

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Children's Language Development

The development of language is important for everyone both children and adults (Visser-Bochane, Reijneveld, Krijnen, van der Schans & Luinge 2020). Through language, they can express themselves, convey and ask for information and interact with other people. Moreover, besides using language to interact with other people, for children, the development of language also indicates their cognitive development. When children experience speech delays, they will find challenges in learning and socializing with other people (Surmayanti, 2017). Moreover, in their language development, children might experience some challenges such as inattention issues, speech delay, or other uncommon conditions. It might need more affection and treatment from the parents to support their growth (Rosmala et al., 2021). Therefore, the roles of parents are one of the keys to provide the proper treatment and support children's language development.

The development of language in childhood tends to develop rapidly because they are in a critical period. This period occurs from infancy to puberty (Lenneberg, 1967). Researchers argued that early childhood is good timing for acquiring a language (Ellis, 1994; Khanekah, 2017; Lenneberg, 1967; Schulz & Grimm, 2019; Thu, 2009) because they are in the critical period in which they are able to acquire full native competence of a language (Lenneberg, 1967). Moreover, Lenneberg also argues that humans will naturally learn the language that is introduced to them when they were a child and it occurred at the beginning of two years old until puberty (Lenneberg, 1967). Hence, according to this theory, childhood is the golden period for language acquisition and gives the children a great opportunity to acquire more than one language and become bilingual.

Language development in children begins when they are born into the world. Normally, they will start to cry a moment after the birth and continue their language development along with the time (Rosmala et al., 2021). Researchers argue that there are several stages in children's language development. Menyuk & Brisk (2005) stated that there are four stages in children's language development.

The first is language development in infancy at around age 0-3 years old. Then, language development in the preschool year at around 3-5 years old. Next, language development in primary school at around 6-8 years old. The last, language development in middle childhood at around 9-13 years old.

2.1.1. Language development in infancy (0-3 years old)

Language development in infancy refers to the child at ages 0-3 (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). In this period, infants spend much time with family members. Then, the language development depends on their home environment. In other words, the ability for infants to develop their vocabulary (lexical) and start to use that in the utterances is depending on the input that they got from the family (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005).

At age 1-4 months, infants experience several linguistic developments. They produce speech-non-speech vocalizing, perceptual differentiation of intonation & segments and vocalization interchange (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Moreover, according to Aitchison (2008), since the baby came into the world, they start crying. Through crying, the baby can communicate with the parents or other people. Furthermore, each crying has different meanings such as hungry, thirsty, pain, sleepy, etc. (Harun, Ritonga & Hakiki, 2019). Additionally, around week 6, the baby starts to make sounds like snoring. The sound made by the baby in this stage is hard to define. Instead of crying, the baby starts to be able to interact with others through this sound. Moreover, in some literature, this stage is also called the gurgling and mewling stage (Harun et al., 2019).

Then, at age 4-8 months, the baby starts to babble and produce different intonations of babbling (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). The baby tries to say the word by producing syllables, vowels and consonants such as *mamama*, *papapa*, *bababa*, etc. (Harun et al., 2019). Moreover, they start to be able to produce different intonations of babbling around 8 months old (Aitchison, 2008). In this stage, the baby also seems to be trying to imitate the way adults speak. However, most of the sounds produced by the baby still cannot be understood (Harun et al., 2019).

Around 1-year-old the baby starts to be able to produce one word. They produce the word clearer. Usually, they get 15 words including people's names, animals and objects (Harun et al., 2019). Moreover, until 1-year-old, they become more aware of their surroundings. They are able to respond to some words and pay attention to the stressed words (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Moreover, the development of their word (lexical development) depends on several factors such as parental style and economic status (Altinkamis & Simon, 2020; Farabolini et al., 2021; Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). The characteristics of parents will directly affect children's lexical development. When the parents are having less interaction and less talk with the child, it will reduce the input vocabulary that is heard by the child. Then, Parents with many children or parents with a busy job will have limited time to talk with the children. Those factors affect the rate speed of children's lexical development.

