ABSTRACT

For the last two decades the establishment of bilingualism taking English language as one of the target languages has become the main concern of expanding English speaking countries including Indonesia on the grounds that English serves as the global language which is widely used as a means of communication practices both spoken and written in various fields such as technology, education, business, economy, tourism, social affairs, and the like. This statement is supported by Bialystock et al. (2009:89) who state that ‘it is increasingly apparent that the establishment of bilingualism is the rule and not the exception’. The establishment of bilingualism is not only due to the cultural and linguistic diversity within the countries, but also the growing number of the global mobility of the people to be bilinguals at all levels of society to adjust the global context. Crystal (1997) documents that the establishment of bilingualism which includes English and another language reaches 235 million people worldwide and that the two thirds of the children grow up in the environment of multilingualism. This suggests that English becomes the main menu of the establishment of being bilinguals across countries.

The establishment of bilingualism including English as one of the targeted languages is rationalized by the nature of English which serves as a leading language which is dominantly used as a device to document and communicate the development of the issues of information and technology, business, tourism, and education in particular, which drive people in the world to be keen in mastering English in order that they could be actively involved in the global context competition. This triggers every country in the world including Indonesia to be seriously concerned about the establishment of the bilingualism for its citizens in order that Indonesian people are able to cope with global communication distractions due to their insufficient English language proficiency which directly or indirectly retards the attainment of the development of the issues of information and technology, business, tourism, and education which grow very rapidly.

The establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals also relies on the theory that it confers some convincing benefits for bilinguals to deal with the development of the academic skills and concepts in both languages (Cummins, 1993,
2000, 2009). This means that the English-Indonesian bilinguals are believed to perform better academic skills than monolinguals on the grounds they have been familiar with the systemic and schematic knowledge of the two languages which are used to cope with any tasks that they encounter in the academic contexts (Margana, 2013). Cummins (1993, 2000, 2009) further claims that a high level of threshold in both languages is essential for the success for attaining the maximal threshold level of language competency. In support of this, Lambert in Sampath (2005) strongly urges that there is a positive contribution of bilingualism to additive context in which second language or target language is socially related and is acquired by supplementing the first language not replacing it. Bankstone and Zhou as quoted in Mouw and Xie (2011) state that establishing the bilingualism facilitates bilinguals to get a better access to the intercultural capitals of the social planes of the speakers of both languages. This suggests that the bilingualism directly or indirectly influences the academic attainment and social mobility.

In reference to the above issue, establishing English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia is of great importance for generating qualified and competitive Indonesian citizens who are superior in terms of handling the global communication practices, having intercultural awareness, and holding global perspectives as the properties to engage in the global context. Also, being English-Indonesian bilinguals is believed to strongly mind the link of symbols, concepts, and referents across languages on the grounds that the concepts and the realization of the mental lexicons of the two languages are assumed to be stored in separated folders of mind on the part of the bilinguals (Weinreich in de Bot et al., 2005:43) so that they could succeed in the meaning making of English texts and in the English language attainment (Margana, 2013). In shorts, the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia is an urgent issue which contributes to dragging Indonesia to be one of the prominent countries.

In response to the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals, the Indonesian government via the Ministry of Education and Culture has made some policies and utilized a great number of efforts to successfully raise English-Indonesian bilinguals through the inclusion of English as one of the compulsory subjects which is taught starting from junior high school to university. Even, in some elementary schools, English becomes a local content to be included as one of the optional subjects. Besides, there is also an awareness of some related parties such as societies, families, and the like to actively contribute the success for the establishment of the English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia. With regard to it, this paper attempts to explore the theoretical framework of the establishment of the English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia which is then supported by some practices of how to raise the English-Indonesian bilinguals. In other words, this paper specifies on promoting theoretical justifications of the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals and conferring some practices of its establishment obtained from formal and non-formal contexts.

