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## **Description of the Course**

Sociolinguistics is a compulsory course offered at the English Department undergraduate program of the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Pakuan University, Bogor, Indonesia. The aim of the course is to equip students in understanding the relationship between language and society. The topics covered in this course are the components of communication, language variation in bilingual and multilingual nations, code-mixing, code-switching, borrowing, language variation focus on users, language variation focus on uses, and the characteristics of the language of women.

The materials are adapted and compiled from various sources.

This material is intended for internal use only.

## SOCIOLINGUISTICS SYLLABUS

MEETING	TOPICS
1	Definition of Sociolinguistics
2	Linguistic varieties in bilingual and multilingual nations
3	Components of Communication
4	Components of Communication
5	Code-Switching, Code-Mixing, Borrowing
6	QUIZ
7	PRESENTATION
8	<b>MID-TERM SEMESTER EXAM</b>
9	Regional variation and Social variation
10	Register
11	Slang
12	Taboo Words
13	Characteristics of Women Language
14	QUIZ
15	PRESENTATION
16	<b>FINAL TERM EXAM</b>

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## DEFINITION OF SOCIOLINGUISTICS

### Answer the questions below:

1. What are the similarities and differences of the definition of sociolinguistics by Plat and Plat (1997), Chaer and Agustina (2004), Holmes (2013) and Soemarsono (2014)?

#### **A. Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Plat&Plat,1997:339)**

The study of language in relation to social factors; social class, educational level, and type of education, age, sex, **ethnic** origin, etc.

#### **B. Chaer & Agustina (2004:2)**

- Bidang ilmu antardisiplin yang mempelajari bahasa dalam kaitannya dengan penggunaan bahasa dalam masyarakat.

- **(2004:5)** Konferensi sosiolinguistik pertama yang berlangsung di University of California, Los Angeles, tahun 1964, telah merumuskan adanya tujuh dimensi dalam penelitian sosiolinguistik:

1. Identitas sosial dan penutur
2. Identitas sosial dari pendengar yang terlibat dalam proses komunikasi
3. Lingkungan sosial tempat peristiwa tutur terjadi
4. Analisis sinkronik dan diakronik dari dialek-dialek sosial
5. Penilaian sosial yang berbeda oleh penutur akan perilaku bentuk-bentuk ujaran
6. Tingkatan variasi dan ragam linguistik
7. Penerapan praktis dari penelitian sosiolinguistik

#### **- Manfaat sosiolinguistik:**

- ✓ Memberikan pengetahuan bagaimana cara menggunakan bahasa; who speak, what language, to whom, and to what end (Fishman in Chaer and Agustina, 2004:7).
- ✓ Memberikan pedoman kepada kita dalam berkomunikasi dengan menunjukkan bahasa, ragam bahasa atau gaya bahasa apa yang harus kita gunakan jika kita berbicara dengan orang tertentu.

#### **C. (Holmes,2013:1)**

Sociolinguistics study the relationship between language and society. It is interested in explaining why we speak differently in different social context.” It asks questions such as:

- What is the social function of language?
- How is it used to convey social meaning?
- The purpose of this is to provide information about the way language works, the way people signal aspects of their social identity through language.

**D. Soemarsono (2014:1)**

Sociolinguistik menyangkut sosiologi dan linguistik. *Socio* adalah masyarakat dan *linguistik* adalah bahasa. Jadi, sociolinguistik adalah kajian tentang bahasa yang dikaitkan dengan kondisi kemasyarakatan (dipelajari oleh ilmu-ilmu sosial khususnya sosiologi). Cakupan sociolinguistik: bahasa, masyarakat, budaya.

## LINGUISTIC VARIETIES IN MULTILINGUAL NATIONS

### Answer the questions below:

1. What variety do you use when speaking to your parents, teacher, or people who are older than you?
2. What variety do you use when speaking to your friend, or people who are younger than you?
3. What is the reason we use different variety when speaking to different people?
4. Other than the people we speak to, what other factor affects our language variety?

### Three things are distinguished:

1. Acrolect : the most prestigious form, used in formal situations, by educated speakers, often of the upper classes.
2. Mesolect : an intermediate variety, used in less formal situations by the majority of speakers, often from all classes.
3. Basilect : the low variety, used in most informal situations, by the least educated speakers, often from the lower classes.

