

**A STUDY OF SPEECH DISFLUENCY  
MADE BY INDONESIAN KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN  
IN DESCRIBING PICTURE**

**A THESIS**

**Submitted as Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements  
For the Sarjana Degree of English Department Faculty of Letters  
Airlangga University Surabaya**

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**2006**


## DECLARATION

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university. And to the best of this candidate's knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Signed



Laura Carolina



*I dedicate this thesis to  
Lord Jesus Christ, my Savior  
and to my family*

**“So do not fear, for I am with you ; do not be dismayed, for I  
am your God. I will strengthen you and help you ; I will uphold  
you with My righteous right hand.” (Isaiah 41:10)**

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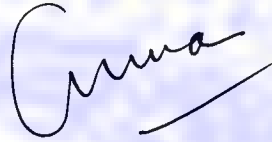
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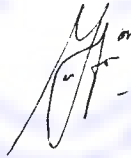
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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Praise The Lord! I give all glory and praises to my Savior, Lord Jesus Christ, who has given me ability and strength to accomplish this thesis. I thank God for making it possible for me to complete this thesis on this semester. I also want to thank Him for blessing me with so much I don't deserve. He is everything and forever in my life. To know Him closer is the greatest miracle I've ever had.

I would like to express my great gratitude to Mrs. Masitha, A.S.,S.S.,M.Hum., as my thesis advisor, for her patience, support and advice during writing this thesis, and for guiding me in conducting this study even since I was still in the 7<sup>th</sup> semester. I also thank her so much for lending her books to me, and giving her time for the consultation.

A very appreciation and thank would be to my beloved father and mother for always being beside me, giving me love, and praying for me everyday. Especially, I thank my mother for helping me in getting the participants of this study. My thank also goes to my sister, Silvy, and my brother, Steven, for always supporting me. I couldn't ask for a more loving family!

My special thank goes to everyone in CS Comm for being such blessings for me. Especially, my thank goes to Kak Simeon and Kak Zef for praying for my study every morning. Their obedience and faithfulness to God have blessed my life. My thank also goes to Sandri, my fighting partner in CS Comm, for always including my name in her pray. Keep fighting!

I would like to thank all participants' mothers for supporting this thesis, and for recording the data for me. I also thank Ko Pa for lending the Cool Edit Software to me. It helps me so much.

Last but not least, I thank all my friends in English Department of Airlangga University. Thanks to Kenia, Nova, Feni, Endah, Didin, and Mayang for their friendship and togetherness. Especially I thank Entik and Binti for encouraging and motivating me to finish this thesis on this semester. My big thank goes to Puspita. I learn many things from her. I pray that she will always be successful in her life ☺

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## ABSTRACT

**Carolina, Laura.** A Study of Speech Disfluency Made By Indonesian Kindergarten Children in Describing Picture. A thesis submitted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the sarjana degree of the English Department, Faculty of Letters Airlangga University, 2006.

This study aimed at analyzing speech disfluency occurred in Indonesian kindergarten children's speech. In this study, the writer took the data from three kindergarten children aged four, five, and six years old. Then, the writer analyzed the findings with the theory of speech disfluency proposed by Clark and Clark(1977).

Based on the data analysis, the writer found that all participants displayed all types of speech disfluency, those were unfilled pause, filled pause, false start, and repetition. The most frequent type of speech disfluency found in kindergartners' speech was unfilled pause. Furthermore, each type of speech disfluency had its characteristics. Unfilled pause and filled pause tended to precede content word rather than function word. While, the repeated words in repetition were mostly also content word. In the case of false start, the false words usually contained the syllable of words that would be uttered again by the participants.

**Keywords:** speech disfluency, unfilled pause, filled pause, false start, and repetition.

## CHAPTER I

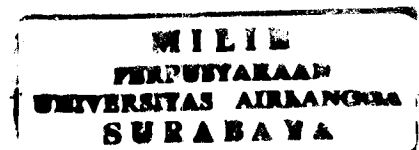
### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background of the Study

Language is a very important tool in communication. Through language we can deliver message, express what we have in mind, give information, etc. Knowing a language means having ability to speak and be understood by others who know that language (Fromkin and Rodman, 1988). It means we have capacity to produce sounds that signify certain meanings and to understand the sound produced by others.

Generally, a person speaks because he wishes to convey a message or thought he has. The process by which a speaker turns a mental concept into a spoken utterance is called speech production (Berko-Gleason and Ratner, 1998). This process starts in the speaker's brain where impulses along the motor nerves are sent to the muscles of the vocal organs. Then, the vocal organs, which include the tongue, the lips, and the vocal cords, produce speech sound waves .

In the process of speech production the speaker has to arrange his thoughts, decide what he wants to say, and put it into linguistic form by selecting right words or phrases to express its meaning and by placing these words in the correct order required by the grammatical rules of the language. Therefore, a speaker should have linguistic knowledge about the



language he uses. It means every speaker of any languages should know the rule of the language, such as how to make a good sentence and so on.

However, evidently there is a difference between having the knowledge to produce sentences of a language and applying this knowledge. Obviously, the speakers usually produce different thing from what has been planned in mind. When the thought is going to be put into words or sentences, it sometimes can not be conveyed by the speakers fluently. In other words, disfluency is frequently occurred in speech. It could be in the form of *ums* and *uhs*. English native speakers also often flood their speech with *well* or *I mean*. Besides, people sometimes pause their speech while they haven't finished the sentences yet. These are actually the evidence of difficulties that the speakers have in forming and producing sentences. Thus, it is obvious that talking is not as easy as people think although it seems to require little effort.

Speech disfluency occurs for many possible reasons. They may occur when a speaker doesn't know what to say next and must think about the following utterances (Clark and Clark, 1977). They may also occur when a speaker wishes to rephrase an utterance for clarity.

There are many types of speech disfluency. According to Clark and Clark (1977), the most common types of speech disfluency are pauses (unfilled and filled pauses), false start, and repetition.

Disfluency may occur in any position in speech. Goldman-Eisler in 1958 (in Fodor, Bever & Garrett, 1974) observed the position of unfilled

pauses by selecting a set of twelve sentences from a large sample of spontaneous speech. Her major finding was that unfilled pauses in her corpus occurred more frequently before high-uncertainty lexical items than before low-uncertainty items. Then, in 1959 Maclay and Osgood analyzed 50.000 words of spontaneous speech and they found that 59 percent of the total unfilled pauses in their sample preceded content words and only 41 percent preceded function words. However, these findings cannot be a pattern of the phenomena of speech disfluency for all speakers. It is because speech disfluency could be influenced by many factors. According to Garman (1990), one of the factors is the inter-individual variation. It means people appear to have more or less idiosyncratic pause-habits.

In addition, Garman (1990) states that task variation of speech may also influence the frequency of speech disfluency. For instance, retelling a story, for which major topics and vocabulary have been provided, is more fluent than spontaneous speech. Besides, Goldman-Eisler in her study found that there were more pauses scattered through the explanations than through the descriptions.

Speech disfluency is common in speech. It may occur in adults' speech as well as in children's speech. In this study, the writer is interested in analyzing speech disfluencies made by kindergarten children with consideration that they have been able to make a complete sentence. In



conducting the study, the writer gives a certain task to the kindergartners, that is describing picture.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

In the background of the study, it is already stated that there are several types of speech disfluencies, those are unfilled pause, filled pause, false start and repetition. These types of speech disfluencies may occur in different positions or at particular places in spoken sentences. Based on background of the study, the writer would like to state questions as follows:

1. What are the types of speech disfluency in kindergartners' speech in describing picture?
2. Which type is the most frequent type of speech disfluency made by kindergarten children in describing picture?
3. What are the characteristics of each disfluency's type made by kindergarten children in describing picture?

## **1.3 Objective of the Study**

The objective of this study is to know the types of speech disfluency found in kindergartners' speech, and to find out the most frequent type of speech disfluency made by kindergarten children in



describing picture. Besides, this study is also conducted to analyze the characteristics of each disfluency's type.

#### 1.4 Significance of the Study

The aim of this study is expected to give description about speech disfluencies made by kindergarten children in describing picture. The writer hopes that the findings will be a worth contribution for everyone who is interested in psycholinguistics, especially children's development of speech production.

#### 1.5 Definition of Key Terms

In order to avoid any misinterpretation in understanding this study, the writer would like to give some key terms.

**Speech disfluency** : a condition that disrupts the ideal delivery in the process of speech production (Clark and Clark, 1977).

**Unfilled pause** : a hesitation in spontaneous speech, which is not filled with any speech sounds (Clark and Clark, 1977).

**Filled pause** : a hesitation in spontaneous speech partly/ wholly taken up by a speech sound like *ah*, *er*, *uh* and so forth (Clark and Clark, 1977).

**False start** : a correction of one or more words in spontaneous speech (Clark and Clark, 1977).

**Repetition** : one or more words repeated in a row (Clark and Clark, 1977).

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Review of Related Study

In recent years, researchers have increased their attempt to characterize speech disfluency. It is clearly because speech disfluency can be used as a data to investigate the process of speech production. The occurrence of speech disfluency may explain how the system of speech production operates.

One of the earliest studies about the occurrence of speech disfluency is a study conducted by Goldman-Eisler (1958 in Fodor, Bever, and Garrett, 1974). The study was conducted in order to know the distribution of pauses. She conducted her study by selecting a set of twelve sentences from a large sample of spontaneous speech. Her sole criterion for the occurrence of a pause was the existence of a silent interval of greater than 250-millisecond duration. Goldman-Eisler's major finding was that pauses in her corpus occurred significantly more frequently before high-uncertainty lexical items than before low-uncertainty items.

Then, Goldman-Eisler continued her study in 1968. She presented people with New Yorker cartoons and asked them to talk about the cartoons. One group was asked to describe each cartoon, while another was asked to explain why each one was funny. The result was there were more pauses in the explanations than in the descriptions.

In 1959, Maclay and Osgood analyzed 50.000 words of spontaneous speech (in Clark and Clark, 1977). They conducted their study by recording the spontaneous discussions of a small group of scholars at a psycholinguistics conference. They argued that since content words were much less predictable than function words, pauses had to precede content words more often than they preceded function words if it was indeed lexical uncertainty that determined their distribution. The result they found was 59 % of the total pauses in their sample preceded content words and only 41% preceded function words. The result was almost comparable. Unlike the study of Goldman-Eisler, they observed not only the occurrence of pauses but also the occurrence of other disfluencies, such as repetition and false start. They found that 89 % of all word repeats were function words, like articles, prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns. On the other hand, most of the words corrected in the false starts were content words, such as nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

In terms of the positive aspect of speech disfluency, Darot (1983 in Wu, 2001) stated that speech disfluency serve an important linguistic purpose. In her study, she claimed that speech disfluency provided time to produce better lexical output, discourse coherence, and message content.

Wu (2001) investigated the occurrence of disfluencies in natural native and non-native English speech, and examined the types of disfluencies used among the two groups of speaker. The objective of his study was to know whether there were differences to the frequency and

type of disfluencies used between non-native and native speakers of English. In collecting the data, he interviewed three native speakers of English and three non-native speakers. In his study, he found that each participant of each group produced different frequencies of disfluencies and had different proportions of each disfluency type. In other words, no significant distinction can be determined between the two groups.

The studies explained above are the examples of studies about speech disfluency, which occurs in adults' speech. The occurrence of speech disfluency on adults' speech is different compared to that on children's speech. It is suggested by Yairi (1972 in Wu, 2001) who conducted a study to compare speech disfluency made by different age groups. In his study, he found a significant difference in number of disfluency between the age groups. The results showed that the older participants and preschool children had much greater amounts of disfluencies than the young adult group.

In this study, the writer tried to observe the occurrence of speech disfluency made by children. The writer considers that it is important to conduct a study, which specifically observes speech disfluency in children's speech in order to know the characteristics of speech disfluency made by children.

## **2.2 Review of Related Theory**

### **2.2.1 Speech Production**

According to Berko-Gleason and Ratner (1998), speech production is the process by which speakers turn a mental concept into a spoken utterance. This process starts when the speaker's brain sends impulses along motor nerves to the muscles of vocal organs. After preparing message in the brain, the speaker puts the message into linguistic form and turns it into a spoken expression. In other words, speech production is a process that lies between the message of speaker wishes to convey and its spoken expression. In addition, Fodor, Bever, and Garrett (1974) state that the process of speech production is a matter of translation. It means that in the process of speech production a speaker will activate his knowledge of his language for translating the messages he wants to communicate into correct sentences.