Then, other aspects of language development are also called universal aspects. It consists of the semantic acquisition and phonological acquisition (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). The acquisition of semantic or structural knowledge refers to the ability of children to combine words and make utterances. This occurs around 1 year old to 18 months (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Then, this acquisition makes infants able to use the language to convey their intentions such as a question, request, command, assertion, partial imitation, repetition and negation. Moreover, in the semantic acquisition, infants will produce early utterances starting from combining two words, incomplete utterance and complete utterance (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). At this stage, the utterances of the children are easier to be understood by the adults.

Additionally, phonological acquisition refers to the ability to produce the sound of the language (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). In the bilingual case, the phonology in both languages can be acquired simultaneously without confusing the infant. However, when the sound of language A is easier than language B, then the children will use the A sound in B language as the example from Burling (1959) (see Menyuk & Brisk, 2005).

Moreover, when the children are 2 – 3 years old, they start to be able to produce more than two words. Aichison (2008) called this stage as word inflection. At this stage, children are able to produce more than 2 words and their vocabulary is increased. Also, they comprehend the relation of three terms or words they used (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Furthermore, the ability to make questions and rejection also increased. children are able to ask simple questions clearly like, "who is it?", "Where are we?" And able to express rejections like "I don't want it", etc. (Harun et al., 2019)

2.1.2. Language development in the preschool years (3-5 years old)

Language development in the preschool period refers to the child in approximately 3 to 5 or 6 (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). In this stage, there are two significant changes in children's language development. The linguistic knowledge and language use are developed significantly due to the increase of infant linguistic competence and their interaction experiences (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Moreover, at this stage, they are able to communicate with others and can engage in a conversation.

In linguistic knowledge development, the knowledge of phonological, lexical and semantic that infants get from parents and the environment makes them able to produce sound and speak with the language introduced to them. According to Menyuk & Brisk (2005), all the linguistic knowledge that has been acquired allows them to speak. The length of their speech is affected by the exposure to the language, the frequency of hearing the word and the ability to pronounce the word. Also, at this stage, children have already reached a clear pronunciation. Then, if in the first stage they rely on verbs and nouns, at this stage they understand other word classes such as adjectives, articles, quantifiers and adverbs (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Moreover, they also acquire the rules of the language in this period through interaction with others (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005).

In pragmatics of language use development, the ability of children to use the language appropriately based on the condition is increased. They are able to use the proper language when engaging in conversation with peers and adults

(Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Then, they can turn to talk into conversations and tell their story. They imitate the story but mostly in the short length (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005).

Additionally, Aitchison (2008) also proposed several stages in this period of language development. She stated that at around 5 years the children's utterances are close to adult utterances. However, sometimes they make misinterpretations of the utterances spoken by the adults (Harun et al., 2019). Hence, although in this stage the children can reach the pattern of the language spoken by the adults around them, the development of children's language has not reached the mature speech yet.

2.1.3. Language development in the primary school year (6-8 years old)

Language development in the primary school year refers to the children in age 6-8 (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). In this stage, children start to learn how to read and write. Through reading, they are able to know what a word is and decide by sounding it. In this stage, children learn how to read and read to understand the word. Also, they learn how to write a word (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). It helps them expand their knowledge of the language. Based on Menyuk & Brisk (2005), the structural knowledge and pragmatic were developed significantly in this stage can be highlighted as follow:

Table 2.1

Structural and pragmatic development of children age 6-8

	Category	Change
Structural development	Syntax	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The length of spoken sentence increase • The ability of children to combine the structure is increase
	Morphology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ability of children to use prefix and suffix properly are increase
	Lexicon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ability of children to use abstract categories are increase • The ability of children to use synonym and antonyms are increase

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ability to use multisyllabic word appear more frequently
	Phonology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children start to acquire and use the stress rules of the word
Pragmatic development	Conversation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begin to understand the perspective of other • Able to give relevant responses
	Storytelling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begin to be a good and friendly listener • Able to follow the story grammar
	Explanation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Able to expand the knowledge from personal reference to abstract knowledge

2.1.4. Language development in middle childhood

Language development in middle childhood refers to the children in ages 9-13 years old (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). The linguistic development at this stage is influenced by the social maturation of children. In this stage, they are consciously aware of the language they use and also the knowledge of that language (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Moreover, the acquisition of pragmatic and structural development also develops at this stage.

In this stage, children have a lot of pragmatic development. Children begin to engage in the long conversation, wider topics and can give the appropriate response. The ability to maintain and change the topic in conversation is affected by the cultural background of the children (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Then, the ability to use indirect speech also increased at this stage. They begin to be able to lie and be sarcastic more effectively (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005).