B. THE NOTION OF BILINGUALISM

The term *bilingualism* has been hotly debated by a great number of scholars (Bloomfield, 1935; Braun, 1937; Haugen, 1968; Oestricher, 1974; Baca, 1990; Romaine, 1995; Karnokov, 1997; Harmers and Blanc, 2000; Goesjean, 1989, 1998, 2001; Bialystok, 2001, 2007; May et al., 2004; Goh and Silver, 2007; Margana, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2015). Each has his/her own argument in defining the term bilingualism which somehow leads to be controversial in nature because the scholars have different perspectives in defining it. For example, in a very narrow sense the term bilingualism is defined by Bloomfield (1935) also cited in Margana (2015) who states that bilingualism is ‘a native-like control’ of two or more languages. In support of it, Oestreich (1974) urges that bilingualism is a complete mastery of two different languages without any intrusion between the two linguistic processes. A quite similar definition is also proposed by Braun (1937) also cited in Margana (2015), who asserts that bilingualism is defined as a ‘speaker’s totally equal mastery of two or more languages’. Those definitions are in line with Haugen (1968) also cited in Margana (2015), who states that bilingualism refers to a speaker’s native competence to utilize more than one language.

The above definitions are questioned by other scholars who claim that it is impossible to find a bilingual who meets the requirement of having a ‘speaker’s totally equal mastery of two or more languages’ (Valdes and Figueroa, 1994; Romaine, 1995; Karnokov, 1997; Harmers and Blanc, 2000; Goesjean, 2001; May et al., 2004; Goh and Silver, 2007; Margana, 2012, 2013, 2015). When the criteria of being a native-like control of two or more languages is accepted, it seems that there is only a few number of people who are
categorized as bilinguals on the grounds that knowledge of the languages performed by bilinguals is often stronger in one of them (Karosas in Margana 2015). In addition, the indicator used to label bilinguals is not clear enough. May et al. (2004) state that to limit and assess the language proficiency of bilinguals is difficult to do since bilinguals generally tend to have a strong language, which is more prevailing than the other language depending on the contexts of situation. In line with it, Baca (1990) strongly urges that the level of the proficiency of the activated languages that bilinguals perform absolutely vary in nature. According to Karnokov (1997), the indicator of having totally complete or a hundred percent mastery of the activated languages is unrealistic. Further, he says that bilingualism constitutes two degrees of language proficiency which includes developing and advanced levels of proficiency as a bilingual tends to have a matrix language according to circumstances such as the status of the language, the regular use of the language, etc. To support the claims, Grosjean (1989:3) states that ‘the bilingual is not two monolinguals in one person’. In other words, bilinguals rarely employ their two or more languages equally in every arena of their social planes. The employment of a language is noticeably initiated by the contexts of communication. This shows that knowledge of bilinguals of each of the languages used in communication practices is not equal in nature.

With regard to the above argument, the definition of bilingualism which accommodates the developing bilinguals is asserted by some scholars one of whom is Weinreich (1968:5) also quoted by Margana (2012). According to him, the notion of bilingualism refers to ‘the practice of alternatingly using two languages’. Such a definition can be used to cope with either minimum or maximum proficiency levels of a bilingual as he/she performs the higher language proficiency than the other language. This definition is believed to accommodate a developing bilingual who performs a limited proficiency in a language by doing a language alternation from a matrix language (dominant language) to an embedded language (non-dominant language) or vice versa depending on the context of communication. However, the definition seems to be too loose as it can be used to refer to a bilingual who only knows 10 lexical items which can be alternated in communication practices. May et al. (2004:11) add that definition asserted by Weinreich (1968) does not constrain a certain level of ‘a minimal or reasonable level of bilingual’s proficiency’. In other words, the definition is too broad on the grounds that it can refer to any bilingual who can generate a meaningful utterance in more than one language or a bilingual who only memorizes a small number of words or phrases in a target language without understanding the expressions.