According to Bock and Levelt (in Harley, 1995), the process of speech production is divided into three levels; those are conceptualization, formulation, and articulation. The highest level is the process of conceptualization that concerns the intention of what to say and that determine the concepts that are to be expressed. This process is sometimes also called message-level process. The next level is formulation or grammatical encoding that involves translating the conceptual representation into a linguistic form.



Furthermore, the formulation level is subdivided into two steps, which are called functional and positional steps. In the functional step, the speakers firstly select the individual word they want to say and, then, assign function to each word that has been selected. Suppose a speaker wants to say a sentence

*Chris gave his son two books*

In the functional step, the speaker selects the name *Chris* among all names he knows, and decides the verb *gave* to be placed between two arguments, *Chris* and *his son*. The speaker, then, assigns function to *Chris* as the subject of the sentence and to *his son* as the object.

Furthermore, in the positional step the speaker arranges the lexicons he has selected and then puts them together to form a correct sentence. After that, the speaker should apply inflectional rule, such as adding affix and deciding the right form of verb. Therefore, for the example above the speaker should add suffix *-s* at the end of *book* and decide to use the verb *gave* to indicate that the action happens in the past.

Finally, the last level in speech production is the process of articulation or phonological encoding. It involves detailed phonetic and articulatory planning. The process of speech production above can be more easily understood by drawing a diagram.

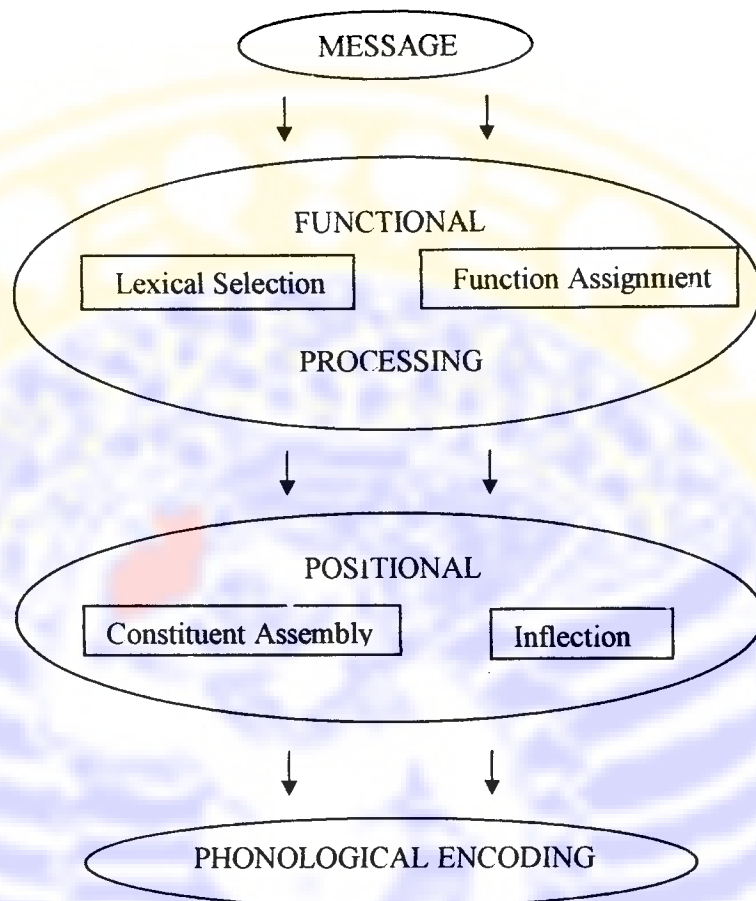


Figure 1. A Diagram of Speech Production (Bock and Levelt in Djarjowidjojo, 2003)

### 2.2.2 Speech Disfluency

During speech, a person speaks in order to reveal his thought. However, the message frequently can not be conveyed fluently. The speakers actually know what they are going to say, but they have difficulties in translating it into words. This phenomena is what so-called speech disfluency. Berko-Gleason and Ratner (1998) explicitly state that





disfluency is utterances that are characterized by unfilled pause, repetitions, false start, and filler words such as *uhm* or *you know*. It occurs commonly in speech and we tend not to notice them.

There are some types of speech disfluency such as pauses (unfilled and filled pause), false start and repetition. Clark and Clark (1977) point out that the most common type of speech disfluency is pause. Furthermore, according to Michael Garman (1990), there are actually three functions of pause. First, pauses permit the speaker to breathe. It is called psychological function. The second function is the cognitive function, which means that pauses allow the speaker to plan ahead. The last is called communicative function, which allows the speaker to signal certain demarcations in the speech stream to the listener.

The occurrence of speech disfluency is not alike for all speakers. There are some factors that may cause the diversity of speech disfluency from person to person. Michael Garman (1990) finds that some people appear to have more idiosyncratic pause habits. An adult may make many *um* or *uh* in his speech simply because he used to do that when he is still a child. This is what so-called inter-individual variation. Garman also states that task variation could be another factor that influences the occurrence of speech disfluency. For examples, reading aloud yields is consistently more fluent than giving speech, while retelling a story is more fluent than spontaneous speech. One more factor that affects the occurrence of speech disfluency is situational anxiety (Clark and Clark, 1977). When a speaker

become anxious, he can neither select the word nor make a sentence fluently. Another possibility is that what people talk about when he is anxious is simply more difficult cognitively. Therefore, they may spend more time planning and selecting just for the right words. In other words, the more anxious the speaker, the more disfluencies occur.

### **2.2.3 Language Development in Children**

According to Fromkin and Rodman (1988), knowing a language means having capacity to produce meaningful sounds and to understand sounds produced by others. In order to have capacity in producing speech, a person has to know the rule of the language since he is a child.

All children appear to go through the same stages of language development, although the rate of development varies from child to child (Norton, 1980). For Indonesian children, the first word is generally produced at the age of eighteen months (Djarjowidjojo, 2003). Children, then, will start producing one-word utterances. A basic property of these one-word utterances is that they can be used to express the type of meaning that would be associated with an entire sentence in adult speech. Furthermore, from about two years old, children are able to produce two-word utterances. Words that are uttered by children at this stage are usually content words (verb, noun, adverb), not function words. After a period of several months, children begin to produce longer and more complex grammatical structures. Moreover, at about age three, children

tend increasingly to perform correctly on all constructions (Fodor, Bever, and Garrett, 1974).

According to Norton (1980), children will master the most basic rules of language when they are four to five years old. At this period, children are already able to produce grammatically correct sentences, and store approximately 2500 words. Furthermore, from about age five to six, most children use complex sentences quite frequently. It is also supported by Taylor (1990) who points out that children at this stage have acquired their native language well enough for everyday conversation. The average number of words per oral sentence range between six to eight words. Besides, it has been estimated that children understand approximately 6000 words in this stage. For English-speaking children, they are already able to use correct pronouns and verbs in the present and past tense. Thus, it seems that as the child grows older, his performance is getting better on constructing sentences.

### **2.3 Theoretical Framework**

A speaker thinks first and then expresses his thought in words. When people know what they want to say and say it fluently, they are giving the ideal delivery. Clark and Clark (1977) suggest that the ideal delivery is an important aspect for theories of speech production. People strive for the ideal delivery to make them better understood. However, it is

not easy to do that. One thing that disrupts the ideal delivery is speech disfluency.

Clark and Clark (1977) point out that speakers generally select their words constituent by constituent. The size of constituent may consists of two words (as in *the book*) up to seven or eight words (for example, a short clause). Then, when a speaker wants to utter it, he basically has planned first the constituent in their mind. As it has been stated before, speakers generally wish to convey all constituents they have planned in the ideal delivery. In other words, the main goal here is to execute the planned constituent and to do so as fluently as possible. Sometimes, however, they have to commit themselves to begin speaking before they have a constituent completely planned. Therefore, they need to stop, pian, and try again to deliver the constituent fluently. This explanation could be a reason of why speakers often pause, repeat, and correct their speech. Moreover, speech disfluency may also occur because speakers have difficulty in selecting the right words. It is obvious that our brain, which is also called mental dictionary, stores infinite number of words. Therefore, sometimes the speakers need time to search, select and, then, find the right words.

Based on the theory of speech production proposed by Levelt, therefore, it is assumed that speech disfluency occurs in the second level of speech production, that is in the formulation level. It is clearly because in the formulation process the speaker translates the message from brain

into linguistic form through selecting the right words and joining them together to construct a well-formed sentence. This assumption is also supported by Berko-Gleason and Ratner (1998), who consider speech disfluency as the reflection of lexical search. Thus, the more difficult the word, the more time it should take, and the more likely speech itself will be disrupted.

According to Clark and Clark (1977), there are some types of speech disfluency. However, the most frequent types of speech disfluency that often occur in speech are pause, false start and repetition.

### **2.3.1 Pause**

Clark and Clark (1977) state that pause is the most common disruption in the ideal delivery. Pause reflects two types of difficulty; those are microplanning and macroplanning difficulty (Harley, 1995). The microplanning difficulty is due to retrieving particularly difficult word, whereas macroplanning is due to planning the syntax and content of a sentence. There are two kinds of pauses; those are unfilled pause and filled pause.

#### **2.3.1.1 Unfilled pause**

Unfilled pause is simply a moment of silence. However, not all silence can be considered as speech disfluency. Many pauses are not



counted as disfluencies due to the fact that they occur naturally as a result of conversation flow. For example, there are pauses between speakers' turn in conversation. This is called switching pause, which is not disfluency. Pauses that can be recognized as disfluency are those that occur in the middle of sentences and words, and confuse the listener. The utterances in (a) of the example below show pauses in the form of "[ ]", which are considered as disfluency, whereas the data in (b) show pauses, which are not disfluencies because they occur between conversational segments.

- (a) The man [ ] is cute.  
 The man is cute and [ ] he is tall.  
 Saya suka [ ] musik dan saya senang bermain musik.  
 Saya suka musik dan [ ] saya senang bermain musik.
- (b) The man is cute [ ] and he is tall.  
 Saya suka musik [ ] dan saya senang bermain musik.

### 2.3.1.2 Filled pause

Filled pause is a gap filled with a sound such as "*uh*" or "*um*". The "*uh*" and "*um*" of spontaneous conversation are included in this set along with "*like*", "*yeah*", and "*well*" in certain environments. "*Uh*" and "*um*" are the examples of non-word filled pauses. Whereas "*like*", "*yeah*", and "*well*" are the examples of filled pauses which are already existed words.

Indonesian people also often fill their speech with filled pause such as “*anu*”, “*apa itu*”, and “*siapa itu*” (Djarjowidjojo, 2003). It is obvious that “*apa itu*”, and “*siapa itu*” are actually question words. Jeffrey Wu (2001), suggests that speech disfluency can be tested by removing them from the sentences and reading them. Since there is no major difference in the message the participants convey, it can be assumed that the words that have been removed are speech disfluencies. The data in (a) below show the example of speech disfluency. While, the sentences in (b) cannot be considered as disfluency.

- (a) They were studying **um** mathematics.  
She was sitting **like** on the bridge.  
Kemarin saya makan **uh** ayam goreng.  
Saya sedang mencari **apa itu** (korek api).
- (b) Bats are **like** rats with wings.  
Makanan **apa itu** namanya?

The words “*apa itu*” in the sentence (a) above is not a question word. It is indeed a filled pause because if “*apa itu*” is removed, the message or information conveyed by the speaker is not changed.

### 2.3.2 False start

False start is correction of a word. It is due to a decision to rephrase because the speaker believes that the best way to produce the

intended meaning was not made to begin with. It is divided into retraced and unretraced false start. Retraced false start includes the repetition of one or more words before the corrected word, whereas the unretraced false start does not. The utterances in (a) are the examples of retraced false start, while the utterances in (b) are unretraced false start.

(a) Turn on **the stove / the heater switch.**

Kemarin bukunya saya letakkan **di atas lemari / di atas meja.**

(b) Turn on **the stove / heater switch.**

Kemarin bukunya saya letakkan **di atas lemari / meja.**

### 2.3.3 Repetition

Repetition occurs when one or more words are repeated in a row. It includes repetition of exact syllables, words, or phrases. The examples of repetition are:

- **They they** were playing basketball.
- **They were playing they were playing** basketball.
- **Kemarin kemarin** mereka bertengkar.
- **Kemarin mereka mereka** bertengkar.



### 2.3.4 Syntactic category

The distribution of those three common types of speech disfluency may be varied. They may precede or follow certain types of words. According to Fromkin and Rodman (1988), there are two syntactic categories of words. The first is content words which include noun, verb, adjective, and adverb. The other one is called function words which include preposition, conjunction, and pronoun.