Additionally, the structural development also acquired significantly in this stage. The morphological system, prefixes, suffixes and infixes are able to be used effectively by the children and they understand the relation among them (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Moreover, in the bilingual case, in this stage, children

begin to realize that many words are the same in spelling but different in pronunciation (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). For example, the word menu in Indonesian and English. It has the same spelling but differs in pronunciation.

Along with the children's maturation, the ability to understand the language use also develops. Children begin to know the figurative speech, able to produce sentences that are made from two sentences and understand the multiple meanings of the word (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). Hence, in this stage, they begin to understand the complex meaning of the sentence or word and they are able to use it. Moreover, the language development acquired in this stage also affects their reading and writing perception. If in the previous stage they learn to read and write, in this stage they read in order to learn and write in order to express something in children's mind (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). In other words, they write what they want to say.

2.2. Bilingualism

Currently, researchers argue to make the distinction in defining the condition of individuals who can speak more than one language. The common views nowadays are using multilingual terms to define the person or community who speak two or more languages, also the bilingual and trilingual phenomena are included in multilingualism (Aronin & Singleton, 2008; Cenoz, 2013; Hammarberg, 2010). On the other hand, the traditional views are using the term bilingual to define the ability to use two languages but it also can include more languages (Bhatia, 2019; Bialystok, 2003; Bloomfield, 1933; Butler & Hakuta, 2004; Cook & Bassetti, 2011 in Cenoz 2013). Additionally, Butler & Hakuta (2004) bilingual refers to the person or group who are able to interact with others in one or more languages. Also, those who have a native-like control of two languages are defined as bilingual (Bialystok, 2003; Bloomfield, 1933).

Thus, the terms bilingual and multilingual are synonyms. Both terms can be used to describe the ability of someone to speak two or more languages, especially in sociolinguistics and bilingualism studies (Abello-Contesse, Chandler, Lopez-zimenez and Chacon-Beltran, 2013). Further, from a socio-psychological perspective, childhood bilingualism is not only about acquiring two or more

languages, but it is a lifelong process involving many factors such as different life backgrounds, input processes and stages (Bhatia, 2019). Then, the participant in this research is able to speak more than one language and have a native-like control of them, therefore, the term “bilingualism” in this research is used as an all-inclusive term to embody both bilingualism and multilingualism.

2.3.1. Home language bilingualism

Talking about bilingualism, there are a lot of patterns that cause a child to become bilingual, one of them is home language bilingualism. It occurs when there are more than two languages that are used at home or the languages that are used at home and the environment is different. Hence, the children get different input language from home and the environment. Romaine (1995) cited in Bialystok (2003) stated that there are six patterns of home language bilingualism such as “one person, one language”, “non-dominant home language/ one language, one environment”, “nondominant home language without community support”, “double nondominant home language without community support”, “nonnative parents”, and “mixed languages”.

One person-one language refers to the children whose parents have different mother tongues and one of them is used as the language of the community (Romaine, 1999). Therefore, the children get two languages input and are exposed to more than one language from birth and become bilingual. As Brettermy & de Klerk (2008) they found that one of the Afrikaans-British parents only speak their native language to the children. The father only speaks Afrikaans and the mother only speaks English. They simultaneously introduced the languages to the children since they were toddlers. Therefore, they become bilingual and have strong language awareness.

The second pattern of home language bilingualism is “non-dominant home language or one language, one environment” (Romaine, 1995 in Bialystok, 2003). It refers to the children who have parents with different mother tongues. Then, one of their parents’ languages is the language that is used in the environment (Romaine, 1999). In that condition, to make the children bilingual, the parents can use the parent’s minority language as the

home language. Hence, by speaking the non-dominant language to the children, it will balance the language exposure to the children. They will be exposed to minority language at home, and majority language outside the home. Gagarina & Klassert (2018) stated that the Russian-German bilingual children in German acquired Russian as their first language and followed by German as the dominant language there. The result shows that the different family backgrounds affect lexical and morphological acquisition, both in the first and second languages.