A more moderate definition is proposed by Oskar (1970, 1992), urging that bilingualism refers to freely employing two languages as a device of communication and doing codeswitching practices from one language to another language when it is necessary. In line with it, Baetens-Beardsmore (1987) also quoted by Margana (2012) proposes a practical definition for bilingualism. It is defined as the use of two or more languages that may or may not be equal. In the same spirit, Hornby (1977) also quoted in Margana (2012) states that bilingualism refers to various levels of a language proficiency, which can accommodate for minimal competence to complete fluency in more than one language. The term minimal competence implies that a bilingual may activate at least one of the macro-language skills such as speaking, listening, reading, and writing (Macnamara, 1967, 1969). Added to this, a bilingual may have knowledge of language such as phonemes/graphemes, vocabulary, syntax, and semantics.

With regard to the definitions above, this article adopts the definition asserted by Baetens-Beardsmore (1987) also quoted by Margana (2012) which states that bilingualism refers to the use of two or more languages in a series of communicative events (spoken and written form) which may or may not be equal on the grounds that a bilingual may perform better in one language compared to another language. This definition serves as a framework of the exploration of the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals as it is theoretically appropriate to refer the second language learners who are being established to be competent English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia.

C. TYPES OF BILINGUALISM

In terms of the types, many scholars classify the types of bilingualism differently as each scholar utilizes different perspectives leading to different categories of bilingualism. For example, Weinreich in Romaine (1995:78-79) distinguishes bilingualism into three types, namely compound bilingualism (Type A) coordinate bilingualism (Type B), and sub-coordinate bilingualism (Type C). The distinction of those types relies on how bilinguals learn language.
Type A (compound bilingualism) is defined as a person who learns the two languages in the same context and activates them concurrently leading to a fused representation of the languages in his brain. This type is featured by one unit of concept with two units of sound images (one for each language). Such bilingual speakers conceptualize one embedded set of meanings from the two languages, but have the capability of expressing themselves with the sound images (words) from both languages. 

Type B (coordinate bilingualism) refers to a person who learns languages in different environments which lead him/her to the lexical items of the two languages in different ways with each word holding its own specific meaning. In other words, the bilingual develops and maintains the different conceptual systems of the two languages which have been learned. It is featured by separate signs (images of sounds and units of meanings) for each language. Type B bilingual speakers have two sets of units of concepts in their mind and two sets of corresponding sound images or words (one for each language). 

Type C (sub-ordinate bilingualism) is concerned with the mastery of their first language to establish the meanings of the lexical items of the target language. It is featured by the unit of the concept of the first language which corresponds with the sound image in the first language and it has an equivalent unit of an expression in the target language. The subordinate bilingual comprises only one set of units of concept in their meaning and two sets of sound images as it happens in the compound bilingual (Paradis, 1997, 2010). 

In reference to the three types of bilingualism, Ervin and Osgood in Romaine (1995: 79-80) propose two types of bilingualism, namely a compound and coordinate bilingualism as the sub-coordinate and coordinate bilingualism can be blended into one (coordinate bilingualism). This relies on the theory that a lexical item of the target language is typically associated with a meaning in her/his first language, resulting in the link between the first language and target language. In support of this, Hamers and Blanc (2000, 27-28) also categorize bilingualism into two, namely compound and coordinate bilingualism. This distinction is based on how language and thought are organized in the brain of bilinguals (see Goh and Silver, 2007: 52). The following presents a model of lexico-semantics of English-Indonesian bilinguals as the analogy of the theory proposed by Hamers and Blanc (2000) and Ervin and Osgood in Goh and Silver (2007:52) to clearly distinguish between compound and coordinate bilingualism. 

Figure 1. Compound and Coordinate Bilingual Systems

The distinction of the types of bilingualism is also asserted by Lambert and Cummins in Mouw and Xie (2011). He divides bilingualism into two types, namely additive and subtractive. This division is based on the context of how the two languages are acquired. The first type refers to learning the target language within the social context that accommodates second language learners to maintain the first language. This suggests that both languages are activated in the process of the establishment of the bilingualism. On the
other hand, subtractive bilingualism is defined as the way of learning the target language by substituting the first language. In this context, the target language is exclusively used in any communication practices to form advance bilinguals. Baker (2006) claims that the first type is good for constructing positive self-concept establishing greater cognitive flexibility, and holding better abstract thinking skills because the bilinguals are engaged in two codes. On the other hand, the second type of bilingualism may cause loss of assimilation across culture and local culture awareness which is likely potential to decrease the pride of their first language.