In addition, Taylor (1990) points out that content words form an open class, in which their number is large and expandible. On the other hand, function words form a closed class, in which their number is fixed. Their main functions are connecting, relating, substituting for, and modifying content words in sentences. Taylor (1990), then, suggests eight characteristics of function words stated as follows: (1) play syntactic roles; (2) belong to an closed class; (3) are highly frequent; (4) are short, often monosyllabic; (5) have little semantic content; (6) are not used alone as complete utterance; (7) are unstressed in normal use; (8) are redundant and predictable.

Those two syntactic categories also exist in Indonesian language. Alwi et al. (2003) state that the content word in Indonesian language includes *verba* (verb), *nomina* (noun), *adjectiva* (adjective), and *adverbia* (adverb). While, the function word in Indonesian language is called *kata tugas*.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHOD OF THE STUDY**

#### **3.1 Research Approach**

The method that was applied in this study was descriptive qualitative research because the writer wants to describe the occurrence of speech disfluency in children's speech. Denzin and Lincoln (1994) state that qualitative research emphasizes the process and meanings that are not rigorously examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, or intensity. In addition, qualitative research involves fieldwork in which the researcher physically goes to people, setting, site, or institution to observe or record behavior in its natural setting (Creswell, 1994).

Besides, this study used a case study. According to Mulyana (2003), a case study is a comprehensive explanation about some aspects of an individual, a group, a community, or a social situation. The purpose of the case study is to give a profound description about the object.

#### **3.1 Population and Sampling**

The population of this research was kindergarten children who were four, five, or six years old and from middle socioeconomic families. The writer chose children from middle socioeconomic families because they received more care and more educative materials such as books and

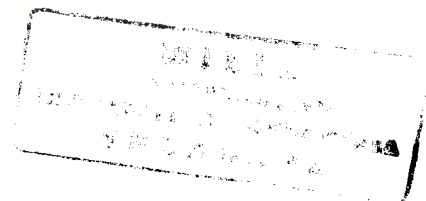
toys, which can help and motivate them to learn everything, including language.

In order to get the best participants for this study, the writer used purposive sampling. It means the writer chooses participants based on some criteria. First, their age should be four, five, or six years old. The reason why the writer uses this criterion because according to Norton (1980), children have already mastered the most basic rule of a language when they are at age four until five. Then, they frequently produce complex sentences at the age of six. In other words, the writer considers that children start producing well-grammatical sentences when they are at the age of four until six. Second, the mothers of the participants should be a housewife. The writer stated this criterion because the writer assumed that housewives had more time to interact with their children so that it could motivate children to speak. An other criterion is that the participants should be exposed to use Indonesian as their first language.

### **3.2.1 Background of the participants**

#### **3.2.1.1 Participant A**

The name of participant A is Josua Elka. He is five years old. He is studying in Petra 13 Kindergarten. He lives with his parents, a brother, and a little sister. His father is an entrepreneur, while his mother is a housewife. In daily conversation, he mostly uses Indonesian language.



### **3.2.1.2 Participant B**

The name of participant B is Sophie Elizabeth. She is four years old. She is a kindergarten student in Petra 13. Her father works as an employee in one private company in Surabaya, while her mother is a housewife. She has an eight-year old sister. She is more likely to use Indonesian language in daily conversation either at home or in school.

### **3.2.1.3 Participant C**

The name of participant C is Andik Djatmiko. He is six years old. He is also a kindergarten student in Petra 13. He doesn't have brothers or sisters. His father is an employee in a private company, while his mother is a housewife. He mostly uses Indonesian language in his daily conversation.

## **3.3 Technique of Data Collection**

As it has been stated, qualitative research is due to observing behaviour in its natural setting (Creswell, 1994). Therefore, in collecting data the writer decided to record dyadic conversation between the mothers and children. The writer was not involved in the conversation. The purpose is to keep the conversation runs smoothly and naturally. It means the writer can avoid the participants to keep silent during the conversation. Besides, the writer believes that it is the most natural way in which the

children are not forced to speak, and will feel comfortable during the recording.

It takes several steps to collect the data. First, the writer chose the participants based on the criteria the writer had stated. After choosing the participants, the writer visited the children in order to find any information related to the study, including children's language development. Furthermore, the writer gave eight pictures to the mothers. Then, the writer asked the mothers to show the pictures one by one to the children, and have the children described the picture. The duration of the recording range between 5 to 10 minutes for each participant and for each picture.

### **3.4 Technique of Data Analysis**

After collecting data, the writer began to analyze the data based on the theories proposed in chapter II. Firstly, the writer transcribed orthographically the recordings. Secondly, the writer identified and classified the children's speech disfluency according to Clark and Clark (1977): unfilled pause, filled pause, false start, and repetition. For pause, Goldman-Eisler (in Harley, 1995) in her early work suggested that pauses, which were longer than 250-millisecond duration, could be considered as speech disfluency. In this study, Cool Edit Pro Software was used to help the writer counted the duration of pauses.

Thirdly, the writer analyzed the frequency of speech disfluency to find out the most frequent type of speech disfluency occurred in

participants' speech. Finally, the writer tried to know the characteristics of each disfluency's type made by the participants. Since the participants speak Indonesian language, therefore, the writer applied Indonesian grammatical rule proposed by Alwi et. al. (2003) in order to identify the syntactic category of word.



## **CHAPTER IV**

### **ANALYSIS OF THE DATA**

This chapter focuses on analyzing the occurrence of speech disfluency found in participants' speech. Firstly, the writer classified the data according to the types of speech disfluency; those are unfilled pause, filled pause, false start, and repetition. Then, the writer began analyzing each type of disfluency, including the frequency as well as the characteristics of each disfluency's type.

#### **4.1 Types of speech disfluency**

From the data, the writer found that all participants produce the four types of speech disfluency, which are proposed by Clark and Clark.

##### **4.1.1 Unfilled pause**

All participants frequently produce unfilled pauses in their speech. However, not all unfilled pauses produced by participants are considered as speech disfluency. In this study, the writer just analyze unfilled pauses that are longer than 250 miliseconds, and occur in the middle of sentence.

The examples of unfilled pauses produced by participants:

- A (9) Un[ ]tuk [ ] kudanya [ ] larinya cepat.  
 (114) Anaknya [ ] sedang menyiram.  
 B (202) A[ ]da garisnya.  
 (230) Sa[ ]tu [ ] dua [ ] tiga empat.  
 C (416) Rambutnya warna hitam sama [ ] papanya juga.  
 (477) Sama [ ] induk ayam.

#### 4.1.2 Filled pause

From the data, it is found that all participants do not produce the filled pause “*anu*” and “*siapa itu*”, which are proposed by Djarjowidjojo (2003). Filled pauses that are usually produced by the participants are *um*, *uh*, *apa*, *apa itu*, *dimana*, and *itu*. “*Um*” and “*uh*” are the examples of filled pauses, which are non-word. “*Apa*”, “*apa itu*”, “*dimana*”, and “*itu*” are the examples of filled pauses, which are already existed words.

The examples of non-word filled pause:

- A (449) Ada lalatnya ada yang mati 1 di **um** atas meja.  
 B (14) **Um** kena angin.  
 C (333) Kayunya warna **um** kayunya warna hitam.

The examples of word filled pause:

- A (47) Tali **apa itu** tali (xx..)  
 (49) ...kudanya dipecut biar bisa **itu** dengar suaranya.



- C (195) Sedang **apa itu** memasak nasi dilihat dibuka sudah apa belum.
- (205) Ib ibu sedang menuang **apa** nasi **dimana** di bakul.

The words “*apa itu*”, “*apa*”, and “*dimana*” in the sentences above are not question words. They are indeed filled pauses because if “*apa itu*”, “*apa*” and “*dimana*” are removed, the message or information conveyed by the speaker is not changed. Furthermore, the word “*itu*” produced by participant A is also considered as speech disfluency since it is not used by the speaker to point to something around him. It is used to give the speaker time while thinking the word he is going to say next.

#### 4.1.3 False start

From the data, the writer finds that all participants make unretraced false start more often than retraced false start. There are 9 unretraced false starts and 3 retraced false starts found in the participants’ speech. It seems that all participants tend not to repeat one or more words before the corrected word. They are more likely to correct the intended word directly.

The examples of retraced false starts:

- A (482) **Di belakang / di halaman** rumah.
- B (96) Aku **nggak ku / nggak gemuk**.

C (379) Ini warna **hijau muda / hijau tua**.

The examples of unretraced false starts:

A (731) **Anaknya / telurnya** sudah menetas.

C (451) **Tig / satu dua tiga**.

#### 4.1.4 Repetition

In this type of speech disfluency, the writer finds that there are two kinds of repetition that the participants generally make. The first is word repetition, while the other one is syllable repetition. In the word repetition, the participants repeat one or more word fully without reducing the syllable of the word. While, in the syllable repetition, the participants do not repeat the word fully, but just the first or, sometimes, the first two syllables of the word.

In the word repetition, the repeated word could be either two words or just one word. From 36 total number of word repetitions, 31 repetitions are one-word repeated. The rest are two-word repetitions.

The examples of one-word repetition:

A (15) **Tali tali** kekang kuda.

(524) **Warnanya warnanya** abu-abu.

- B (22)      **Supaya supaya** um jalannya ndak menggok-  
menggok.  
(152)      **Gendong gendong** keranjang.  
C (24)      **Biar biar** kalo jalan kalo cepet nanti ditarik.  
(183)      **Pak pak** tani sedang itu apa (xx..)

The examples of two-word repetition:

- A (504)      **Pakai baju pakai baju** warna orange.  
B (274)      Trus **kalo sudah kalo sudah** mencuci ayo nak  
menjemur baju yuk ayo.  
B (497)      Ga papa **biar ndak biar ndak** mati.

The examples of syllable repetition:

- A (104)      Warnanya **o orange** sama kuning.  
(197)      Ibu tani sedang **me menumbuk** padi.  
B (431)      Ehm **pap papanya** sama anaknya.  
C (72)      **Top topinya** kena angin.

#### 4.2 Frequency of speech disfluency

The frequency of the occurrence of each disfluency's type among all participants are not the same. In order to make it clear, the frequency of each disfluency's type will be explained in the table below.

Table 1. The frequency of each disfluency's type of each participant.

Participant	Speech Disfluency's Types				Total
	Unfilled Pause	Filled Pause	False Start	Repetition	
Participant A	146	3	5	11	165
Participant B	72	34	1	16	123
Participant C	87	38	6	24	155
<b>Total</b>	<b>305</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>443</b>

Table 1 shows that all participants generally produce over 100 disfluencies in their speech. Participant A produces the greatest number of total disfluency, that is 165 disfluencies. Participant C produces 155 disfluencies, which is a little lower than participant A, but not too much. The smallest number of total disfluency is displayed by participant B, who produces 123 disfluencies.

Although the number of total disfluency of each participant is almost comparable, however, the frequency of each disfluency's type is not the same for all participants. Participant A, for instance, produces 146 unfilled pauses in his speech. He displays the greatest total number of unfilled pause compared to the other two participants. Participant B, on the other hand, produces 72 unfilled

pauses, whereas participant C makes 87 unfilled pauses in his speech.

Just like unfilled pause, the participants also display different frequency of filled pause from each other. Participant A produces the smallest number of total filled pause. He only makes 3 filled pauses in his speech. On the other hand, the total number of filled pause found in the speech of participant B and C is almost comparable. Participant B produces 34 filled pauses, while participant C produces 38 filled pauses.

Compared to the other types of speech disfluency, false starts are rarely made by the participants. Participant A produces 5 false starts. Even participant B only made false start once in her speech, whereas participant C displays 6 false starts. Furthermore, the participants also have different frequency in producing repetition compared to each other. However, the total number of repetition of each participant is still comparable. Participant C produces repetition more frequent than the other participants. He displays 24 repetitions. Participant A makes 11 repetitions, whereas participant B produces 16 repetitions in her speech.

In addition, it is seen from table 1 that participant A makes repetition more often than filled pause. Conversely, repetition occurs less often than filled pause in the speech of participant B and participant C. Moreover, it can be seen from table 1 that both

participant B and C produce a comparable number of total filled pause, which is more than 30 filled pauses. However, participant A, conversely, only produces 3 filled pauses. We can see here that participant A has a different way in producing speech disfluency compared to participant B and C. This is what so-called inter individual variation, which means that each individual produces speech disfluency in different way and frequency (Garman, 1990).

Eventhough each participants produce each disfluency's type in different frequency, however, there is a tendency of all participants to produce certain type of disfluency more frequent than the other types. The tendency is that all participants generally produce unfilled pauses much more frequent than other types of disfluency. The total number of unfilled pauses found in all participants' speech is 305. While, filled pauses and repetition are produced less frequent than unfilled pause, which are only 75 filled pauses and 51 repetitions. Even the total number of false starts is only 12. Thus, we can assume that unfilled pauses provide the greatest proportion of the speech disfluencies found. In other words, the most frequent type of speech disfluency that occurs in all participants' speech is unfilled pause.