The third pattern is “nondominant home language without community support”. It refers to the children who have the same native language as their parents. However, that language is a minority language in the community. Then, to be able to interact with the community, they learn the dominant language (Romaine, 1999). Akoğlu & Yağmur (2016) reviewed the language development of Turkish-Dutch immigrant children. The result showed that the first language of bilingual Turkish immigrant children is lag behind the monolingual Turkish speakers. Also, mothers’ educational level has become one of the important factors in both cognitive development and language acquisition. Therefore, although the immigrant children found that they left behind the monolingual in terms of cognitive concept, through the dominant input from the environment, they became bilingual.

The fourth pattern is “double non-dominant home language without community support”. It refers to the children who have parents with different native languages, and both of them are the minority language in the community (Romaine, 1999). As a strategy to transfer their languages, the parents can speak their mother tongue to the children at home. Then, the dominant language will be acquired through the interaction with the environment and school (Romaine, 1999). Therefore, by the exposure to two languages starting from birth and additional dominant language from the environment, the children will become bilingual.

The fifth pattern of home language bilingualism is “non-native parents”. It refers to the children who have non-native parents whose both

parents' language is the majority language in the society. The strategy to support bilingualism is the parents use minority language to interact with the children (Romaine, 1999). Fitriani (2019) analyzed the Indonesian acquisition as the first language and the English acquisition as the second language of her participant. The result showed that the spoken language of both languages increased. Then, it also revealed that acquiring two languages simultaneously does not cause misunderstanding for the child. Therefore, introducing additional language besides the dominant language to the children at an early age can support their language development and become bilingual children.

The last pattern of home language bilingualism is "mixed languages". It refers to the children who have mixed native parents, and the community are also bilingual. The code-switching and mixing of languages that are used by the parents and also their environment will support the children in becoming bilingual (Romaine, 1999). As Kremin, Alves, Orena, Polka & Byers-Heilein (2021), the result of their research showed that code-switching that is used by bilingual parents to their infants is to support the success of their children's bilingual language acquisition. Therefore, code-switching and mixing languages become one of the strategies to support children's bilingualism.

Hence, according to these patterns above, the participant in this research belongs to the fifth and sixth patterns. She has non-native English parents. However, she got English input from her parents and also media at home, while the environment around her was speaking non-English. Therefore, she got two different inputs from home language and environment. Then, besides talking in English at home, the parents also often switch to Indonesian. Thus, she can master more than one language and it was influenced by several things, including the role of parents or home language and also environmental factors and the strategies used.

2.3.2. Parental discourse strategies

Parental discourse strategies are the strategies that are used by the parents or family when interacting with bilingual children. Therefore, besides the environmental language, the development of language in bilingual children

also can be supported by using several strategies while communicating with them. As suggested by Lanza (1997) in Lanza (2001) five strategies can be used to develop the language mix of the children to support their bilingualism. Those strategies are minimal grasp strategy, expressed guess strategy, adult repetition, move on strategy and code-switching. Through mixing the language, those strategies can maximize the potential of children's language development from monolingual to bilingual.

Minimal grasp is the strategy when the parents have a minimal understanding of the language used by the children. It is the condition when the adult or parents indicate having no idea what the language said by the children (Lanza, 1997 in Lanza, 2001). Then, this condition will stimulate the child to say the word in a different language which will be understood by the parents. One of the excerpts in Lanza (2001) showed that the children used Italian to talk to her mom who is a native speaker of German. In this case, the mom has no understanding about what has been said by the child, until the child switches language and talks in German. By using a minimal grasp strategy, the parents play the role as monolingual. This condition will stimulate the child to switch the language and it will help them become bilingual.

Expressed guess strategy refers to the condition when children say the word in one language but it couldn't be understood by the parents. Then, the parents will guess their child's utterance and ask for confirmation but in a different language (Lanza, 1997 in Lanza, 2001). According to Juan-Garau & Pérez-Vidal (2001), the father guessed and got clarification about the question asked by her son in a different language. His son said "mes biscuit (*more biscuit*)", he answered "some more biscuits?" and the son clarified his father "si (*yes*)". Hence, by guessing the children's utterance in another language and making the child confirm it, the father gives another language input for the child. Then, by using the guessing strategy, the parents play the role as monolingual and it will stimulate the child to use and understand both languages.

