mind and brain matters, how he or she builds up fragmentary linguistic systems from the limited output he or she has is essential for effective communication. If the learner can efficiently do these things, we would be able to learn how the human language process information from the limited input it has and use (Klein, 1986).

The study of second language acquisition opens a window on the nature and function of human language to an even greater extent where students might have to deal with methodological problems where cognitive development is difficult to tease apart. Every normal child acquires a language, for their first language (native tongue) in the first few years of life. There are exceptions, on either physiological (e.g deafness) or social grounds, but usually a child can communicate freely by the time he goes to school. Beyond puberty, our command of language shows little progress, though in some areas- the vocabulary, for instance- learning continues throughout our life span. First language acquisition is thus primary in at least two ways: in terms of sequence (first) and in terms of (mostly life-long) importance (Klein, 1986).

Altenaichinger (2003) in a discourse of "The interface between theory and practice", the Creative Construction Theory, often referred to as the Naturalistic Approach dealt with the assumption that we are born with a special language system that we use to acquire a language. Altenaichinger explains that Stephen Krashen is among many scholars that singled out the differences between acquisition and learning by explaining that acquisition supposedly is a subconscious process that results in fluency while learning is conscious process that involves learning rules and structures. Additionally, Altenaichinger cites Krashen's discussions and contends that there are three internal elements involved in second language acquisition. Those elements from Krashen's book include a "filter", an "organizer" and a "monitor". He mentions that the "filter" deals with how the learner is influenced in a social context and how he reacts in various social environments. The "organizer" determines the arrangement of the learners

language system and "the usage of incorrect grammatical constructions as provisional precursors of grammatical structures, the systematically occurrence of errors in the learner's utterances as well as a common order in which structures are learnt" (Krashen 1983, as cited in Altenaichinger, 2003). The "monitor" operates the conscious learning part where the learners correct their speech according to their age (Altenaichinger, 2003).

The objective of this study therefore is to examine the learning strategies, approaches and processes of second language acquisition. It also intends to investigate the importance and essence of learning a second language. Likewise, this article discusses the concept of learning a second language and how to acquire it. Furthermore, the researcher hinges this work on existing theories of second language acquisition. Equally, it highlights the different stages of language acquisition and examines the problems intrinsic within. Lastly, it scrutinizes the dilemma language learners' face in the acquisition of learning a second language.

Scope of the Study

This work is limited to the conceptualization of language learning and its acquisition. Language learning is a conscious process, which is the product of either formal learning situation or a self-study program (Kramina, 2000). Hence, we can assert that language learning is an integral part of the unity of all languages (Robbins, 2007). Krashen (1982) hypothesizes that the process of learning a second language is distinguished from acquisition, with the latter being a subconscious process of gradual development of ability through use in natural communicative situations with other speakers. The focus is not the form of the speaker's utterances, but meaningful interaction through the act of communication itself, meaning that language users are largely unaware of the rate or sequence of their development.

Lightbown & Spada (2001) observe that learning occurs during the formative years of one's life. It usually commences in early childhood before the age of three and the process continues as one grows up among the people who speak it fluently. In contrast, learning is differentiated as a more conscious and explicitly sequenced process of 'accumulating knowledge of linguistic features such as vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar, typically in an institutional setting'.

Methodology

This work has adopted secondary literature and the work of numerous linguistic scholars and psychologists in the analyses of the methods and processes of learning a second language. The notable works of Chomsky, N. (1968), Krashen, S. (1982), Seliger, H. (1984), Faerch, C. and G. Kasper. (1980) among others would offer greater academic insights and notions on achieving the objective of the paper.