### 4.3 Characteristics of each disfluency's type

#### 4.3.1 Unfilled pause

Unfilled pauses tend to occur in the middle of sentence. It never occurs in the beginning of sentence because it can not be considered as disfluency. Pauses, which occur in the beginning of sentence, has function as a speakers' turn in conversation. Unfilled pause may precede noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, and so on.

For example:

- A (116) Menyiram [ ] tanaman. (*preceding N*)  
 (558) Sedang [ ] bermain kincir angin. (*preceding V*)  
 (71) Warnanya [ ] coklat muda. (*preceding Adj*)  
 (49) Gunanya untuk [ ] biar kudanya kalo dipecut [ ] nanti  
 kalo kudanya dipecut bisa itu [ ] dengar suaranya.  
 (*preceding Conj, Adv, verb*)  
 (556) Sedang [ ] di halaman [ ] depan rumah. (*preceding Prep*)  
 (534) Soalnya pakaianya [ ] biar kering. (*preceding Conj*)  
 (510) Rok [ ] nya ada garis-garisnya. (*preceding Pronoun*)
- B (122) Menyinari [ ] tanaman. (*preceding N*)  
 (148) Kerja [ ] metik. (*preceding V*)  
 (180) Keranjangnya [ ] item. (*preceding Adj*)  
 (76) Di [ ] di [ ] pot (*preceding Prep and N*)  
 (358) Kalo [ ] kalo dia lari ada batu nanti jatuh. (*preceding Conj*)
- C (438) Ada [ ] kancing. (*preceding N*)  
 (249) Di [ ] dikuncir. (*preceding V*)



- (74) Warnanya [ ] merah. (*preceding Adj*)  
 (422) Daunnya [ ] banyak trus sama bunganya [ ] sedikit ada dua.  
 (*preceding Adv*)  
 (375) Lihat anak-anaknya yang main tapi [ ] dari kamar [ ] jendela.  
 (*preceding Prep and N*)  
 (101) Iya [ ] soalnya disirami terus. (*preceding Conj*)  
 (42) Rambut[ ]nya kuda. (*preceding Pronoun*)

In order to make it clear, the distribution will be explained in the table below.

Table 2. The distribution of unfilled pause

Participant	Preceding Content Word				Preceding Function Word		
	N	V	Adj	Adv	Prep	Conj	Pronoun
Participant 1	44	21	20	1	6	2	1
Participant 2	27	8	7	-	1	6	-
Participant 3	28	10	8	5	1	3	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>3</b>

(Note: N = noun, V = verb, Adj = adjective, Adv = adverb, Prep = preposition, Conj = conjunction.)

Table 2 above shows how often unfilled pauses occur in different syntactic position in the speech of all participants. It is clearly seen that unfilled pauses mostly precede content words rather than function words. One possible reason why it occurs more often preceding content words rather than function words is

because nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs make up the largest part of the vocabulary. It is obvious that our mind stores content words in much greater number than function words. Besides, the number of content words can easily increased because it is an open class. People may creatively add new words to this class. On the contrary, it is not easy to think a new conjunction or preposition or pronoun. Thus, when the speakers are going to produce content words, they need more time to search and select the right lexical item from all lexical items stored in the mind. This could be the reason why the participants often pause their speech when they are going to produce content words.

Furthermore, in looking at the specific word class of content word, it seems that the unfilled pauses occur more often before noun rather than the other classes of content word. It is because the mothers as the question givers frequently ask questions which need nouns as the answers. In other words, nouns are produced more frequent than verb, adjective, or adverb in describing pictures.

Example:

A (10) M: Terus tangan yang satunya pak kus tangan pak kusir  
satunya pegang apa?

(11) C: Pegang [ ] tali.

- B (349) M: Anak ini bawa apa ini anak laki-laki ini bawa apa?  
 (350) C: Bawa [ ] kincir angin.  
 C (476) M: Anak ayam sedang makan sama sapa hayo?  
 (477) C: Sama [ ] induk ayam.

In addition, the unfilled pause occurs not only before content or function words but also in the middle of word. The participants sometimes pause their speech when they haven't finished even one word. The writer finds 28 pauses that participants produce in the middle of word.

For example:

- A (17) Untuk memberhen[ ]tikan kuda.  
 (76) A[ ]da [ ] i[ ]bu [ ] mengasiki tanaman.  
 B (202) A[ ]da [ ] garisnya.  
 (445) Ehm [ ] Tingwa [ ] Do[ ]gi [ ] Koin [ ] Dalmation [ ]  
 Kelinci [ ] sama (xx..)  
 C (105) War[ ]na coklat tua.

It can be seen from the examples that the participants mostly produce unfilled pauses in the middle of word, which consist of two syllables. The first sentence uttered by participant A above is the only example of unfilled pause produced in the middle of word, which consists of more than two syllables.

Moreover, the unfilled pauses are also frequently occurred before numbers. The writer finds 30 unfilled pauses occurred before numbers.

For example:

- A (449) Sa[ ]tu [ ] dua [ ] tiga [ ] empat [ ] lima enam tujuh [ ] delapan sembilan sepuluh [ ] sebelas dua belas.
- B (238) Sa[ ]tu [ ] dua [ ] tiga empat lima enam tujuh delapan sembi[ ]lan sepuluh sebelas [ ] duabelas.
- C (234) Satu dua [ ] tiga empat lima enam [ ] tujuh delapan sembilan sepuluh sebelas.

Unfilled pauses occur before numbers because the participants need time to breathe when they are numbering objects. It is quite difficult for children to count many objects continually in the same breath. It is assumed that, the more the objects to be counted, the more pauses are produced. In this case, unfilled pause has a psychology function that permits the speaker to take a breath.

The writer also finds that the participants sometimes produce pauses between prefix and verb.

For example:

- A (736) Sedang [ ] ber[ ]tutup mata sambil bersuara cuit cuit cuit.
- B (252) Di[ ]tutup.
- C (36) Di [ ] di[ ]sabuk.

### 4.3.2 Filled pause

The distribution of filled pause is little bit different compared to unfilled pause. It is already stated that unfilled pause never occurs in the beginning of sentence. Conversely, filled pause mostly occurs in the beginning of sentence, beside in the middle of sentence. It also sometimes occurs in the end of sentences if the sentences produced by the children are interrupted by the mothers. Besides, as it has been explained, the unfilled pauses are sometimes produced in the middle of word. On the contrary, the filled pauses are never found in the middle of word.

The writer finds that filled pauses, which occur in the beginning of sentence, are mostly non-word filled pauses such as “*um*” and “*uh*”. Thus, according to Harley (1995), “*um*” and “*uh*” are usually produced to reflect the macroplanning difficulty that participants have. It seems that the participants tend to put “*um*” and “*uh*” in the beginning of sentence in order to plan the content of the sentence.

Example:

- B (362)      **Um** biar muter soalnya ga ada pencetannya.  
(382)      **Uh** warna warna coklat.  
C (111)      **Um** ini tiga tapi disini ada empat.  
(269)      **Uh** ada dua.

On the opposite, the filled pause “*apa*”, “*apa itu*”, “*dimana*”, and “*itu*” tend to occur mostly in the middle of sentence. In this case, “*apa*”, “*dimana*”, and “*itu*” reflect the microplanning difficulty. The participants fill their speech with “*apa*”, “*apa itu*”, “*dimana*”, and “*itu*” in the middle of sentence in order to give them time to retrieve the difficult words.

Example:

- A (49) ...kudanya dipecut biar bisa **itu** dengar suaranya.  
C (371) **Sebelumnya** ini di belakangnya ada **apa** rumput.  
(205) Ib ibu sedang menuang **apa** nasi di **dimana** di bakui.  
(195) Sedang **apa itu** memasak nasi dilihat dibuka sudah matang atau belum.

Similar to unfilled pauses, the filled pauses also frequently precede content word rather than function word. In order to make it clear, the distribution of filled pause can be seen in the table below.



Table 3. The distribution of filled pause

Participant	Preceding Content Word				Preceding Function Word		
	N	V	Adj	Adv	Prep	Conj	Pronoun
Participant 1	1	1	-	-	1	-	-
Participant 2	10	10	4	4	-	2	-
Participant 3	13	6	4	2	1	-	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>-</b>

(Note: N = noun, V = verb, Adj = adjective, Adv = adverb, Prep = preposition, Conj = conjunction.)

As it can be seen from table 3, the filled pauses specifically are more likely to precede noun rather than verb, adjective, or adverb. Sometimes filled pauses occur without preceding any word. It means that they may occur in the end of the sentence. It could happen because the mothers assume that the children have difficulty in retrieving the difficult word. Besides, the filled pause may also occur alone in a sentence. It means that after the participants produce filled pause in the beginning of a sentence, the mothers immediately interrupt the speech. The possible reason of why it occurs is because the mothers consider that the children do not know the answer of the question given by the mothers. Hence, they decide to interrupt the participants' speech in order to help them.



For example:

Mother: Trus di gambar yang ke 2 ini ibunya lagi ngapain?

Participant B: Um (xx..)

Mother: Numbuk.

Participant B: Numbuk.

Mother: Trus yang ke 3 ini sedang apa anak perempuan ini?

Participant C: Sedang [ ] siram [ ] siram ini apa (xx..)

Mother: Menyiram tanaman.

In the first example above, it seems that participant B actually has difficulty in answering the question. Thus, she produces filled pause in the beginning of sentence to give her enough time finding the answer. After the mother says the word “*numbuk*”, then, the child repeats the same word directly. While in the second example, the participant C produces the filled pause “*apa*” because he has difficulty in retrieving the noun “*tanaman*”. In his thought, he basically knows that the noun is called “*tanaman*” but he has difficulty in retrieving and producing the word “*tanaman*”.

In addition, the unfilled pauses sometimes occur together with the filled pauses. The unfilled pauses may precede or follow the filled pause. Even sometimes the filled pauses occur between unfilled pauses.

For example:

- A (49) ...kudanya dipecut bisa [ ] **itu** [ ] dengar suaranya.  
 B (22) Supaya [ ] supaya [ ] **um** jalannya ndak  
 [ ] menggok-menggok.  
 (290) Um soalnya [ ] soalnya [ ] **um** [ ] matahari biar  
 kering.  
 C (62) **Um** [ ] roda.  
 (119) Bajunya warna [ ] **itu** bajunya warna biru.

There is a possible reason why filled pause occasionally occurs after unfilled pause. Inevitably, people often pause in order to let the other person take over the speaking. However, sometimes a speaker doesn't want to give up their turn and instead wants a little extra time to think about what they are going to say next. Therefore, they use filled pauses to signal this. When a listener hears the filled pause, they continue listening rather than start talking or interrupting.

### 4.3.3 False start

In the retraced false start, the participants mostly repeat one word before the corrected word.

Example:

- A (482) **Di belakang / di halaman rumah.**  
 B (96) Aku **nggak ku / nggak gemuk.**  
 C (379) Ini warna **hijau muda / hijau tua.**

Participant A repeats the preposition “*di*” before he corrects the word “*belakang*” into “*halaman*”. Participant B repeats the word “*nggak*” before correcting the word “*ku*” (kurus) into “*gemuk*”. Participant C repeats the word “*hijau*” and, after that, he corrects the word “*muda*” into “*tua*”.

The participants decide to make retraced false start in order to make the listener, in this case is the mothers, understand the answer they have given. They assume that the word before the corrected word should not be omitted. Instead, it is needed to complete the following word so that the messages, which are passed to the listeners, are not changed.

Furthermore, in the example above, the participant A actually would like to say that (the children in picture 5) are playing in the yard “*di halaman rumah*”. However, the meaning will be different if the participant, in this case is child A, does not repeat the preposition “*di*”.

Result:

A (482)      *Di belakang / halaman rumah.*

The message will be changed into “(the children) are playing in the back of the yard (*di belakang halaman rumah*)”. It can be seen, then, the information that passed to the listeners become confusing. Besides, the message will have different meaning. Therefore, the

participant should repeat the preposition “di” before the corrected word “halaman”.

On the other hand, the participants produce unretraced false starts because they consider that it is not necessary to repeat one or more words before the corrected word in order to make the listener understand the meaning. It is assumed that by correcting the intended word directly, the listener is still able to understand the message.

The examples of unretraced false starts:

- A (731)      **Anaknya / telurnya** sudah menetas.  
 (608)      **Sepat / memakai** sepatu.  
 (708)      **Sed / bonekanya** sedang senyum.
- C (475)      **Ayam / anak ayam** sedang makan beras atau jagung.  
 (424)      Trus tangkainya **war / ada** warna ijo yang juga ada empat.  
 (443)      Ayam **sed / induk ayam** sedang mengeram telur.