Adult repetition is the strategy when adults repeat the words said by the children but in a different language. It is adults' repetition of the content of the child's utterance, using the other languages (Lanza, 1997 in Lanza, 2001). As Andreu and his mom talk when they look at a picture, Andreu said, "a bucket", and her mother repeated, "un cubell (*a bucket*)" (Juan-Garau & Pérez-Vidal, 2001). This strategy is used to help the children to understand the same words in both languages. Then, the parents play the role as bilingual. Also, to give additional language supply to children they repeat the exact word in another language.

Move on and code-switching strategies look alike, both parents and children play a role as bilingual. Move on strategy refers to the condition when the parent or children answer the conversation in a different language (Lanza, 1997 in Lanza, 2001). For example, when the parent asks for something in English but then the child answers it in Catalan "where's that teddy?", he answers "aquí! (*here!*)" (Juan-Garau & Pérez-Vidal, 2001). On the other hand, code-switching refers to the condition when the parents and children use two languages to talk to and often switch them (Lanza, 1997 in Lanza, 2001). For example, the child always talks with his father in English and talks in Catalan with his mom. Then, when talked with them, he often switched languages (Juan-Garau & Pérez-Vidal, 2001). Hence, by using the move on and code-switching strategies it will stimulate the children to use both languages they have in the communication.

2.3. Factors That Influence Bilingual Language Development

2.4.1. Language exposure

Language exposure is considered as the most influential factor on children's language development. By facilitating children to make contact with a language, they will get more input from that language. Moreover, it will affect the development of the language. Many previous researchers categorized language exposure as one of the important factors in children's language development (Altinkamis & Simon, 2020; Cheung et al., 2018; DeAnda et al., 2016; Dixon et al., 2012; Hoff et al., 2012; Place & Hoff, 2011; Sun et al., 2020).

For example, Dixon, Wu & Daraghmeh (2012) conducted a study with 282 bilingual Singaporean Kindergartners. They come from different language profiles backgrounds such as strong in their ethnic language, strong in English, strong in both languages or weak in both languages. The study revealed that the children who have the most language exposure from many kinds of sources showed the strength in that language. Although some children who are exposed to both languages at home seem to have low proficiency in both languages, the rest of the bilingual children showed that they have high language proficiency in both languages.

Moreover, Place & Hoff (2011) researched the relation of grammatical complexity and vocabulary size with children's language exposure. The result showed that the interaction between children and language exposures significantly affects their second language proficiency. Similarly, Altinkamis & Simon, (2020) studied the effect of language exposure and family background of bilingual children (Turkish-Dutch). The data has been collected through CELF-text in Dutch and TEDiL in Turkish. The result showed that the amount of exposure to the languages affected the test score. Hence, the more exposure to a language, the higher the acquisition of vocabulary, grammatical rules and will also have high language proficiency.

2.4.2. Environmental factor

The environment is also viewed as an influential factor on children's language development. Through the environment, children will get experience related to language. They can get input such as vocabulary, grammatical rules and pronunciations by interacting with the environment, either with family, neighbours, or the speech community. We can understand how children experience bilingualism by looking at their environment because the environment depicts how language is used (Anderson et al., 2020; Hoff, 2018; Paradis et al., 2020). In their research, Anderson and friends analyzed the environmental factors which focused more on children's experiences, socio-economic status and parents' education. The language experiences of children are around the language spoken by parents, grandparents, siblings, relatives,

language used for watching TV, social media, listening to music and reading. Moreover, the result of their research showed there are three factors around 74% that influenced children's language experience such as adult language at home, language use for media and language use by siblings.

Additionally, the language that is used in home environments has an important role in providing the input of the target language which will be influenced on children's bilingual development (Paradis et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2020). Then, the richness of environmental language such as adult interaction, the input of social, audiovisual and printed media will promote the acquisition of vocabulary, morphology, syntax and narrative skills (Paradis et al., 2020; Sorenson Duncan & Paradis, 2020). Hence, the quality of environmental input, especially the target language input must be maintained because it has a great contribution to children's language development.

