Grammatical Competence of The Deaf by Written Language Base on Social Media Facebook

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to explore the grammatical competence of deaf people as revealed through their language performance (sentence) on social media Facebook. This is motivated by the fact that deaf people are proven to be able to be given linguistic stimulus (linguistic environment) as well as normal people (hearing people). It must be admitted that the language performance of deaf people is very different from the language performance of normal people, but it can be paraphrased or reconstructed, so that the grammatical competencies embedded in their minds are described. Sentence data is taken purposively from social media Facebook. The sample is three to five sentence forms for each type, then analyzed by qualitative descriptive analysis method based on a structural grammar approach. The result is that the single sentences of the deaf are proven to be patterned, which are spread into five basic sentence patterns, namely NP+VP, NP+AP, NP+NP, NP+NumP, and NP+PrepP. However, at the morphological level, it was revealed that the dominant morphological words were only affixation words, namely the affixes of *ber-, di-, ke-, per-an,* and *ke-an.* In general, these affixes are used in an unusual way, except for the prefixes on certain words, such as play. Then, at the syntactic level, in general the pattern of phrases made is the opposite pattern of the general pattern of Indonesian phrases, namely the head-attribute pattern to attribute-head and vice versa. There are also grammatical deviations in the field, which are caused by (1) omitting and (2) unusual word order variations.

Keywords: grammatical competence, written language, deaf.

INTRODUCTION

If given linguistic stimulus (linguistic environment), deaf people are proven to be able to acquire language competence as normal hearing people. This is proven by their ability to communicate in written language on Facebook social media. The interesting thing is that the grammatical performance of the deaf is very different from the grammatical performance of normal people or hearing people. However, if their language performance is paraphrased or reconstructed, it will be revealed that their written sentences are patterned and can be returned to the basic pattern of Indonesian core sentences. Likewise, the word forms used can still be returned to their grammatical form. The following is an example of the performance of the deaf written sentences taken randomly from the social media Facebook.

(1)   Kesepi aku. [kesepian]
Kesepi   aku.
lonely   I
(I am lonely)
(2)   FB temanmu banyak.
FB   teman   mu   banyak.
FB   friend   your   a lot
(Your friends' FB is a lot.)

In the two examples above, there are two phenomena that arise from deviations from the application of the Indonesian language syntax rules in the written language of the deaf on social media Facebook. Example (1) contains the use of the word *kesepi* which is detected as a word form that deviates from the morphological form of the Indonesian language. In everyday Indonesian there is no form of the word *kesepi*, there is a form of the word *kesepian* 'lonely'. In example (2) there is a deviation from syntactic rules, namely deviations from the order of words in noun phrases. In this case, Indonesian noun phrases generally follow the head-attribute pattern: *teman FB-mu* 'your friend's FB', but in written language the deaf it is reversed attribute–head: *FB temanmu* 'FB your friend's'.

In this connection, the terms competence and grammatical performance were popularized by Chomsky (1965), which actually still has the same concept as the terms langue and parole which was introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure in 1916 (Saussure, 1988). However, the analysis uses the structural grammar theory introduced by Verhaar (1986, 1991) with the concept of a syntactic level: function-category-role.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study follows the theory of structural grammar. With this theory, grammar is divided into two distinct, but interrelated fields of study, namely morphology and syntax. Morphology is a grammatical component that examines how words are formed from smaller units (called morphemes). In studying how the word consists of morpheme components and what morphological processes connect one morpheme and another morpheme into an autonomous word. The syntax examines the joining of two or more words into phrases, clauses, and sentences.

According to Radford (2004: 1), both traditional grammar and grammar, the syntax of a language is explained in taxonomy terms (ie a list of classifications) of the various types of syntactic structures found in the language. The main assumptions that analyze syntax in grammar are constructions and that phrases and sentences are constructed from constituents (i.e. syntactic units), each of which belongs to a particular grammatical category and serves a particular grammatical function. With this assumption, the language task is to analyze the expert syntactic structure of each given type of sentence with the aim of identifying each constituent in the sentence, and (for each constituent) explaining its category, as well as the function it carries out.