From the examples above, it can be seen that the participants correct the false words directly. Furthermore, if we look at the sentences above more carefully, there is a tendency to the occurrence of false words. The false words (such as *sepat*, *sed*, and *war* in the examples), which are corrected later by the participants, will be uttered again by the participant after

correcting. In this case, the false words are mostly just the first or the first two syllables of the word that will be uttered again by the participant after correcting.

For example:

Trus tangkainya *war* / ada *warna* ijo yang juga ada empat.

In this example, participant C produces the false word “*war*”, which is actually the first syllable of “*warna*”. After realizing that he has started with the false word, he immediately corrects it into “*ada*”. After that, he produces the word “*warna*”.

Moreover, the writer also finds that most words corrected by the participants are content words.

#### 4.3.4 Repetition

From the data, the writer finds that the words, which are repeated in one word repetition, are mostly content words.

Examples:

- A (546) Pagar temboknya **warnanya warnanya** coklat muda
- B (425) Ehm **pake pake** warna merah tua..
- C (251) Sedang **membantu membantu** ibunya.

As it has been stated, repeated syllables in the syllable repetition are mostly the first syllable.

## Examples:

- A (197) Ibu tani sedang **me menumbuk** padi.  
 B (136) Um **met metik**.  
 (431) Um **pap papanya** sama anaknya.  
 C (72) **Top topinya** kena angin.  
 (135) Trus **an anaknya** pake sandal.  
 (249) **Di dikuncir**.

From the examples above, the writer finds that sometimes the participants (especially participant B and C) can not divide the word into syllables correctly. Based on Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia proposed by Alwi et al. (2003), the word “*metik*” contains two syllables, those are “*me*” and “*tik*”. The word “*topi*” also contains two syllables, those are “*to*” and “*pi*”. However, the the participants tend to end the repeated syllable with consonant (the first consonant of the second syllable). From the data, it can be seen that the repeated syllable of “*metik*” is “*met*”, while the repeated syllable of “*topi*” is “*top*”.

The participants can correctly divide the word into syllables if the word contains prefix, for example the word “*menumbuk*” and “*dikuncir*”. In this case, the participants do not divide the word “*menumbuk*” into “*men*” and “*numbuk*”, or the word “*dikuncir*” into “*dik*” and “*kuncir*”.

Furthermore, pauses also occur frequently either between the word repetition or between syllable repetition. This data can

explain that actually before the participants repeat the words, they sometimes pause their speech first.

Examples:

A (104) Warnanya [ ] o [ ] orange sama kuning.

B (28) **Warna** [ ] warna [ ] merah.

C (414) **Kaos** [ ] kaos kaki warnanya putih.

In addition, participant B has a different way in performing repetition in her speech. She tends to produce repetition together with the filled pause as well as with the unfilled pause. While, participant A and C produce repetition just with unfilled pause.

Examples:

B (290) Ehm **soalnya** [ ] **soalnya** [ ] ehm [ ]  
matahari baru kering.

(431) Ehm [ ] **pap** [ ] **papanya** [ ] sama anaknya.

(22) **Supaya** [ ] **supaya** [ ] ehm jalannya ndak  
menggok- menggok.



## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION

This study is conducted in order to know the occurrence of speech disfluency in kindergartners' speech in describing picture. After analyzing the data, the writer finds that all participants display all types of speech disfluency proposed by Clark and Clark (1977). However, the frequency of each disfluency's type of each participant is not the same. Participant A, for instance, produces repetition more frequent rather than filled pause. Conversely, filled pause occurs more often rather than repetition in the speech of participant B and C. This is influenced by the factor of individual variation that each participant has in producing speech disfluency.

In this study, all participants generally produce unfilled pauses much more often than the other types of speech disfluency. The total number of unfilled pauses produced by all participants are 305. Whereas, the other types of disfluency such as filled pause, false start, and repetition are produced less than 100. Thus, it is obvious that unfilled pauses are the most frequent type of speech disfluency found in all participants' speech.

Each type of speech disfluency found in kindergarten children's speech has certain characteristics. The first type of speech disfluency, unfilled pause, tends to precede content word rather than function word. It often occurs in the middle of a word, and frequently occurs before numbers. It is also sometimes produced between prefix and verb.

Furthermore, filled pause may occur in the beginning as well as in the middle of a sentence. It may also occur in the end of a sentence if the sentence is interrupted. Similar to unfilled pause, filled pause tends to precede content words more often rather than function word. From the data, these two pauses mostly precede noun rather than the other word classes of content words. Other characteristic is that the filled pauses such as “*um*”, “*uh*”, which are found in all participants’ speech, tend to occur mostly in the beginning of clause. On the opposite, “*apa*”, “*apa itu*”, “*dimana*”, and “*itu*” are more likely to occur in the middle of clause.

In the case of retraced false start, the participants tend to repeat one word before the corrected word. The corrected words found in participants’ speech are mostly content words. Furthermore, the false words in the unretraced false start are usually the first or the first two syllables of words that will be uttered later by the participants after making correction.

Finally, the characteristic of repetition is that the repeated words in the word repetition are mostly content words such as noun, verb, adjective, and adverb. Moreover, in the case of syllable repetition, the writer finds that the participants sometimes make incorrectly syllabifications.

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## APPENDICES

In this orthographic transcription of recorded data, the writer used certain convention stated as follows:

- [ ] : pause (Wu, 2001)  
 / : false start (Clark and Clark, 1977)  
 (xx..) : unfinished word (Ochs, 1997)

### Participant A: Josua Elka

#### Picture 1

- |       |  |
|-------|--|
| C (1) | Anak-anak [ ] sedang menaiki delman.   |
| M(2)  | Terus ini yang sopirnya delman namanya apa Jo?                                   |
| C(3)  | Pak kusir.   |
| M(4)  | Iya. Pak kusir bawa apa ini tangan kanannya?                                     |
| C(5)  | Bawa pecut.  |
| M(6)  | Pecut itu terbuat dari apa?  |
| C(7)  | Rotan.   |
| M(8)  | Iya. Gunanya untuk apa rot pecutnya itu Jo?                                      |
| C(9)  | Un[ ]tuk [ ] kudanya [ ] larinya cepat.  |
| M(10) | Terus tangan yang satunya pak kus tangan pak kusir satunya pegang apa?           |
| C(11) | Pegang [ ] tali.   |
| M(12) | Tali apa?  |
| C(13) | Tali apa ya?   |
| M(14) | Tali kekang kuda.  |
| C(15) | <b>Tali [ ] tali kekang kuda.</b>  |
| M(16) | Gunanya untuk apa tali kekang ini Jo?  |
| C(17) | Untuk memberhen[ ]tikan kuda.  |
| M(18) | Pinter. Trus bajunya pak kusir ini warnanya?                                     |
| C(19) | Merah muda.  |
| M(20) | Trus pak kusir kepalanya ada apanya di kepala pak kusir?                         |
| C(21) | Topi.  |
| M(22) | Pake topi. Warnanya?   |
| C(23) | Warnanya coklat.   |
| M(24) | Coklat muda.   |
| C(25) | Iya. Coklat muda.  |
| M(26) | Nah. Trus itu pak kusir ad ada apanya ini di hidungnya?                          |
| C(27) | Kumis.   |
| M(28) | Kumis. Seperti siapa?  |
| C(29) | Seperti pak siapa ya?  |
| M(30) | Pak siapa ayo mama yang bilang tadi?   |
| C(31) | lupa.  |
| M(32) | Pak raden.   |
| C(33) | Iya. Pak raden. Nyanyinya lalala   |
| M(34) | Terus ini. Pak seperti pak raden kan pak kusirnya. Nah kudanya ini warnanya apa? |
| C(35) | Kudanya warnanya abu-abu.  |
| M(36) | Warna abu-abu. Terus ini di lehernya kuda ada apanya Jo?                         |
| C(37) | Tali.  |
| M(38) | Tali apa namanya?  |
| C(39) | namanya tali (xx..)  |
| M(40) | Tali ikat leher.   |

C(41)	Tali ikat leher.
M(42)	Trus ini ada apanya di punggungnya kuda?
C(43)	Rambut.
M(44)	Tali.
M(46)	Tali apa?
C(47)	Tali <b>apa itu</b> tali (xx.)
M(48)	Tali pengikat hidung. Gunanya untuk apa?
C(49)	Gunanya untuk [ ] biar kudanya kalo dipecut [ ] nanti kalo kudanya dipecut biar bisa [ ] itu [ ] dengar suaranya.
M(50)	Terus ininya talinya ini warnanya apa? Tali mulutnya?
C(51)	Warna tali mulutnya warnanya hitam.
M(52)	Tali lehernya?
C(53)	Hitam.
M(54)	Hitam juga. Terus diatas punggung kuda ini ada apanya Jo?
C(55)	Ada (xx..)
M(56)	Namanya pelana.
C(57)	Pelana kuda.
M(58)	warnanya apa pelananya Jo?
C(59)	Coklat muda.
M(60)	Sama?
C(61)	Hitam.
M(62)	Iya. Sama hitam.
C(63)	Talinya hitam.
M(64)	Terus kakinya kuda ada berapa?
C(65)	Empat.
M(66)	Empat. Memakai apa ini kakinya kuda?
C(67)	Memakai sepatu kuda.
M(68)	Iya. Warnanya?
C(69)	Hitam.
M(70)	Terus ini apa euh delmannya ini tutupnya apa tutup atasnya ini warnanya apa?
C(71)	Warnanya [ ] coklat [ ] muda.
M(72)	Terus ini apa ini euh penyangganya ini?
C(73)	Penyangganya warnanya coklat tua.
M(74)	Warnanya coklat tua. Terus ini apa sandaran tempat duduknya ini warna apa?
C(75)	Coklat [ ] muda

### **Picture 2**

C(76)	Nomor 1. A[ ]da [ ] i[ ]bu [ ] mengasiki tanaman.
M(77)	Tanaman yang belum ada bu (xx..)
C(78)	Bunga.
M(79)	Ibu memberi bunga pada anak(xx..)
C(80)	Kecil.
M(81)	Anak laki apa anak perempuan?
C(82)	Perempuan.
M(83)	Kenapa disebut anak perempuan?
C(84)	Soalnya pake rok.
M(85)	Warnanya apa roknya?
C(86)	Warnanya merah dan biru.
M(87)	Terus ini bu ibunya ini bajunya warna apa?
C(88)	Coklat [ ] muda.
M(89)	Coklat muda. Ini daunnya masih ke (xx..)
C(90)	cil. Masih kecil.
M(91)	Daunnya masih kecil soalnya kan tanamannya masih kecil. Terus yang gambar 2?
C(92)	Gambar 2. Memberi pupuk.
M(93)	Gambar 2. Tanamannya ditaruh dimana ini?
C(94)	Pot.
M(95)	Dipindah di pot. Lalu diapakan tanamannya?
C(96)	Diberi pupuk.
M(97)	Sama disi
C(98)	ram.
M(99)	Terus kena apa ini?
C(100)	Matahari.