Stages of Second Language Acquisition

Scholars have postulated theories on the method of acquiring a second language like Chinese. Language scholars have identified different stages in which second language can be acquired. According to Haynes (2007), the 1st stage is preproduction and is also referred to as "the silent period" where learners gradually build up their vocabulary to about 500 words without speaking the language but more echoing the language. Then

there is the 2nd stage called early production and at this stage learners will have around 1000 word vocabulary with the capacity of constructing words in short phrases and memorize and use short language forms although not necessarily correctly (Haynes, 2007). Haynes talks about the 3rd stage, speech emergence, where learners have acquired around 3000 words and should be able to speak short sentences and simple phrases. By now, learners should be able to engage in conversation and ask simple questions. Also they can understand short stories if they are supported with pictures. The 4th development stage, intermediate fluency, he explains that the learners have an active vocabulary of 6000 words. Also, he adds that students can now form longer and more complex phrases both spoken and written with grammatical errors but demonstrate excellent comprehension. The last developing stage is called advanced fluency and as he points out, it takes around 5- 10 years to achieve proficiency in second language acquisition and by now the learners are considered near-native. Indeed, Haynes says that on the surface it might look quite effortless to learn a second language but there are various factors that can have impact on the learning process such as motivation and age.

Halgunseth (2009) reveals the some of the factors that can also impact learning a second language. Young children acquire a first language and second languages what it seems to be almost without any effort through a process that is called simultaneous second language learning. According to her, simultaneous learners are children under the age of three who are exposed to their mother tongue at home and another language in an early educational context such as kindergarten or other early program. She points out that although being exposed to two different languages at home, children learn both languages the same way without favoring one or the other. As their brain mechanism allows them to learn more than one language, they construct two separate language systems in their brains for each language. Similarly, this language system is almost identical to the process that children develop through exposure to one language (Halgunseth, 2009). Learning a second language is faster for children and scholars have made extensive research on the method of language acquisition, these can be grouped into three parts, language input, output and hypothesis. We would examine them shortly.

Theories on Language Acquisition
There are many theories on second language acquisition; however we would be examining only three of these theories. Firstly, Input Hypothesis Theory of Language Acquisition- Input means the language information learners receive from the language environment. According to the second language acquisition theory proposed by Krashen (1982), understandable language input is the key to language acquisition. This theory was expressed by Krashen as "i+1", that is, a language learner won't achieve the "i+1" level until he realizes the language input process beginning from this existing language knowledge i. According to this theory, learners mainly learn one language in two channels: one is acquisition and the other is learning. Here the former means that a learner takes in and then uses a language unconsciously through language communication practice while the latter means that a conscious study and understanding of a language. That is to say, acquisition is of greater importance than learning, hence emphasizing the significance of putting students into a language learning environment with feedback system to guarantee their contact with a large

amount of understandable language input during our college language teaching (Li, 2009). Furthermore, Seliger (1984) distinguishes strategies and tactics. The former involve subconscious mechanisms which govern how input becomes intake. They are not open to direct inspection. Instead, we have to infer what they consist of by studying the learner's output. Learning strategies can be seen as part of the cognitive process in which learners form, test and revise hypotheses (Faerch & Kasper, 1980). Tactics, according to Seliger, are the devices a learner uses to obtain input and to help them make sense of it. They are conscious or potentially conscious and they are open to inspection, therefore. Learners use tactics to plan their learning, to monitor their progress, to tackle specific learning tasks and to compensate for communication problems. Tactics are highly variable. No two learners adopt precisely the same set of tactics. Tactics account for why learners vary in the speed with which they acquire a second language (Ellis, 1989).

Secondly, Language Output Hypothesis Theory of Language Acquisition; Output here means that learners achieve their language communication purpose by practicing with the language knowledge and skills they have obtained and sending understandable output. Wells (1999) defines this class interaction as a collaborative activity among language input, language information acceptance and language environment, which shows the importance of language acquisition environment and learners' internal encouragement system. Accordingly, in college language teaching, teachers should establish an interactive class pattern in which students will have opportunities to deal with the language input they accept, apply their language skills to communication and adjust their learning strategies (Li, 2009).