In this connection, Saussure (1916) has from the beginning again introduced a dichotomy between language and parole which is balanced with the dichotomy between competence and performance. Holdcroft (1991) explores Saussure's concept of the difference between langue and parole. The critical question posed is first, is language itself a definitive thing of an object, so that linguistics is limited to that study and nothing else? Second, without language we cannot define the object of study, which of course includes language, but also other things? According to Holdcroft, that the second alternative is defended by Saussure. It should be added here that although the subject matter is a dichotomy, there are actually three different terms, namely langage (universal language), langue (certain language); and parole (speech). Indeed, Saussure needs more time to try to distinguish language from language than to try to distinguish it from parole. According to Holdcroft, the distinction Saussure wants to make in French is far from easy in English. Therefore, Holdcroft takes a gap here to try to express Saussure's thinking, which has the dimension of the universe by basing his understanding on the following diagram.
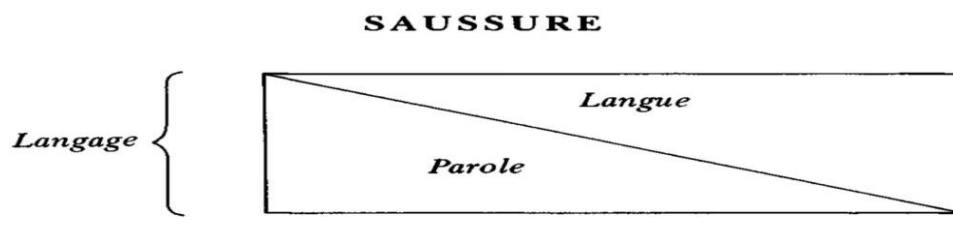

Figure 1. Langage of Saussure

For the same concept, Chomsky in his work dating back to the 1960s, has drawn a distinction between competence (the latent knowledge of a fluent native speaker of his language) and performance (what people actually say or understand with what others have said on occasion.). Competence is 'speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language', whereas performance is 'actual use of language in concrete situations' (Chomsky, 1965: 4). Based on this, according to Stemmer (1971: 65), it is methodologically impossible to develop a theory of competence that is independent or independent of performance theory.

Very often happens if the performance is done incorrectly then it can be considered as a reflection of imperfect competence. In fact, we all make mistakes sometimes, either speaking mistakes or misinterpreting something that other people say to us. However, this does not mean that we do not understand our mother tongue or that we do not have competence in it. Misproduction and misinterpretation are performance errors, caused by various performance factors such as fatigue, boredom, drunkenness, the influence of drugs, certain external disturbances, and so on.

It is important to understand that the grammar of a language tells you what you need to know to gain competence like a native speaker in that language, including being able to speak the language like a fluent native speaker. Therefore, it is clear that grammar has more to do with competence than with performance. This is not to deny the interest in performance as a field of study, but only to emphasize that performance is also studied in the discipline of psycholinguistics which studies the psychological processes that underlie speech production and understanding.

In the terminology adopted by Chomsky (1986: 19-56), when studying the grammatical competence of native speakers of a language such as English, we are basically studying the cognitive system internalized in the brain/mind of native speakers of that language. The main objective in studying competence is to classify and characterize the nature of the internalized linguistic system (or L-language, as Chomsky term: L-language) that makes

native speakers proficient in English. Such a cognitive approach has clear implications for descriptive linguists engaged in the study of the grammar of a particular language. According to him, the grammar of a language is an 'L-language theory under investigation'. This means that in designing the grammar of English, we try to uncover the internalized linguistic system, which is owned by native speakers of the language.

Coit Butler in While (1994) says that competence is a behavioral goal, while others see it as an interaction between the components of knowledge and skills. However, it is emphasized that competence is more of a descriptive concept than a normative concept and the reference is more to things or activities than to properties or circumstances. Furthermore, Coit Butler in While (1994) postulates four normative conceptualizations of competence as follows:

a) Performance can be measured for competencies regarding certain behaviors.

b) Competence can be viewed as having the relevant knowledge and/or skills.

c) Competence can be seen as an indication of the level of ability that is considered sufficient in certain activities.

d) Finally, a holistic conceptualization of competence includes knowledge, skills, attitudes, performance, and level of adequacy.