- M(101) Sinar matahari. Uh anak yang nanem bunga di pot ini uh yang na nanem tanaman di pot ini bajunya warnanya apa?
- C(102) Warnanya merah muda.
- M(103) Warnanya merah muda. Terus mataharinya?
- C(104) Warnanya [ ] o [ ] orange sama kuning.
- M(105) Ini daun yang gambar 1 sama gambar 2 ini sama ga?
- C(106) endak.
- M(107) Kenapa kok ndak sama?
- C(108) Soalnya ini masih kecil
- M(109) Yang gambar berapa?
- C(110) Gambar 1.
- M(111) Terus yang gambar 2?
- C(112) Itu sudah agak besar.
- M(113) Terus sekarang gambar yang ke 3.
- C(114) Anaknya [ ] sedang menyiram.
- M(115) Menyiram apa?
- C(116) Menyiram [ ] tanaman.
- M(117) Menyiram tanaman. Terus setiap hari apa enggak ini disiramnya?
- C(118) Setiap hari.
- M(119) Supaya apa tanamannya disirami?
- C(120) Supaya subur.
- M(121) Terus uh tanamannya ini juga kena apa ini?
- C(122) Sinar matahari.
- M(123) Ini anak yang menyiram bunga ini bajunya warna apa?
- C(124) Warnanya [ ] biru muda.
- M(125) Biru muda. Terus pake apa ini?
- C(126) Sandal.
- M(127) Warnanya?
- C(128) Warnanya [ ] coklat muda.
- M(129) Ini anak perempuan anak perempuan atau anak laki-laki?
- C(130) Perempuan.
- M(131) Kenapa disebut anak perempuan?
- C(132) Soalnya pake rok.
- M(133) Ini tempat airnya ini warnanya apa?
- C(134) Merah.
- M(135) Terus ini yang gambar 4?
- C(136) Sudah menjadi dewasa.
- M(137) Apanya yang sudah menjadi dewasa?
- C(138) Tanamannya.
- M(139) Terus keluar apanya?
- C(140) Bunganya.
- M(141) Bunganya warna apa Jo?
- C(142) Merah.
- M(143) Ada berapa bunganya?
- C(144) Tiga.
- M(145) Terus ini potnya warna?
- C(146) Coklat tua.
- M(147) Ini kena apa juga bunganya?
- C(148) Sinar matahari.
- M(149) Terus anak per yang di gambar 4 ini pake baju warna apa?
- C(150) hijau
- M(151) Trus pake apa juga ini kakinya?
- C(152) sandal
- M(153) Trus sedang apa ini?
- C(154) Sedang [ ] senyum.
- M(155) Kenapa kok tersenyum?
- C(156) Soalnya [ ] tanamannya sudah menjadi dewasa.
- M(157) dan berbu (xx..)
- C(158) nga.
- M(159) Bunganya bagus dan (xx..)
- C(160) dan [ ] indah



**Picture 3**

- C(161) Ini gambar 1. Ibu tani [ ] sedang [ ] mengambil (xx..)  
M(162) Memetik.  
C(163) Memetik [ ] padi.  
M(164) Di?  
C(165) Di sawah.  
M(166) Terus?  
C(167) Terus ada gunungnya. Abis gitu [ ] ibu tani [ ] menaruh padinya di keranjang.  
M(168) Keranjangnya itu ditaruh dimana sama bu tani Jo?  
C(169) Di punggungnya.  
M(170) Di punggungnya sapa?  
C(171) Bu tani.  
M(172) Di punggungnya bu tani. Berarti di gen (xx..)  
C(173) dong.  
M(174) Memakai apa gendongnya?  
C(175) Memakai selendang.  
M(176) Terus selendangnya warna apa Jo?  
C(177) Merah.  
M(178) Keranjangnya warna apa?  
C(179) Merah.  
M(180) Merah juga. Terus ini bajunya bu tani?  
C(181) Orange.  
M(182) Terus ini kepalanya bu tani memakai apa?  
C(183) Memakai (xx..)  
M(184) Capil. Warnanya apa capilnya?  
C(185) Warnanya coklat.  
M(186) Terus ini ada gambar apa lagi ini di nomor 1?  
C(187) Ada gambar [ ] gunung.  
M(188) Gunungnya warna apa?  
C(189) Hijau  
M(190) Terus ini ada gambar apa lagi ini?  
C(191) Sawah lain.  
M(192) sawah yang lain. Ini padinya banyak apa sedikit yang di gambar 1?  
C(193) Banyak.  
M(194) Terus di gambar 2 ini?  
C(195) Di gambar 2 [ ] padinya [ ] ditaruh [ ] di [ ] lumbung.  
M(196) Pinter. Ditaruh di lumbung. Terus ibu tani ini sedang apa?  
C(197) Ibu tani [ ] se[ ] dan[ ] [ ] me menumbuk padi.  
M(198) Di?  
C(199) Di [ ] lumbung.  
M(200) Lumbung. Bunyinya bagaimana kalau nembuk padi?  
C(201) dok dok dok dok  
M(202) Terus lumbungnya in. warna apa Jo?  
C(203) Coklat.  
M(204) Terus kayunya untuk menumbuk?  
C(205) Coklat.  
M(206) Coklat juga. Lalu bu taninya ini pake baju warna apa?  
C(207) Orange.  
M(208) Sama?  
C(209) Sama [ ] pa[ ] kai [ ] rok.  
M(210) Roknya ada gambarnya apa ini?  
C(211) Bunga.  
M(212) Gambarnya bunga. Terus ini bu tani ini rambutnya diapakan?  
C(213) Dif [ ] konde.  
M(214) Di konde. Terus di gambar 2 ini juga ada apa ini gambar apa ini?  
C(215) Padi.  
M(216) Banyak apa sedikit.  
C(217) Banyak.  
M(218) Ada berapa ikat ini padinya?  
C(219) dua.  
M(220) Dua ikat. Terus padinya warnanya apa?  
C(221) Kuning.  
M(222) Warna kuning. Terus kalo abis ditumbuk padinya trus jadi apa ya?  
C(223) Jadi beras.

M(224)	Terus gambar ke 3 ini se apa?
C(225)	Berasnya ditaruh karung.
M(226)	Berasnya ditaruh di karung.
C(227)	Sama bu tani.
M(228)	Ini sebelumnya ditaruh di apa dulu ini berasnya sebelum di karung? Di keran (xx..)
C(229)	jang.
M(230)	Seperti siapa ini?
C(231)	Seperti [ ] mama beli.
M(232)	Beli apa?
C(233)	Beras.
M(234)	Dita-uh dimana?
C(235)	Karung.
M(236)	Terus ini bu taninya ini pake baju apa?
C(237)	Orange.
M(238)	Sama pake apa ini?
C(239)	Celana panjang.
M(240)	Warnanya?
C(241)	Warnanya putih.
M(242)	Terus memakai apa juga ini kepalanya ini?
C(243)	Itu topi.
M(244)	Topinya bu .ani namanya capil.
C(245)	capil.
M(246)	Ini karungnya ini warna apa Jo?
C(247)	Warnanya coklat.
M(248)	Karungnya ini ada berapa?
C(249)	Dua.
M(250)	Terus keranjangnya ada berapa?
C(251)	Dua
M(252)	Berasnya warnanya?
C(253)	Kuning
M(254)	Warnanya kuning. Terus ini gambar ke 4. Ayo gambar ke 4 Jojo cerita.
C(255)	Ibu tani [ ] sedang memasak [ ] nasi.
M(256)	Memasak beras untuk menjadi nasi. Masak nasinya dimana?
C(257)	Di (xx..)
M(258)	Apa namanya ini?
C(259)	Namanya apa ya?
M(260)	Dandang.
C(261)	Dandang.
M(262)	Namanya dandang. Untuk memasak nasi itu namanya dandang.
C(263)	Dandang.
M(264)	Dimasak dimana ini?
C(265)	Dimasak [ ] di [ ] kompor.
M(266)	Di atas kompor. Terus ini kompornya warna apa?
C(267)	Coklat tua.
M(268)	Terus dari atas kompornya ini ada apanya ini?
C(269)	Ada (xx..)
M(270)	Untuk memasak nasi itu lho supaya matang itu lho ada apanya aini?
C(271)	Api
M(272)	Apinya warna apa Jo?
C(273)	Merah.
M(274)	Terus dandangnya warnanya?
C(275)	Dandangnya warnanya [ ] coklat muda.
M(276)	Terus ini ibu ini juga sedang pegang apa ini tangan satunya?
C(277)	Pegang tutup.
M(278)	Tutup apa?
C(279)	Tutupnya dandang.
M(280)	Kenapa kok pegang tutup dandang?
C(281)	Dilihat sudah matang.
M(282)	Sudah matang atau belum nasinya. Terus keluar apa ini JO?
C(283)	Asap
M(284)	Terus gambar ke 5 ini.
C(285)	Ibu tani [ ] menaruh nasi di (xx..)
M(286)	bakul

- C(287) Bakul  
M(288) Nasinya kalo sudah matang kalo sudah matang ditaru di (xx..)  
C(289) bakul  
M(290) Terus sambil pegang apa lagi ini tangan kanannya bu tani ini?  
C(291) Sendok nasi.  
M(292) satunya tangan kirinya?  
C(293) Pegang (xx..)  
M(294) Bakul. Bakulnya warna?  
C(295) Biru  
M(296) Terus sendok nasinya warna?  
C(297) Putih.  
M(298) Terus ini nasinya dari bakul mau taruh dimana?  
C(299) Di piring  
M(300) Kenapa kok ditaruh di piring nasinya?  
C(301) Soalnya [ ] ibu tani [ ] mau makan. Sama ayam kentucky. Minumnya pepsi.  
M(302) Terus rasanya apa ya?  
C(303) Rasanya enak.  
M(304) Piringnya ini warna apa Jo?  
C(305) Piringnya warnanya merah.

**Participant B: Sophie Elizabeth****Picture 4**

M(201)	Sofi, ini di gambar ini ada apa hayo?
C(202)	Al [da [ ] garisnya.
M(203)	Ndak. Ini gambarnya apa?
C(204)	Gambarnya anak laki.
M(205)	Kok tahu kalo ini anak laki-laki?
C(205)	Dari rambutnya.
M(207)	Dari rambutnya. Rambutnya panjang apa pendek?
C(208)	Pendek.
M(209)	Kalo ini rambutnya itu warna apa ini?
C(210)	Item.
M(211)	Bajunya?
C(212)	Merah tua.
M(213)	Celananya?
C(214)	Merah muda.
M(215)	Kaos kakinya?
C(216)	Orange.
M(217)	Sepatunya?
C(218)	Uh coklat muda.
M(219)	Coklat muda ta coklat tua?
C(220)	Coklat tua.
M(221)	Iya. Trus anak ini lho lihat apa ya nik ya?
C(222)	Lihat kue.
M(223)	Kuenya kenapa?
C(224)	Dilaleri.
M(225)	Diapain?
C(226)	Dilaleri.
M(227)	Ini kuenya ini di meja ini di piring ya kuenya tuh ditaruh di atas meja di dalam pi(xx. ) ring.
C(228)	ring.
M(229)	Ada berapa yuk dihitung.
C(230)	Sa[ ]tu [ ] dua [ ] tiga empat.
M(231)	Ada berapa jadinya?
C(232)	Empat.
M(233)	Warnanya apa ini kuenya?
C(234)	Kuning.
M(235)	Kuenya ini ada yang kue ada yang kaya roti ini kaya roti ya itu lagi diapain ya nik?
C(236)	Dilaleri.
M(237)	Kamu bisa ngitung lalernya berapa ini?
C(238)	Sa[ ]tu [ ] dua [ ] tiga empat lima enam tujuh delapan sembi[ ]lan sepuluh sebelas [ ] dua belas.
M(239)	Ada berapa laler?
C(240)	Dua belas.
M(241)	Banyak apa sedikit?
C(242)	Banyak.
M(243)	Ini kalo sudah makanan ini yang rotinya kalo sudah dilaleri bisa dimakan ga?
C(244)	Ga bisa.
M(245)	Kenapa?
C(246)	Um ntar sakit perut.
M(247)	Soalnya kotor. Soalnya laler itu dari mana-mana trus menclok di roti. Rotinya jadi kotor. Nonik mau ga makan kue ini yang sudah dilaleri.
C(248)	Ga mau.
M(249)	Kenapa?
C(250)	Kalo sakit perut jadinya <b>kalo kalo</b> mati.
M(251)	Jadi kalo nonik punya kue punya roti yang terbuka ya ga ada bungkusnya harus diapa nik?
C(252)	Di[ ]tutup.
M(253)	Pake apa?
C(254)	Pake tutup makan.
M(255)	Supaya apa?

- C(256) Ndak dilaleri.  
 M(257) Jadi makanannya jadi bersih karena ditutupi. Kalo dibiarkan gini dilaleri jadi kotor. Oya ini mejanya warna apa ya ini ya?  
 C(258) Coklat.  
 M(259) Piringnya?  
 C(260) Piringnya warna biru.  
 M(261) Tutup makannya?  
 C(262) Warna hijau.