2.4.3. Socioeconomic Status (SES)

SES refers to the financial condition, educational level, and social positioning of someone (Mueller & Parcel, 1981 in Pace, Luo, Hirsh-Pasek & Golinkoff, 2017). Parental education especially maternal education and income or annual salary is part of measurement (Pace et al., 2017). Through the amount of annual salary, the families are classified into 2 classes, below the federal poverty threshold or above it. It defects to the needs of the family (Pace et al., 2017). Moreover, Letourneau, Duffett-Leger, Levac, Young-Morris (2013) found that SES affects "literacy and language, aggression, and internalizing behaviours including depression". The high-income family can fulfil their needs better and can provide higher education for their children. In contrast, low-income families face limited educational resources and opportunities (Pace et al., 2017). Hence, due to the difference in the educational opportunities, language exposure and language experience of both parents and children, the language development will also be different.

Additionally, maternal education is also one of the influential factors on children' language development. It has great contributions especially for bilingual children (Dixon et al., 2012; Hoff, 2018; Place & Hoff, 2011; Sorenson

Duncan & Paradis, 2020; Sun et al., 2020). It contributed especially to using the language in which the mother was educated (Hoff, 2018). Moreover, related to language exposure, maternal education has become one of the measurements of children's vocabulary acquisition (DeAnda et al., 2016). They spend much time with their mother during infancy. Hence, the language learned by the mother will be the language input for the children.

Moreover, Pace et al., (2017) stated that there are some factors influence on language development related to socioeconomic status such as child characteristic, parent-child interaction and availability of learning resources, as follow:

- 1) Child characteristics including mental and physical health, social-emotional skills, learning approach, and executive functioning skills are important for their language development.
- 2) Parent-child interaction, the interaction among children, parents and caregivers are influenced by children's language input. As a result, they experience variations in language development. Then, the difference between low and high socioeconomic status is on language input quality on children. The low families who face the stress and live in unsafe or less educated people will affect the utterance or direct speech of children and might lead to "more negative, punitive, and authoritarian parenting style" compared to the high socioeconomic status.
- 3) The availability of learning resources among low, middle and high socioeconomic status are different. Compared to the middle and high status, the low status got limited access to the learning material and even language exposure and language experience from the family and large community. Learning material, especially literacy, will support the development of children's language. Hence, due to the different capabilities to access the learning resources, the language development between low and high SES is also different.

2.4.4. Individual differences

Person characteristics differ from each other. These differences make the ability to master a language also different. This statement was supported by Saville-Troike (2012) and Lightbown & Spada (2013). They stated that individual differences are able to explain why someone has a different outcome in mastering a language than the others. Moreover, they stated that there are several points that influence the bilingual acquisition process such as intelligence, aptitude, style, strategies, personality, motivation and attitudes, and beliefs.

- 1) Intelligence, the term intelligent usually refers to the ability to get and use some knowledge and skill and often refers to the high score test. IQ scores could predict the success in acquiring a language especially for metalinguistic knowledge (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Chowdhury (2010) tested the intelligence of 20 tertiary level students and he found that the intelligence level affects their second language acquisition in grammatical structure and communicative competence.
- 2) Aptitude, it can be considered as the ability to do something. Someone with a high aptitude probably learns the language easier and faster than the others (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). It can be tested through several components such as phonemic coding, inductive language learning, grammatical sensitivity and associative memory capacity (Carrol, 1965 in Saville-Troike, 2012). Saito, Suzukida & Sun (2019) researched about the influence of aptitude on second language pronunciation development. They found that speech comprehensibility, associative memory, and phonemic coding was enhanced. Moreover, along with the time in the second semester the participant reached an advanced level of L2 comprehensibility.
- 3) Styles and strategies, it refers to the preferred ways and procedure of someone in getting, processing and retaining new skill and information of language and use it (Reid, 1995 in Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Malley et al., 2006). Willing (1994) in Wong & Nunan (2011) stated that there

are four major styles derived from learners' preferred strategies. First, is communication, which they need interaction, discussion, and learning by watching and listening to English. The second is analytical, where they prefer to learn independently by studying English books and newspapers, finding and solving problems on their own. Third, authority-oriented where learners need clear instructions on what to do and they are more reliable by adults. Then, they prefer to have the adult explain everything, learning by reading and learning new words by seeing them. The last is a concrete style in which learners acquired the language spontaneously through their curiosity such as through games, film, videos, talking in pairs and practising English in everyday life. Additionally, Zafar (2012) believes that social and affective strategies also influence learners to succeed in acquiring the language. The strategies are questioning such as asking for explanation and verification. Then, cooperation such as working together with peers and self-talk to reduce the anxiety and improve their confidence in doing the task.