The categorization of bilingualism is also proposed by McLaughlin (1984) also quoted in Lidicoat (1992). He states that bilingualism can be divided into two types, namely simultaneous and successive bilingualism. The former is defined as a person who learns two or more languages in simultaneous time under three years old in which she/he has two languages in a simultaneous way. Therefore, both languages serve as her/his first languages although she/he performs better in one language compared to the other language. For example, a two-year old Indonesian speaking child moves to Australia and begins to acquire English. This is called a simultaneous bilingual on the grounds that her/his first language has not been established yet when she/he learns the other language (English). The second type (successive bilingualism) refers to a person who acquires the second language after three years old as she/he learns the second language after she/he has already acquired an established first language. For example, a five-year old Indonesian speaking child who moves to Australia as one of the dependent family members and begins to learn English is called a successive bilingual. Also, students from elementary school to higher school levels learn English in Indonesian as a compulsory subject are also called successive bilinguals on the grounds that they acquire English after they acquire the established first language (Indonesian).

Different from the categorizations as proposed by the above scholars, Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) identifies the bilingualism into two types, namely elite and folk bilinguals. An elite bilingual is defined as a person who learns and acquires the second language through formal education or conscious learning. For example, students of elementary school, secondary school, and tertiary school levels who learn English as one of the compulsory subjects are called elite bilinguals. This type of bilingualism is believed to be associated with a form of cultural enrichment, learning mark, and intelligence representation. On the other hand, a folk bilingual is a person who learns and acquires the second language through a direct contact with the native speakers. In other words, they learn the other language subconsciously. For example, a graduate of an elementary school level who never learns and acquires English before makes a very often contact with tourists from English speaking countries and uses simple English as a means of a communication with them can be called a folk bilingual. In some communities, a folk bilingualism is associated with linguistic minority groups who are enforced to learn a dominant language otherwise they could not survive because of having insufficient language proficiency of the dominant language.

With regard to the above explanation, it is clear that bilingualism is divided into some types depending on the perspectives in defining it. Such categorizations are important to know in order to minimize a misconception which leads to the confusion in categorizing the types of bilingualism. For the sake of this article, those types of bilingualism are not specifically implemented as the basis of establishing English-Indonesian bilinguals, but at least the definitions above can be used to provide a theoretical judgment of the categorization of English-Indonesian bilinguals. For example, the last categorization could be used to provide a theoretical framework of the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals which is conducted through formal learning and non-formal learning accommodation as explored in section E.

D. ADVANTAGES OF BEING BILINGUALS

The issue of whether bilingualism is advantageous or disadvantageous becomes a hot debate among scholars. Some of them claim that the establishment of bilingualism is disadvantageous as it may distract bilinguals to maximally attain a system of lexical items and of grammar of both languages (Ben-Zeev, 1977; Jespersen in Romaine, 1995:107; Fromkin et al. (2007:344) strongly urge that a person who learns more than one language seems to have smaller lexical items in each of the languages than does a monolingual in the same age. In support of this statement, Ben-Zeev (1977) claims that a bilingual child tends to fail to construct a correct grammatical structure for each of the languages and this may cause a bilingual to face worrisome than it necessary warrants.
The above statement is supported by Jespersen as quoted by Romaine (1995:107) who asserts the following remark.

It is, of course, an advantage for a child to be familiar with two languages but without doubt that disadvantage may be, and generally is, purchased two dear. First of all the child in question hardly learns either of the two languages as perfectly as he would have done if he had limited himself to one. It may seem on the surface, as if he talked just like a native, but he does not really command the fine points of the language.... Secondly, the brain effort required to master the two languages instead of one certainly diminishes the child’s power of learning other things which might and ought to be learnt.