**Picture 5**

- M(263) Nonik ini gambar apa hayo? Ini mamanya sama (xx..)  
 C( 264) Anaknya.  
 M(265) Lagi dimana ini?  
 C(266) Di rumah.  
 M(267) Di luar rumah? Dimana?  
 C(268) Di luar rumah.  
 M(269) Mereka lagi ngapain?  
 C(270) Lagi menjemur baju.  
 M(271) Lagi menjemur baju ya. Abis cuci-cuci bajunya ya (xx..)  
 C(272) Anaknya ini ikut cuci-cuci ta?  
 M(273) Ndak. Ikut bantu-bantu mamanya. Anaknya baik apa nggak?  
 C(274) Baik. Trus **kalo sudah kalo sudah** mencuci ayo nak merjemur baju yuk ayo.  
 M(275) Ini mamanya lagi ngapain?  
 C(276) Menjemur baju anaknya memeres.  
 M(277) Anaknya meres ya. Trus dikasi ke mamanya. Trus ini yang dijemur ini berapa baju nik ya?  
 C(278) Satu dua tiga.  
 M(279) Ada apa aja nik?  
 C(280) Baju celana [ ] baju.  
 M(281) Ini baju ta?  
 C(282) Iya.  
 M(283) Handuk ini.  
 C(284) Ooh handuk. Baju celana handuk.  
 M(285) Trus kalo baju abis dicuci trus dijemur. Kenapa sih kok anu apa baju kok abis dicuci kok dijemur?  
 C(286) Ga papa. Biar kering.  
 M(287) Oh biar kering. Ibu ini kalo jemur baju ya mamanya sama anaknya jemur baju itu waktu malam apa siang?  
 C(288) Um siang.  
 M(289) Kamu kok tahu kalo ini siang nik?  
 C(290) **Um soalnya [ ] soalnya [ ] um [ ]** matahari biar kering.  
 M(291) Ada mataharinya. Kamu tahu soalnya ini ada mata (xx..) hari.  
 C(292) Lho kalo dijemur pakaian itu kenapa kok mesti siang?  
 M(293) Karena biar kering.  
 C(294) Karena ada apa?  
 M(295) Karena ada apa?  
 C(296) Ada matahari.  
 M(297) Pinter kamu ya. Kalo sudah kering bajunya diapain nik?  
 C(298) Um [ ] dijemur.  
 M(299) Lho abis dijemur trus kalo sudah kering di (xx..)  
 C(300) Diambil.  
 M(301) Abis diambil diapain? Di go (xx..)  
 C(302) go (xx..)  
 M(303) Digosok.  
 C(304) Digosok.  
 M(305) Disetrika trus dili (xx..)  
 C(306) pet.  
 M(307) Supaya?  
 C(308) Ga tau.  
 M(309) Supaya rapi. Ini bajunya banyak apa ndak nik?  
 C(310) Cuma tiga te?  
 M(311) Yang dijemur. Yang disini yang di ember ada berapa?  
 C(312) Ada banyak.  
 M(313) Trus mamanya pake baju apa ini warnanya?



C(314)	Orange.
M(315)	Sama? Warna apa ini yang bawah?
C(316)	Merah.
M(317)	Merah ta ini? Warna apa ini?
C(318)	Orange.
M(319)	Lho yang bawahnya? Coklat. Ini anaknya pake warna apa ini bajunya?
C(320)	Baju.
M(321)	Iya bajunya warna apa?
C(322)	Merah.
M(323)	Embernya warnanya apa ini embernya?
C(324)	Coklat.

**Picture 6**

M(325)	Sofi, ini ada gambar apa hayo? Gambar anak-anak ini ada dimana?
C(326)	Diluar.
M(327)	Trus di luar rumah ini ada apa?
C(328)	Apa ya? Pohon.
M(329)	Pohonnya kecil apa besar?
C(330)	Besar.
M(331)	Warnanya apa ini daunnya?
C(332)	Hijau.
M(333)	Batangnya?
C(334)	Coklat.
M(335)	Trus di taman ini ada anak berapa ini?
C(336)	Dua.
M(337)	Ini anak laki ato perempuan.
C(338)	Laki.
M(339)	Yang satunya?
C(340)	Perempuan.
M(341)	Kalo ini yang laki ini pake baju warna apa aja ya?
C(342)	Warna kuning sama (xx..)
M(343)	Bajunya warna (xx..)
C(344)	Biru.
M(345)	Celananya warna?
C(346)	Kuning.
M(347)	Sepatunya?
C(348)	Coklat.
M(349)	Anak ini bawa apa ini anak laki-laki ini bawa apa?
C(350)	Bawa [ ] kincir angin.
M(351)	Kincir angin apa kincir air?
C(352)	Kincir angin.
M(353)	Pinter. Anak ini ngapain seneng ga sama kincir anginnya?
C(354)	Seneng.
M(355)	Trus anak laki-lakinya ini gimana nik?
C(356)	Lari.
M(357)	kanapa kok lari ya?
C(358)	Ada batu. <b>Kalo</b> [ ] <b>kalo</b> dia lari ada batu nanti jatuh.
M(359)	Anak ini lari kalo ga hati-hati kesandung (xx..)
C(360)	Jatuh. Kalo ga lihat-lihat.
M(361)	Kenapa anak ini kok lari ya nik ya?
C(362)	<b>Um</b> biar [ ] muter soalnya ga ada pencetannya.
M(363)	Apanya yang muter?
C(364)	Kincir anginnya.
M(365)	Dia lari supaya apa kincir anginnya itu bisa muter. Trus anak perempuan ini (xx..)
C(366)	<b>Um</b> metik bunga.
M(367)	Bajunya anak perempuan ini warnanya apa ya?
C(368)	<b>Um</b> merah.
M(369)	Sepatunya?
C(370)	Warna coklat.
M(371)	Bunga yang dipetik warnanya?
C(372)	Merah eh ungu.
M(373)	Kok ungu. Salah to.

- C(374) Ungu. Merah keunguan.  
M(375) Merah muda ta?  
C(376) Keunguan to.  
M(377) Masak sih? Ini merah muda.  
C(378) Tapi agak keunguan ma.  
M(379) Iya. Trus ini rumputnya?  
C(380) Rumputnya warna hijau tua.  
M(381) Trus ini batunya warna apa ini batu-batu yang mbatesi rumput ini lho?  
C(382) **Uh warna [ ] warna coklat.**  
M(383) Ada berapa batu yang mbatesin rumput ini?  
C(384) Satu dua tiga empat lima enam.  
M(385) Ada?  
C(386) Enam.  
M(387) Pinter. Rumahnya ini warna apa ini?  
C(388) Coklat.  
M(389) Trus gentengnya?  
C(390) Coklat.  
M(391) Lho warnanya rumah ini warna apa?  
C(392) Putih.  
M(393) Yang coklat itu warna gen(xx..)  
C(394) teng.  
M(395) Yang di dalam rumah ini ada siapa ya?  
C(396) Papa mama.  
M(397) Papa mamanya pake baju apa ini?  
C(398) Kuning.  
M(399) Trus kalo yang papanya?  
C(400) Warna coklat.  
M(401) Trus mama papanya di dalam apa di luar rumah ini?  
C(402) Di [ ] rumah.  
M(403) Di dalam rumah. Ngapain papa mamanya?  
C(404) Beres-beres.  
M(405) Ooh beres-beres. Nggak lihat anaknya ta?  
C(406) Nggak.  
M(407) Lihat rek. Abis beres-beres rumah trus lihat anaknya di (xx..)  
C(408) Luar. **Papanya papanya [ ] tinggi mamanya pendek.**  
M(409) Iya.



**Participant C: Andik Djatmiko****Picture 7**

C(384)	Keluarga <b>apa</b> keluarga [ ] sedang (xx..)
M(385)	Sedang apa?
C(386)	Sedang (xx..)
M(387)	Bersantai. Ayo ini ada apa ini ada siapa saja gambar disini?
C(388)	<b>Kelu keluarga.</b>
M(389)	Iya. Ada apa saja?
C(390)	Papa.
M(391)	Mama. Trus (xx..)
C(392)	Adik.
M(393)	Adik kecil. Sama kakaknya papanya ini sedang pegang apa?
C(394)	Koran warnanya putih.
M(395)	Trus bajunya papanya ini?
C(396)	<b>Kuning hi kuning hitam.</b>
M(397)	Apanya yang hitam hayo?
C(398)	Rambut.
M(399)	Rambutnya hitam.
C(400)	Ini biru.
M(401)	Apanya? Celananya biru.
C(402)	Ini warna coklat sepatunya.
M(403)	Sepatunya warna coklat.
C(404)	Sepatu [ ]nya semuanya warna coklat.
M(405)	Iya. Ini uh kaosnya papanya ini (xx..)
C(406)	<b>Warna kuning.</b>
M(407)	Lengannya pan (xx..)
C(408)	jang.
M(409)	Panjang. Trus sebelahnya papanya ini ada siapa?
C(410)	Koko.
M(411)	Koko pake baju apa warnanya?
C(412)	Ijo trus sama ijo muda celananya.
M(413)	Trus ini pake apa sepatunya ini?
C(414)	<b>Kaos [ ] kaos</b> kaki warnanya putih. Sepatunya warna coklat.
M(415)	Sedang apa ini kokonya sama papanya?
C(416)	Sedang berbicara. Rambutnya warna hitam sama [ ] papanya juga. Warna rambutnya warna hitam.
M(417)	Trus ini mamanya sedang apa?
C(418)	<b>Sedang [ ] sedang itu apa</b> (xx..)
M(419)	Memangku adil kecil ya. Ini mamanya bajunya warna apa?
C(420)	Merah muda. Roknya warna merah tua. Rambutnya warna hitam. Anak kecilnya pake baju kuning. Kaos kakinya warna putih. Sepatunya warna coklat tua. Rambutnya warna hitam. Trus cecunya ini lagi main boneka. Bonekanya warna [ ] orange. Namanya bonekanya anjing trus eh [ ] beruang. Trus ini rambutnya warna hitam. Ada kancingnya warna merah tua sama kantongnya warna merah tua. Bajunya warna merah muda. Sepatunya warna coklat tua tapi masih ada sedikit ada (xx..)
M(421)	Kelihatan sedikit sepatunya iya?
C(422)	Trus ini ada vas bunga. Daunnya [ ] banyak trus sama bunganya [ ] sedikit ada dua. Daunnya ada satu [ ] dua tiga empat lima enam.
M(423)	Warnanya apa daunnya?
C(424)	Ijo. Trus tangkainya <b>war / ada</b> warna ijo yang juga ada [ ] empat.
M(425)	Bunganya ada berapa?
C(426)	Dua. Warna merah tua.
M(427)	Vasnya tadi warna apa ini vasnya?
C(428)	Warna putih. Trus ada gambarnya. Gambarnya bagus.
M(429)	Trus ini mejanya?
C(430)	Warna putih. Kursinya warna putih. Ini lho juga putih.
M(431)	Ada berapa kursinya?
C(432)	Dua.
M(433)	Trus ini adik kecil sedang apa ya?
C(434)	<b>Sedang itu apa</b> (xx..)
M(435)	Sedang dada. Trus apa itu bajunya mamanya ini ada apanya ini?
C(436)	Ada kerah.

- M(437) Ada kerah. Trus ada apanya ini?  
 C(438) Ada [ ] kancing.  
 M(439) Jadi keluarga ini lagi santai.  
 C(440) Rambutnya ini warna hitam.  
 M(441) Santai di ruang keluarga.

**Picture 8**

- M(442) Induk ayam sedang apa ini?  
 C(443) Ayam **sed** / [ ] **induk ayam** sedang [ ] mengeram telur.  
 M(444) Ini induk a ini ayamnya ayam apa betina apa jantan?  
 C(445) Betina.  
 M(446) kenapa kok disebut ayam betina?  
 C(447) Soalnya bisa **me** / [ ] **bertelur**.  
 M(448) trus ayam jantan bisa bertelur ga?  
 C(449) ndak bisa.  
 M(450) Terus ini um apa telurnya berapa yang dierami?  
 C(451) **Tig** / [ ] **satu** dua tiga.  
 M(452) warnanya apa telurnya?  
 C(453) Kuning.  
 M(454) Warnanya kuning. Trus yang dibuat yang dibuat untuk mengerami ini?  
 C(455) Jerami.  
 M(456) Dari jerami. Bentuknya bu (xx..)  
 C(457) lat.  
 M(458) Bentuknya bulat. Terus ini ada apanya ini ya?  
 C(459) Ada pager.  
 M(460) Pagernya warna apa?  
 C(461) Coklat.  
 M(462) Pagernya warna coklat. Ayamnya ini warna apa?  
 C(463) Merah.  
 M(464) Terus sekarang yang kedua ini gambar apa?  
 C(465) Anak ayam sedang ber **apa** sedang [ ] telurnya sudah pecah.  
 M(466) sudah menetas. Telurnya sudah menetas, trus keluar apa?  
 C(467) Anak ayam.  
 M(468) Ada berapa? Coba dihitung anak ayamnya.  
 C(469) **Satu** dua [ ] tiga [ ] empat.  
 M(470) Terus ini anak ayam ini bunyinya gimana ya?  
 C(471) Cuit cuit.  
 M(472) Terus telurnya yang menetas ini warnanya apa?  
 C(473) Kuning.  
 M(474) terus yang ke tiga ini sedang apa ini ayamnya?  
 C(475) **Ayam** / **anak ayam** sedang makan beras atau jagung.  
 M(476) Anak ayam sedang makan sama sapa hayo?  
 C(477) Sama [ ] induk ayam.  
 M(478) Terus anak-anak ayam ini warnanya apa ya?  
 C(479) **Uh** orange.