Thirdly, Internal Syllabus Theory of Language Acquisition-According to the theory of language internal syllabus, language learners' acquisition process should be gradual. Since the language acquisition effect will be influenced by the learners' intelligence, personality, learning motivation, interest and so on, language learning is a progressive, internal and natural acquisition process. Therefore, college language teachers are expected to give students some necessary guidance and instructions as well as encouragement and help to help them solve problems in learning, relieve their impatience, depression and anxiety as well as design language learning activities in a better way (Li, 2009). Likewise, two traditions have helped to support different approaches to language instruction. Prabhu (1985) distinguishes learner-centered and learning-centered approaches. The former is expressed in the language for specific purposes movement; it involves the attempt to identify the needs of individual learners (or groups of learners) and the design of tailor-made courses to meet these needs. It is also evident in the attempt to adapt the teaching method to the learner's learning style, as in Wesche's (1981) study of deductive and inductive learners, who were exposed to instruction that emphasized respectively conscious rule-formation and audio-lingual practice.

Different scholars have posited theories of language acquisition, while some have posited that having an understandable language input will facilitate the acquisition of a language, others have argued that strategies and tactics are influential in the language learning process. Likewise, other scholars have propounded that language acquisition can be attained through constant practise and interaction within and outside the

learning environment. Finally, some scholars have opined that the learners' natural qualities such as intelligence, motivations and interest are core factors that can facilitate a smooth language acquisition process.

Methods of Second Language Acquisition
For us to acquire the basics of a second language effectively, there are some forms that need to be clearly studied. It is very fundamental to understand the nature of what it is that needs to be learned. A second language learner needs to learn the "grammar" of the target language. But what is meant by this? What is language? How can we characterize the knowledge that humans have of language?

All normal humans acquire a language in the first few years of life. The knowledge acquired is largely of an unconscious sort. That is, very young children learn how to form particular grammatical structures, such as relative clauses. They also learn that relative clauses often have a modifying function, but in a conscious sense they do not know that it is a relative clause and could presumably not state what relative clauses are used for. Therefore the core of language forms depends on learning the following: Phonology, Syntax, Morphology and the lexicon, Semantics and Pragmatics. On the knowledge of the sound system (phonology) of our native language is complex. Minimally, it entails knowing what sounds are possible and what sounds are not possible in the language. Phonological knowledge also involves knowing what happens to words in fast speech as opposed to more carefully articulated speech (Gass, 2013). Phonological processes can be learnt through syllable structure processes which includes final consonant deletion, cluster and syllable reduction. It can also be acquired through substation processes in which sound changes in which one sound class replaces another class of sounds such as gliding, vocalization, fronting, deaffrication and stopping. Finally, we have the assimilation process in which sound changes that has one sound or syllable influencing another sound or syllable (Brady and Shankweiler, 2013).

On Syntax, this is what is frequently known as grammar, referring primarily to the knowledge we have of the order of elements in a sentence. There are two kinds of grammar that are generally referred to: (a) prescriptive grammar and (b) descriptive grammar. By prescriptive grammar, we mean such rules as are generally taught in school, often without regard to the way native speakers of a language actually use language. Descriptive grammar on the other hand, attempt to describe languages as they are actually used. Thus, when talking about knowledge of syntax, we are referring to descriptive grammars (Gass, 2013). Knowledge of syntax can be revealed through syntax mode in sentences. This includes simple sentences, compound sentences and compound-complex sentences. Compound sentences have dependent clauses and compound-complex sentences have both types included. The simple sentence pattern includes the subject-verb structure, the compound sentence pattern includes the subject-verb-object-conjuction-subject-verb structure, the complex sentence pattern includes the dependent clause-subject-verb-object structure and the compound-complex sentence pattern includes four clauses, dependent and independent structures (Burgess, 1968).