The above remarks clearly inform that a monolingual performs the lexical item attainment better than a bilingual as the monolingual only focuses on one language in order that he/she could gain a perfect language without any interference from another language. Holding more than one language is believed to potentially distract each other when both are activated as a means of communication practices. For this reason, it is not necessary to generate English-Indonesian bilinguals on the grounds that being bilinguals is believed to get a language distraction and retards the development of their first language which has not established yet. Therefore, the effort of establishing bilingualism should be minimized or banned.

Such statements, however, are argued by a great number of scholars. For example, Peal and Lambert in Saunders (1988: 16) state that being bilinguals could result in ‘the maximally intellectual functioning’ so that they are able to perform better in managing the verbal tests. They also conclude that bilinguals, instead of facing from a mental distraction or language barriers, could perform the strong capability to manage language employment in some communication practices (Margana, 2013). Further, Peal and Lambert in Saunders (1988: 16) generate the following conclusion with regard to the result of their research as presented below.

Intellectually the experience with two language systems seems to have left him with a mental flexibility in concept formation, and a more diversified set of mental abilities, in the sense that the patterns of abilities developed by bilinguals were more heterogeneous. It is not possible to state from the present study whether the more intelligent child became bilingual or whether bilingualism aided his intellectual development, but there is no question about the fact that he is superior intellectually. In contrast, the monolingual appears to have a more unitary structure of intelligence which he must use for all types of intellectual tasks (Peal and Lambert in Saunders, 1988: 16).

In reference to the above statement, it is clear that being bilinguals including English-Indonesian bilinguals is advantageous in nature as it could establish the heterogeneous mental lexicon on the part of the bilinguals’ mind which is of great importance in deconstructing and constructing the language units used in the different contexts. Martin-Rhee and Bialystok (2008) convince that a bilingual performs better in executing the language control system than does a monolingual on the grounds that a bilingual does not develop a separate and overlapping control system but a single control system which enables a bilingual to alternate from one language to another language depending on the tasks that she/he encounters. Saunders (1988:17) states that being bilinguals shows a positive effect on the intelligence and confers the cognitive advantages on the part of the bilinguals compared to the monolinguals. Further, she promotes some advantages of being bilinguals in reference to the cognitive advantages which include (1) displaying earlier and greater awareness of the arbitrariness of language, (2) having earlier separation of meaning from sound, (3) showing greater adeptness at evaluating non-empirical contradictory statements, (4) performing greater adeptness at divergent thinking, (5) depicting greater adeptness at creative thinking, (6) having greater social sensitivity, and (7) performing greater facility at concept formation.

In reference to the above arguments, it is evident that raising English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia is urgently needed on the grounds that it drives the bilinguals to acquire the two languages which confer a bundle of benefits as explored in the previous section.

### E. RAISING ENGLISH-INDONESIAN BILINGUALS IN INDONESIA

In Indonesia there are two modes of establishing English-Indonesian bilinguals. They are conducted through conscious learning (formal and non-formal education) and subconscious learning (autonomous learning). The former is
also called a nurture-oriented establishment while the latter is labeled as a nature-oriented establishment. The nurture-oriented establishment is conducted through teaching practices embodying formal and non-formal teaching practices. On the other hand, nature-oriented establishment is conducted by responding to use of English-Indonesian in some contexts of genres such as advertisement, manuals, songs, leaflets, brochures, and the like. In this mode a bilingual attempts to subconsciously learn English from any discourse that she/he finds in the social planes of life. The following clearly describes the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals via nurture-oriented and nature-oriented modes.

Realizing the fact that bilingualism confers a great number of advantages as explored above, the Indonesian government via the Ministry of National Education and Culture made some efforts to raise English-Indonesian bilinguals. One of the efforts is that English is mandated as one of the compulsory subjects to be taught starting from junior high school level to university one. This inclusion of English as the compulsory subject relies on the fact that English serves as the device of the global communication which demands all citizens to be proficient in making use of English as a means of communication practices both spoken and written. This is also aimed at facilitating them to access any resources which utilize English as a means of communications.