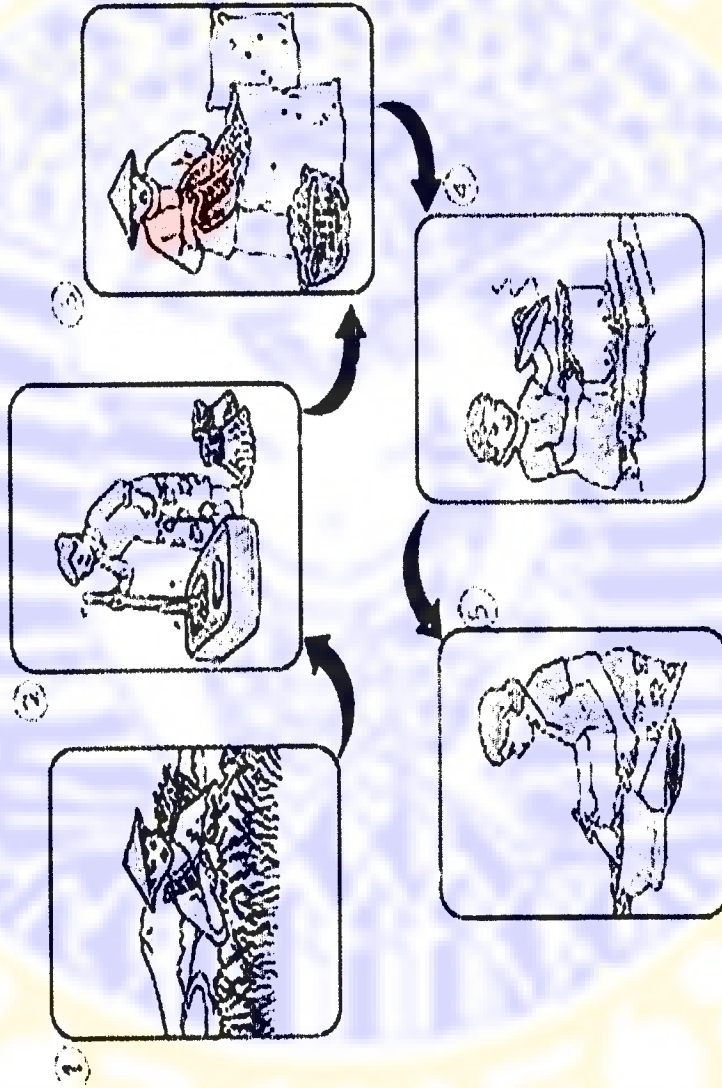


PICTURE 1

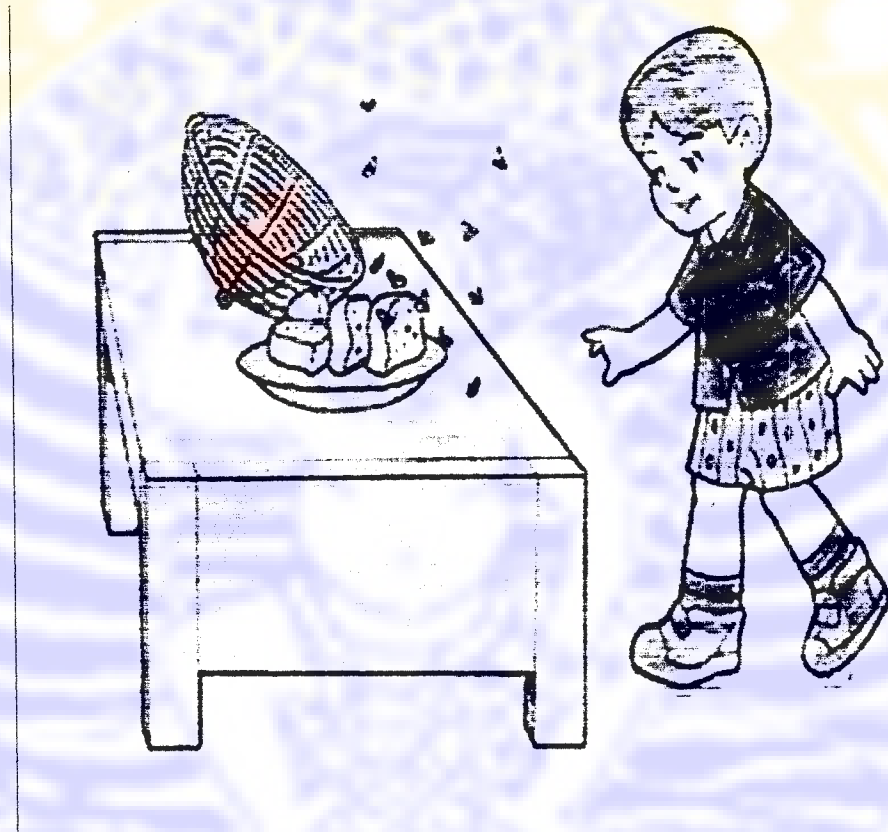
PICTURE 2



PICTURE 3

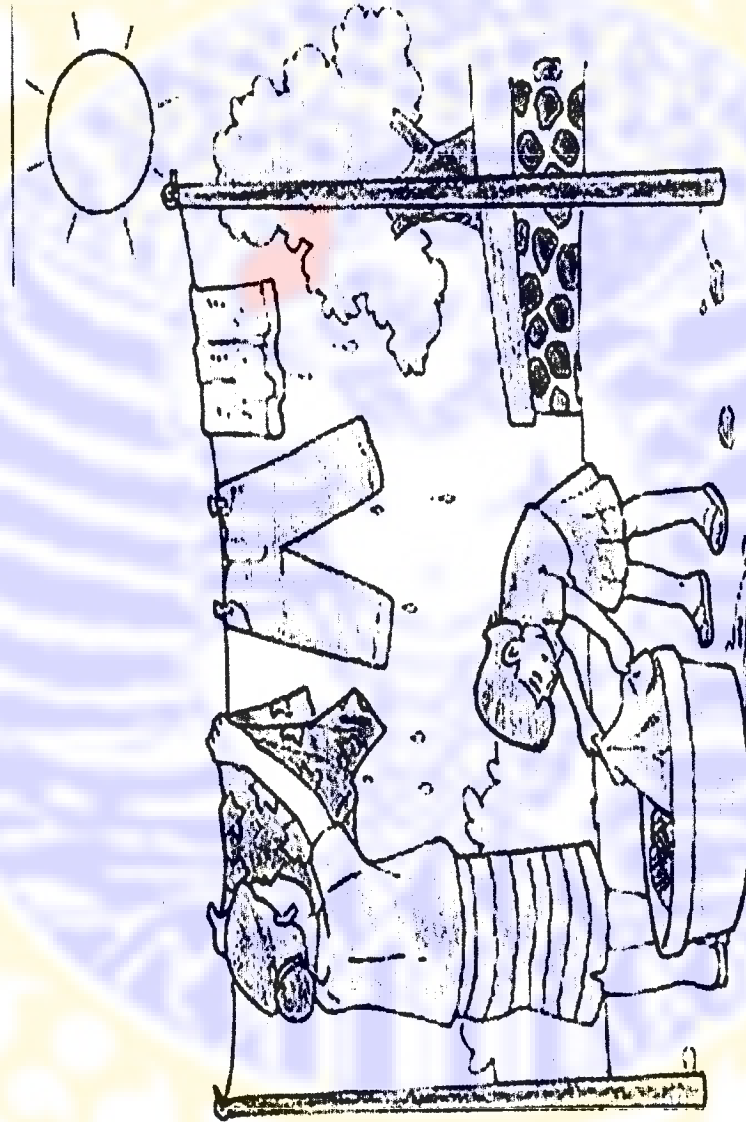


PICTURE 4



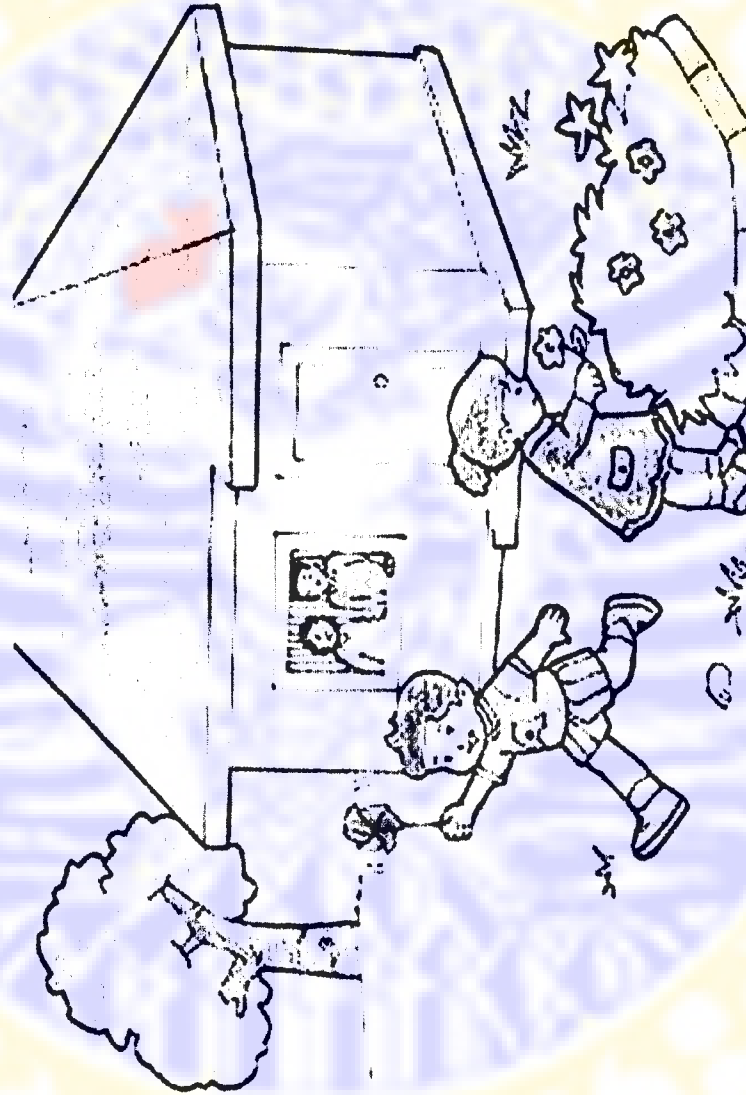


PICTURE 5

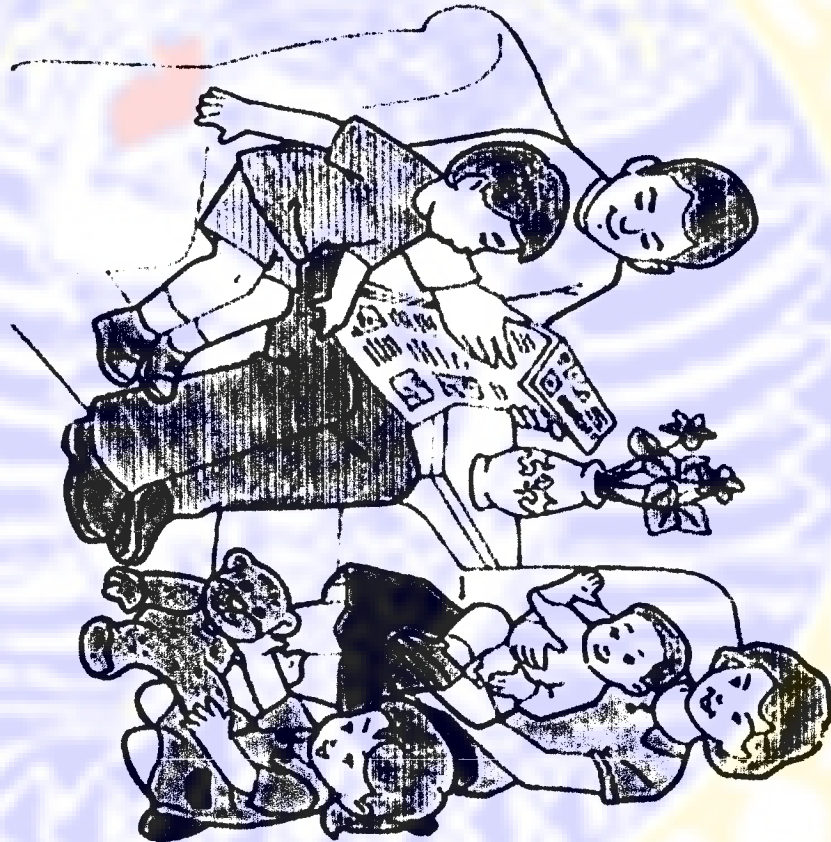




PICTURE 6



PICTURE 7



PICTURE 8