On Morphology and the lexicon, this is the study of word formation. In many cases, words are made up of more than one part. For example, the word unforeseen is made up of three parts: un, which has a negative function; fore, which means earlier in time; and seen, which means visualized. Each part is referred to as a morpheme, which can be defined as the minimal unit of meaning. There are two classes of morphemes that we can identify: bound and free. A bound morpheme is one that can never be a word by itself, such as the un of unlikely. A free morpheme is one that is a word in and of itself, such as man, woman, book, or table. Words can be created by adding morphemes (Gass, 2013).

Libben (2012) states that morphology ability is therefore very important in any language acquisition because it enables the speaker of a language to make use of meaningful substrings within a word in a manger that enables the processing of new forms while maintaining properties of established words. He claims that the ability can be broken down into the following four abilities. Firstly, the ability to repeat, comprehend and produce multimorphemic words with appropriate semantics and syntactic properties. Secondly, he must have the ability to understand and interpret novel multimorphemic constructions to access meanings of constituents. Thirdly, he must also have the ability to produce multiple multimorphemic constructions to create new words is an important ability in the language learning process. Fourthly, the learner must have the ability to employ morphological patterns within the language is in order to organise vocabulary knowledge. Libben (2012) further notes that morphological patterns brings systematicity and cross-referencing ability to an individual's vocabulary system so that formation, formlessness and uniformity can be linked in the mind despite the diversity of their whole-word meanings.

Semantics refers to the study of meaning (Gass, 2013). It also refers to the meaning of words and utterances. Semantics involves the words or vocabularies of a language which is also know as a lexicon. Words can represent things, places, people, concept, characteristics, actions, emotions, or activities. Semantics also involves the study of words and word meanings. Words can have more than one meaning and the component of semantics involves phrases that may have multiple meanings. Words and their corresponding referents may also have associations with other words and referents. Semantics also includes figurative language and inferential meanings. Figurative language represents the meaning behind a phrase or sentence derived beyond the concrete or literal interpretation (Koch, 2018).

Pragmatics refers to the way in which we use language in context (Gass, 2013). It also refers to the meaning through which we communicate or the how and the reasons for communicating or the why. The pragmatical component of language is also rule-governed and the way we use language to communicate will vary depending on the situational context and or the communication partner. Pragmatics is also governed by social and cultural values; likewise it is related to facial expressions, gestures, and word emphasis to convey different meanings. The pragmatic component of language encompasses a broad range of the functions of our utterances. This included our ability to take turns and maintain topics during conversation, providing sufficient information to convey a message without too much or redundant information, appropriate use of nonverbal communicative cues, and adapting our style of communication depending

on the listener or the situation, and recognising and repairing communication breakdowns (Koch, 2018).

While the above offers insights into the language forms that we have, how do we acquire them in the process? According to Krashen (1982), acquisition is a subconscious process while learning is conscious. Although both play a role in developing second-language competence, acquisition is far more important, since the competence developed through it, is responsible for generating language and thus accounts for language fluency. Competence gained through learning, or the "Monitor" as Krashen terms it, can only modify language generated by acquired language competence. In other words, the second-language student can use learned rules to "monitor" or correct his language either before or after the moment of production. Monitoring serves a limited function, however, since it can operate only when there is sufficient time, when the focus is on form, and when the necessary rule has been learned. Normally these rather limited conditions are met chiefly when a person is writing or taking a discrete-point grammar test. According to Krashen, learned competence and acquired competence develop in very different ways. In his view, language learning occurs through the formal study of rules, patterns, and conventions, a study which enables one to talk about and consciously apply the knowledge gained. Language acquisition, however, occurs quite differently, for it develops exclusively, Krashen believes, through "comprehensible input. That is, second-language students acquire language competence by exposure to language that is both understandable and meaningful to them. By concentrating on meaning, they subconsciously acquire form. Importantly, Krashen insists that learning does not turn into acquisition except in a certain convoluted way. This can occur only if second-language students successfully monitor their language production so that they provide their own grammatically correct comprehensible input. This self-produced input then becomes part of the total necessary for acquisition to take place (Tricomi, 1986).