In reference to the curriculum, students of junior high schools in Indonesia have to take English as the compulsory subject. They learn macro- and micro-language skills of English for 5 hours (5 x 45 minutes) a week. A great number of headmasters of junior high schools offer extracurricular of English aimed at improving students’ English proficiency. In senior high school level, students have to study English for 4 hours a week. A great number of headmasters of senior high schools also offer extracurricular of English to improve their students. In university level, English also serves as the compulsory subject to be taken. The inclusion of English as the compulsory subjects in this level is rationalized by the fact that a great number of textbooks and references of the lectures are written in English. For this reason, students of university level are a must to take English according the weight of the credit. That is why the number of credits in each university varies depending on the policy of the university concerned. Nationally, in the university level, students should take 2 credits for studying English. Many universities in Indonesia demand high English proficiency as realized in the score of TOEFL (Test of English as Foreign Language) or its equivalence at least 450 score depending on the policy of the university. This triggers students to study English.

In the elementary school level, English serves as one of the local contents to be optionally taught. In relation to this, a great number of elementary schools in Indonesia located in urban areas include English as one of the subjects that should be learned from grade 4. Even other elementary schools offer English as a local content subject starting from grade 1. In the level of pre-school, English is also taught. The inclusion of English in pre-schools is aimed at motivating students to learn English. It is also intended to early introduce some vocabulary items of English so that they will be familiar with the sounds of English and vocabulary items as presented in songs, games, charts, stories, and others. This evidence drives students to be English-Indonesian bilinguals.

Besides there are a great number of parties which include families, private institutions, mass media providers, and the like are engaged in establishing English-Indonesian bilinguals. They employ some practices of how to establish the contexts of English-Indonesian bilingualism with promoting the use of those two languages in some communication practices in some various contexts. For example, a great number of family members encourage their children to well attain English by sending them in private English courses in order that they are superior in handling the English tasks. This directly or indirectly contributes to establishing the bilingualism on the part of their children. In response to this, private institutions improve their services to accommodate the wants of the parents by providing a great number of English course programs such as English for Children, English Speaking Course, English for Academic Purposes, English for Specific Purposes, and the like. Those programs accelerate the establishment of the English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia.

Mass media providers serve an important role in establishing English-Indonesian bilinguals as they utilize two languages as a means of presenting information in some sections of mass media both electronic and non-electronic forms which directly or indirectly contribute to the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals. For example, in some sections of newspapers, job vacancies (not all advertisements), in particular English is employed to inform readers about the job vacancy. More specifically,
Advertent providers, intentionally or un-intentionally, also play an important role in establishing English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia as they utilize two languages in advertising a great number of products performed in every corner of the streets. They use two languages one of which is English to qualify the message of the advertisements both spoken and written forms so that the target readers as the potential customers are interested in the advertised products. Use of two languages, namely English-Indonesian in a great number of the advertisements directly or indirectly accelerates the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia.

In line with the development of the information and technology, English is dominantly used to widely inform the products of technology devices which develop rapidly. It can be seen in manuals of the gadgets and the other technological products which employ English as a means of communication practices. This also contributes the establishment of English-Indonesian bilingualism as the audience or buyers should understand how to operate the devices. For example, in the mobile phones or gadgets, a great number of the application programs are written in English. This drives the customers to learn and to English otherwise they could not make use of the devices maximally.

F. CONCLUSION

In reference to the above discussion, it is evident that establishing English-Indonesian bilinguals in Indonesia is of great importance on the grounds that it could facilitate Indonesian citizens to gain powerful mind to cope with any problems that they may encounter in the meaning making of any social planes that exist in global contexts. This implies that the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals have to be taken into account by some related parties on the grounds that it is justified by convincing theories which strongly urge that the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals confer a great number of advantages in terms of the development of language attainment, cognitive development, intercultural awareness, concept mediation across language, and others. The establishment could be conducted via nurture-oriented and nature-oriented establishment. Of the two types of modes of the bilingualism establishment, the nurture-oriented seems to be widely conducted in Indonesia. To sum up, the establishment of English-Indonesian bilinguals is urgent to be conducted in Indonesia.

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