In this connection, While (1994) argues that in practice, competence is not always highly correlated with performance. For this, Sternberg (1990) separates the two and states that competence is not an objective phenomenon related to perceived and unmeasurable skills, while performance is open to measurement.

METHODOLOGY

This study collects written data from the deaf who use the Facebook social media service to communicate in cyberspace. A total of 20 respondents in this study were users of Facebook social media services which were selected purposively based on; (1) the degree of deafness; (2) gender; (3) age and (4) cultural background. In the determination based on the level of deafness, it was confirmed that all respondents were deaf and had never been exposed to the sounds of language, in other words, they were born with total deafness. For the determination of gender, it is divided equally, namely 10 men and 10 women aged between 17-21 years. This is done because it is known that these social media service users are generally used by teenagers. Finally, the determination based on cultural background is carried out in order to find varied data so that it is hoped that the data obtained can be a reflection of how the language behavior of deaf people in Indonesia is. About 100 Indonesian sentence data were obtained which were then summarized into 3 to 5 examples or samples for each grammatical type in the analysis.

In this study, data analysis was carried out qualitatively with grounded research efforts. In its presentation, there are three stages, namely, (1) identifying the data, (2) classifying the data, and (3) analyzing the data. In stage (1) all data are identified based on the unit of analysis that will be described. The unit of analysis in this case is grammatical forms in the form of formed words, phrases, and clauses, as well as single sentences of written language obtained from social media Facebook. The next stage is the unit of analysis, then it is classified and given a description of the distinguishing characteristics based on the morphological and syntactic aspects they have.

In the syntactic aspect, it will be classified based on statements of types of phrases such as noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), adjective phrases (AP), numeral phrases (NumP), and prepositional phrases (PrepP) in terms of their structure and placement in the pattern. Indonesian basic sentences. Likewise, the classification of sentences based on (variations) in the structure of the function can be contrasted or exposed with the grammatical structure of the Indonesian language function.

ANALYSIS
Deaf Grammar Competencies

At the morphological level, the deaf are very limited in their competence in using affixes. Affixes that are often used are ***ber-***, ***di-***, and ***ke-an***. The affix that can be used correctly is ber although there are times when it is misplaced. Other affixes are used incorrectly. For example, the words ***bermain***, ***bergaul, pernikahan*** affixes with roles and affixes have been used correctly. However, ***dipernah, bermarah, kepergian, kesepi***, and ***dihebat*** are examples of word forms where affixes are used inappropriately. Example:

(3)   FB temanmu banyak; ***bergaul*** baik sahabat kamu.
FB temanmu   banyak; ***bergaul*** baik   sahabat   kamu.
FB friends   many   get along   well   friend   your
(Your FB friends are many; get along well your best friend)

(4)   Karena aku tidak *dipernah* itu *kepergian*. [pernah, bepergian]
Karena aku   tidak (di)pernah itu   kepergian.
Because I   never had   it   go (travel)

(Because I never travel).

(5)   Happy ***pernikahan*** Restu dan Ayu.
Happy   pernikahan   Restu dan Ayu.
Happy marriage   Restu and Ayu.
(Restu and Ayu's marriage is happy)

(6)   Sebab doiku bermarah sama aku terus. [marah]
Sebab   doi   ku   (ber)marah
            sama   aku   terus

Because boy friend   my   angry
          with   me   all the time
(Because my boy friend is angry with me all the time).

(7)   Itu langsing **dihebat.**
Itu   langsing   dihebat
That's   slim   great
(That's great slim)

In general, Indonesian affixes are trimmed from words that are usually used as places of use.

(8)   Aku   lomba   *ikut*   hadiah   dapat   banyak. [*mengikuti*]
Aku   lomba   *ikut*
          hadiah dapat   banyak.
I   the competition   took part in   prizes   got a lot of
 (I took part in the competition and got a lot of prizes)

(9)   Aku tidak lagi Robi *ikut*. [*mengikutkan*]
Aku   tidak   lagi   Robi   *ikut*
I   no   longer   Robi   follow
(I no longer follow Robi).