To learn a second language, the learner must be motivated to learn so that he can easily comprehend what is being taught to him easily. Likewise, the learner must use the language learnt through practical means to develop himself and gather a wide range of experiences. Language can be learnt through a variety of processes, such as the gradual building up of vocabularies and speaking abilities through the construction of short or long phrases until fluency is attained.

Challenges to Language Acquisition

Psychologists have identified individual differences as one of the major challenges to second language acquisition. Firstly, they referred to cognition as how information is processed and learned by the human mind. They believed that for one to learn a second language he must have the ability to process information. The basic reason is because the human cognitive architecture is made of representation and access. Second, mental processing is dual, comprised of two different kinds of computation, automatic or fluent (unconscious) and voluntary or controlled (conscious). Third, cognitive resources such as attention and memory are limited. Thus, for psychologists, the cognitive ability of the individual is very important in the language learning process.

Furthermore, contemporary psychologists believe that cognitive abilities cannot only influence the learning of a second language. They believe that humans are conscious and volitional creations in explaining perceptions; behaviour and learning should be accounted for based on human intentions, goals, plans and commitments. These scholars have identified motivation as another key factor that can hinder the learning of a second language if it's absent. Motivation is referred to as the desire to initiate second language learning and the effort employed to sustain it. Most second language learners lack the zeal to maintain the initial passion that engineered the learning process of the language (Ortega, 2014). Yang (2008) identified a method to improve students' motivation, she cited that a crucial step toward a learner-centered classroom is getting students involved in learning by having them set language goals for themselves. Having the language learners set personal language goals increases their involvement by increasing the stake they have in the learning process. Giving students the opportunity to establish their own goals, in addition to or in collaboration with those set by the instructional program, allows students to reflect on their reasons for learning a second language, which may in turn lead to increased motivation. Learners' motivation, through complex and multifaceted, is critical for all types of learning. Motivation affects how hard students are willing to work on a task, how much they will persevere when they are challenged, and how much satisfaction they feel when they accomplish a learning task. Good teaching strategies can increase students' motivation for second language learning tasks. Value, self-efficacy and attribution are several critical components that play a great role in second language learner motivation.

Likewise, scholars have identified the role of culture in learning a second language. The culture dilemma refers to the way language and culture are related. It also connotes the amount of cultural knowledge required to comprehend meaning or participate in an activity. The meanings of words are determined by the uses of words within linguistic and cultural settings, these are never the same in any two cultures. Second language learners need to learn the words in their respective language as well as the cultural background that gives the words their mother language meaning. They need to learn words in context to understand the meaning. Additionally, the information conveyed in our textbooks and lessons is culturally embedded. Some texts or topics can actually be culturally offensive. The culture dilemma also refers to how teachers expect interaction to occur in a classroom that includes when to speak, when to stay silent, when to respond and when to write. These expectations vary from one culture to the next. Second language learners are often expected to determine the classroom behavioral norms independently. The following strategies can help teachers overcome the issues associated with culture: Firstly, Teachers should treat Second language learners with respect, not judging irrationally, and try to be friendly with students and try to establish social relationships with their elders. Secondly, Teachers can use information gained through these relationships to develop lessons and activities that help students understand the teacher's culture. Thirdly, by demonstrating respect for students, teachers allow a door of trust to open that can serve to further deepen a nurturing teacher-student relationship (Abdullah, 2015).

Discussion

Anderson (1980) adopts the term cognitive skill to refer to the ability to perform various mental procedures. Our ability to understand and generate language or apply our knowledge of rules to solve a problem is seen as procedural knowledge. Anderson argues that as we use the same knowledge over and over again in procedure, we can lose our access to the rules that originally produced or enable the procedure, and thus lose our ability to verbally report or "declare: these rules". Another way to improve second language learning is through memory strategies. Samida, (2012) asserts that they are simple principles like laying things out in order, making association and reviewing. These principles are employed when a learner faces challenge of vocabulary learning. The use of memory strategies are most frequently applied in the beginning process of language learning. As the learners advance to higher level of proficiency memory strategies are mentioned very little. It is not that the use ceases, but the awareness of its use becomes less.