- 4) Personality, the different personality of each person makes the way they acquire and use the language also differ. Kinds of personalities such as extrovert and introvert, self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking, and level of anxiety of someone could affect the level of success in acquiring a language (Zafar, 2012). Reyes (2018) analyzed personality factors in learning English as a foreign language of primary school students and found that learners' personalities correlated with their language learning success. For example, students with high levels of empathy have high correspondence in language learning.
- 5) Attitudes and motivation, motivation is the reason for someone's activities or behaviours (Guay F, Chanal, J., Ratelle, C. F., Marsh, H. W., Larose, S., & Boivin, M, 2010; Narayanan, 2006). Generally speaking, motivation is a desire that arises from a person to act or to achieve something. According to Harmer (2001), there are three types

of motivations consisting of amotivation, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Amotivation refers to the condition when the learners have the lowest level of motivation in doing any given task. Meanwhile, intrinsic motivation refers to the motivation that arises from the human itself, it is the feeling that wants to be satisfied. In other words, people will do something they are naturally interested in (Legault, 2016). On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to the condition of someone who is motivated by external factors. They do something in order to fulfil the task and achieve the goal (Legault, 2016). Additionally, individual attitude also affects the success in mastering a language. someone's attitude affects how she/he develops his/her linguistic abilities (Montero et al, 2014 in Reyes, 2018). Riyanto, Setiadi & Kadaryanto (2015) researched the correlation between students' attitudes in language learning. The result showed that learners' attitude mostly affects students' vocabulary understanding.

- 6) Beliefs., Individual beliefs about how their preferred way of guiding them in mastering the language suits them. This belief has its own role in language learning success. When someone thinks that the guidance or instruction given to them in mastering a language is suitable for them, it will support the acquisition and learning process. Moreover, this belief is usually based on their learning experience and behaviour (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

2.4. Study of Relevant Research

Children's language development is always interesting to be studied because each child might have their uniqueness in experiencing their language development. Recently, a lot of researchers have been investigating this topic. Barac & Bialystok (2012) researched the role of language, cultural background and education on linguistic and cognitive development of bilingual children. The result revealed that, on the executive control task and language task, all bilingual children performed similarly and exceeded the monolingual children. Moreover, the present

study will contribute to investigating factors that support language development of bilingual children.

Additionally, in Indonesian context Fitriani (2019) analyzed the child's spoken utterances in Indonesian and English and the affecting factors to the acquisition. She found that the spoken utterances in both languages increased and the child could understand and follow the instruction. Then, she found some factors affecting the language acquisition such as linguistic input, imitation, environment, exposure, and language acquisition device. This study indicated that two languages can be taught at the same time at early stages without making the children confused. In conclusion, Fitriani suggested that individual differences also need to be analysed. Therefore, in the present study the researcher will analyse the strategy used by a bilingual child

Next, Altinkamis & Simon (2020) researched about the effect of language exposure and family background on children's language abilities. Then, the result showed that home context including parents' linguistic background, mother's educational level, and language exposure were affecting the score of their standardized proficiency test. Next, Duncan & Paradis (2020) examined the relationship between maternal education and linguistic input in bilingual children. The result revealed that L2 language exposure, maternal L2 fluency, mothers' language input and children's output affected children's first and second language development. Moreover, the education level of the mother was associated with the language input. Hence, the higher level of education has higher L2 fluency. Then, Farabolini, Rinaldi, Caselli & Cristia (2021) assessed the language development in bilingual children who have different native languages. The result showed that there is correlation among non-word repetition performance and receptive vocabulary, cumulative exposure, age of first exposure, maternal education and parental concern. Hence, the present research will explore the factors and strategies that support language development of bilingual children.

The previous studies on children language development were focused on the affecting factors such as language exposure, language input, maternal education, family background of average children (Altinkamis & Simon, 2020; Barac &

Bialystok, 2012; Farabolini et al., 2021; Fitriani, 2019; Sorenson Duncan & Paradis, 2020). Due to the limited study reported about factors and strategy of language development of bilingual children with special condition, Therefore, the present study focuses on describing the bilingualism of an Indonesian child who experience a special condition, includes the factors and strategies that support her bilingualism as a complementation of the existing study on children bilingualism.