(10)   HP-ku *virus* gara kontak hilang semua**. [*bervirus*]**
HP-ku   *virus*   gara
          kontak   hilang semua
Handphone-my   (has a) virus   because contacts lost
          all
(Because my handphone has a virus, all contacts are lost)

(11)   HP-mu *jual* harga berapa. [*dijual*]
HP-mu   *jual*   harga   berapa.
HP-your   does sell for   price   how much?
How much does your HP sell for?

(12)   Jangan *pacar*, stop. [*berpacaran*]
Jangan   *pacar*,   stop.
Don't   (be) a girlfriend, Hentikan
Don't be a girlfriend, hentikan.

(13)   Maaf, malas, gak, tidak *pacar*, stop. [*berpacaran*]
Malas, gak,   tidak   *pacar*, stop.
Lazy   no   no   boyfriend   hentikan
(Lazy, no, no girlfriend, berhenti

At the syntactical level, deaf people have shown their ability to make sentences. It is evident that the resulting sentences can be returned to the five basic patterns of core sentences, namely N+V, N+A, N+Num, N+N, and N+Prep or the following terms are often used.

(a) Noun Phrase + Verb Phrase
(b) Noun Phrase + Adjective Phrase
(c) Noun Phrase + Noun Phrase

(d) Noun Phrase + Numeral Phrase
(e) Noun Phrases + Prepositional Phrases

1.   Noun Phrase + Verb Phrase

This pattern can be read that the subject function of the sentence consists of a noun phrase, in this case a single person pronoun and the predicate function is filled with a verb phrase, in this case a verb.

(14)   Aku lomba ikut [Aku ikut lomba]

I'm in the competition [I'm taking part in the competition]

(15)   Aku hadiah dapat banyak [Aku mendapat banyak hadiah]
I got a lot of gifts

2.   Noun Phrase + Adjective Phrase

This pattern can be read that the sentence subject function consists of a noun phrase and the predicate function is filled with an adjective phrase.

(16)   Baik sahabat kamu. [Sahabat kamu baik]
Good your friend. [Your friend is good]
(17)   Foto bebas lagi.
Free photos again [Taking pictures can be free again]
(18)   Sakit kaki.
Sakit kaki saya.
(My leg hurts)
(19)   Kesepi aku
Lonely I
(I am lonely)
(20)   Happy pernikahan Restu dan Ayu.
Happy marriage Restu and Ayu.
(Restu and Ayu's marriage is happy)

3.   Noun Phrases + Noun Phrases

This pattern can be read that the subject function of the sentence consists of a noun phrase and the predicate function is also filled with a noun phrase.

(21)   Sahabat kamu.[Kamu sahabat]
(You are a friend).

(22)   HP-ku virus.
(My handphone has a virus).

(23)   Aku biasa jomblo.
(I'm usually single).

(24)   Dia Linda; biasa jomblo.
(She is Linda who is usually single)

(25)   Pacar(an) itu siapa.
(Who's the boyfriend)

4.   Noun Phrase + Numeral Phrase

This pattern can be read that the subject function of the sentence consists of a noun phrase and the predicate function is filled with a numeral phrase.

(26)   FB temanmu banyak [teman FB-mu banyak].
Your FB friends are many [your FB friends are many].

(27)   Kamu (se)kelas sekolah ....
You (a) school class ....
(28)   Berapa kalian.
How much are you?

5.   Noun Phrases + Prepositional Phrases

This pattern can be read that the subject function of the sentence consists of a noun phrase and the predicate function is filled with a prepositional phrase. Example:

(29)   Di rumah Sukron. [Sukron di rumah]
Sukron is at home.