Likewise, the role of the Teacher is very crucial to the successful learning of a second language. Dornyei (1994) construct is the Learner Level, which focuses on personality traits and emotions as motivating factors in language learning. He suggests that teachers should develop students' self-confidence by projecting the belief that they will achieve their goal; providing regular praise and reinforcement; making sure that students regularly experience a sense of achievement; counterbalancing experiences of frustration by involving students in some easier activities; and using confidence building tasks. Teachers should promote students' self-efficacy with regard to achieving learning goals by teaching students strategies for communication, information processing, and problem solving. Teachers should also tell students about their own experiences and difficulties with language learning. They should promote favorable self-perceptions by explaining that mistakes are part of learning. They can also encourage students to set attainable goals by integrating a personalized learning plan for each student. In order to function as efficient motivators, goals should be specific, achievable, accepted by the students, and accompanied by feedback about progress.

Ellis (1989) argues that Teachers need to adapt the way they communicate to suit individual learners. The teacher who seeks 'a meeting of minds' with her learners does so principally by the way she communicates with them-both collectively and individually. Accommodation to the needs and preferences of individual learners needs to be seen as part of the overall process of communicating with them. To succeed, teachers have to be able to assess not only what each learner is capable of in communication but also his or her personal preferences. To force a learner to produce when she prefers to function as an 'active listener' is potentially damaging. So too would be to prevent the risk-taking learner from playing a prominent role as a speaker. Some learners find teachers' questions threatening; others welcome them. Some learners want to be corrected; others do not. It is through interacting with learners that the process of negotiating an individualized curriculum really takes place. A learner-centered curriculum is not something that is planned (although planning can help), but something that unravels through classroom communication.

In addition, Prabhu (1985) divulges the fact that designing a proper learning style would enhance second language acquisition. By learning style, it refers to the idea that learners have characteristic ways of tackling problems which reflect their whole selves-it is the product of their cognitive, social and physiological preferences. A learner's learning style is evident in whatever she is doing-whether it is learning how to swim or how to learn a language. It is partly the product of innate disposition and partly of experience. A learner's previous education, for instance, may have led her to form certain expectations about what it means to learn in a formal setting. Learning-centered methodologies are based on theories of the learning process. Humanistic approaches are grounded on a general view of how learning-of any kind-takes place. They seek to create the conditions, particularly the affective conditions, needed to ensure successful learning. Other learning-centered approaches emphasize the uniqueness of language. They treat language learning as a distinct kind of learning.

Conclusion

In conclusion, language is an important activity of human life and our survival depends on how effective we can communicate. Learning a second language is even a complex complicated process because its success depends on the individuals' motivation, his brain capacity and his strategy for learning. Nevertheless, we must argue that the social environment also influences' the study of a second language as well as the learners' ability to use his conscious and subconscious mind towards realizing this objective. Second language learning involves a systematic approach of building up ones vocabularies, learning short phrases, memorizing, using short language forms, engaging in conversations and asking questions. Motivation for second language learning goes a long way towards achieving this skill because the learner would be intrinsically driven to grasp the knowledge he desires in the process. Students learn a second language such as Chinese for multifarious reasons, why it is arguable that they learn it to develop themselves and offer opportunities in the area of work, others learn it to further their educational career and build a formidable base to start their life with.

References

Anderson, J. R. (1980). Concepts, propositions, and schemata: What are the cognitive units? (No. TR-80-2). Carnegie-Mellon University Pittsburgh PA, Dept of Psychology.