A. Deviation of the phrase structure of the written language of deaf people

1.   Noun Phrases

In general, Indonesian noun phrases follow the head-attribute pattern. In this case, the core element is in front of the attribute element. However, deaf written language follows the opposite pattern, namely head-attribute. Example:

motor aku   → aku motor
my motorbike   → I motorbike

teman FB-mu   → FB temanmu
your FB friends   → FB your friends

mata Vivin   → Vivin mata
Vivin's eyes   →Vivin's eyes

teman sekolahmu   → sekolah temanmu
your schoolmate → your friend's school

bola futsal   → futsal bola
futsal ball   → futsal ball

2.   Verb Phrases

In general, Indonesian verb phrases follow the attribute-head pattern. In this case, the attribute element precedes the core element, however, the performance of deaf verb phrases follows the opposite pattern, namely the head-attribute pattern. Example:

sudah mandi   → mandi sudah
already showered
ngerti kurang   → kurang ngerti
less know   don't know
sedih masih   → masih sedih
sad still   still sad

semangat (ber)salat (di)masjid   →   Salat   masjid   semangat
enthusias (pray) (at) the mosque → Praying in the mosque is enthusiastic.

Deviations in the sentence structure of the written language of deaf people

There are two forms of grammatical deviations at the sentence level that stand out, namely (1) there are omissions and (2) unusual order variations. Both of these will be explained with their respective examples below. The form of omission that often occurs is the loss of the function of the subject. Example:

(30)   Biarkan [aku] tinggal tetap aja sebab doiku bermarah sama aku terus.
Let [me] stay alone because my boyfriend is angry with me all the time.

(31)   Ini hari [aku] foto.
It's my photo day.
(32)   [aku] jomblo tetap, Gak (ada) pacar.
(I'm) still single, (I) don't have a boyfriend.

(33)   Aku biasa jomblo, [aku] sedih masih
I used to be single, [I'm] sad still
The unusual order variation that is often found in deaf written language is the Predicate-Subject (P/S) arrangement. Actually, the arrangement or structure of the P/S is not a form of deviation in the syntax of the Indonesian language, but the examples of performance for the deaf seem unusual. Example:

(34)   Gila nakal Ayu Lestari. [Ayu Lestari gila (dan) nakal]
Crazy naughty Ayu Lestari. [Ayu Lestari is crazy (and) naughty]

(35)   Mau semua cewek. [Semua cewek mau]
Want all the girls. [All girls want]

(36)   Gak suka dia Vivin mata. [Dia gak suka mata Vivin]
He doesn't like her Vivin eyes. [He doesn't like Vivin's eyes]

In addition, at the clause and sentence level, the complementary function takes a place in front of the predicate, even though it has become a rule of Indonesian syntax that the complement is firmly behind the predicate. In fact, because of the close relationship between predicate and object, locative or temporal syntactic functions are not allowed to separate predicate and object (see Sudaryanto, 1983).

(37)   Aku lomba ikut. [Aku (meng)ikut(i) lomba]
I took part in the competition. [I (entered)(i) the competition]

(38)   Aku hadiah dapat banyak. [Aku mendapat banyak hadiah]
I got a lot of prizes. [I got a lot of gifts]

CONCLUSION

At the morphological level, the competence of the deaf to use affixes is very limited. Affixes that are often used are *ber-, di-, ke-,* and *ke-an*. The affix that can be used correctly is ber although there are times when it is misplaced. Other affixes are used too, but incorrectly. At the syntactical level, deaf people have shown their ability to make sentences. It is proven that the resulting sentences can be returned to the five basic core sentence patterns, namely Noun Phrases + Verb Phrases, Noun Phrases + Adjective Phrases, Noun Phrases + Noun Phrases, Noun Phrases + Numeral Phrases, and Noun Phrases + Prepositional Phrases.
There are two grammatical deviations that stand out at the sentence level, namely (1) there is an omission and (2) unusual word order variations. In general, Indonesian noun phrases follow the head-attribute pattern. In this case, the parent element precedes the attribute element. However, the deaf written language follows the opposite pattern, namely attribute-head. In addition to this, at the clause and sentence level, it is found that the complementary function is placed in front of the predicate, even though it has become a rule of Indonesian syntax that the complement is firmly behind the predicate.

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