Abdullah, S. (2015). Challenges for Teaching English as a Second Language and their Remedies. International Journal of Humanities and Management Sciences (IJHMS) Volume 3, Issue 6, ISSN 2320–4044 (Online)

Altenaichinger, A. (2003). Second language acquisition: The interface between theory and practice.

Brady, S. A., & Shankweiler, D. P. (Eds.). (2013). Phonological processes in literacy: A tribute to Isabelle Y. Liberman. Routledge.

Burgess, A. (1968). Enderby. WW Norton & Company Incorporated.

Castello, D. (2015). First Language Acquisition and Classroom Language Learning: Similarities and Differences.

Chomsky, N. (1968). Language and Mind. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. The modern language journal, 78(3), 273-284.

Ellis, R. (1989). Second language learning and second language learners: Growth and diversity. TESL Canada Journal, 7(1), 74-94.

Faerch, C. and G. Kasper. (1980). Processes in foreign language learning and
       communication. Inter language Studies Bulletin, 5: 47-118.
Gass, S. M. (2013). Second language acquisition: An introductory course. Routledge.
Haynes, J. (2007). Getting started with English language learners: How educators can
       meet the challenge. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and
       Curriculum Development.
Halgunseth, L. (2009). How children learn a second language. A. Umaña-Taylor,
       Classroom Diversity and Academic Success, an Online Special Edition. Retrieved
       from http://www. education. com/reference/article/howchildren-learn-second-
       language.
Koch, C. L. (Ed.). (2018). Clinical Management of Speech Sound Disorders. Jones & Bartlett
       Learning.Clinical Management of Speech Sound Disorders. Jones & Bartlett Learning.
Klein, W. (1986). Second language acquisition. Cambridge University Press.
Kramiņa, I. (2000) Lingo – Didactic Theories Underlying Multi – Purpose Language
       Acquisition. University of Latvia
Krashen, S. (1982). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. Oxford:
       Pergamon.
Li, C. (2009). A research on second language acquisition and college English teaching.
       English Language Teaching, 2(4), 57.
Libben, G. (2012). Morphological assessment in bilingual aphasia: Compounding and the
       language nexus. Aspects of multilingual aphasia, 51-88.
Lightbown, P. M., and Spada, N. (2001). Factors Affecting Second Language
       Learning. In Candlin, C. N., and Mercer, N. (Ed.), English Language Teaching in Its
       Social Context: a reader. London: Routledge.
Ortega, L. (2014). Understanding second language acquisition. Routledge
Prabhu, N. (1985). Coping with the unknown in language pedagogy. In R. Quirk, and
       H. Widdowson, (Eds.), English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language
       and Literatures. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Robbins, D. (2007) Vygotsky's and Leontiev's Non-classical Psychology Related to
       Second Language Acquisition. International Nordic-Baltic Region Conference of
       FIPLV Innovations in Language Teaching and Learning in the Multicultural Context
       15-16th June, 2007, Riga, Latvia.
Samida, D. K. (2012). Language learning strategies. TESOL Journal, 159.
Seliger, H. (1984). Processing universals in second language acquisition. In F.
       Eckman, L. Bell, and D. Nelson, (Eds.), Universals of Second Language Acquisition,
       Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
Stefánsson, E. G. (2014). Second language acquisition: The effect of age and
       motivation (Doctoral dissertation).
Tricomi, E. T. (1986). Krashen's second-language acquisition theory and the teaching
       of edited American English. Journal of Basic Writing, 5(2), 59-69.
Wesche, M. (1981). Language aptitude measures in streaming, matching students with
       methods and diagnosis of learning problems. In K. Diller, (Ed.), Individual
       Differences in Language Learning Aptitude, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
Wells, G. (1999). Dialogic inquiry: Towards a socio-cultural practice and theory of
       education. Cambridge University Press.
Yang, H. (2008). On teaching strategies in second language acquisition. Online
       Submission, 5(1), 61-67.