Moreover, people slide up or down the scale, depending on the situation. This is an example of code switching.

Idiolect : when each speaker has his/her own individual variety of language.

- **Standard languages:** a standard variety is generally one which is written, and which has undergone some degree of regularisation or codification (for example, in a grammar and a dictionary); it is recognised as a prestigious variety or code by a community, and it is used for H functions alongside a diversity of L varieties.

(Brown and Attardo, 104) – rose in Europe between the 15th and 19th centuries for a number of reasons. The invention of printing standardized spelling and usage, and as more people attended school with the rise of mass education and learned to read, the standardized form spread.

Standard English in Britain has come to be known as RP, received pronunciation, which has 2 kinds, unmarked, i.e., normal and unexceptional form used by announcers, teachers, secretaries, and educated people in general. Marked form used by the royal family and aristocracy.

Bachru in Brown and Attardo (104) claims that it makes no sense to speak of a monolithic Standard English. He sees English falling into three circles:

1. Inner circle: Great Britain, the United States, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia.
2. Outer circle: Bangladesh, Ghana, India, Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, the Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, and Zambia.
3. Expanding circle: China, Egypt, Indonesia, Israel, Japan, Korea, Nepal, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Taiwan and Zimbabwe.

Sumarsono (2014: 35) menyebut standard dengan istilah ragam baku. Ciri-cirinya adalah:

1. Mengkategorikan bahasa baku sebagai dialek, maka menyimpulkan bahwa jumlah penutur asli (native speaker) bahasa baku lebih sedikit dibandingkan dengan keseluruhan penutur bahasa.
  2. Ragam baku adalah ragam yang biasanya diajarkan kepada orang lain yang bukan penutur asli bahasa tersebut.
  3. Ragam baku mampu memberi jaminan bahwa ujaran yang dipakai kelak dapat dipahami oleh masyarakat luas, lebih luas jika dia memakai dialek regional.
  4. Ragam ini biasanya dipakai kaum terpelajar, kalangan cendekiawan dan ilmuwan, paling tidak dalam karya tulis ilmiah.
  5. Dalam bahasa baku pasti dan dipakai secara ajeg (konsisten). Didukung oleh adanya tata bahasa yang tertulis dan tradisi tulis-menulis lain. Ketentuan tentang ejaan ini menjadi sangat vital. Ketentuan ejaan merupakan langkah awal dari standarisasi atau pembakuan bahasa secara modern.
- **Vernacular languages:** it generally refers to a language which has not been standardised and which does not have official status. Many of which have never been written down or described. In a multilingual speech community, the many different ethnic or tribal languages used by different groups are referred to as vernacular languages. Vernaculars are usually the first languages learned by people in multilingual communities, and they are often used for a relatively narrow range of informal functions.
  - **There are 3 components of the meaning of the term vernacular:**
    1. A vernacular is an uncodified or unstandardised variety.
    2. The second refers to the way it is acquired; in the home, as a first variety.
    3. It is used for circumscribed functions.
  - The term vernacular simply means a language which is not an official language in a particular context. It refers to the most colloquial variety in a person's linguistic repertoire. It is the language of solidarity used for everyday interaction.
  - **Lingua Francas:** a language of communication between two people. The term lingua franca describes a language serving as a regular means of communication between linguistic groups in a multilingual speech community.
  - A lingua franca is a language used for communication between people whose first languages differ. Lingua franca often develops initially as trade languages
  - **Pidgin:** A pidgin language is a language which has no native speakers. Pidgins develop as a means of communication between people who do not have a common language. So a pidgin is no one's native language. Pidgins seem particularly likely to arise when

two groups with different languages are communicating in a situation where there is also a third dominant language.

- Nobody uses pidgin as means of group identification, or to express social distance, and so there is no pressure to maintain referentially redundant features of a language or complicated pronunciations whose main purpose is to signal how well educated you are.
- Pidgin languages are created from the combined efforts of people who speak different languages. They tend to have simplified structure and a small vocabulary compared with fully developed languages.
- Pidgin languages do not have high status or prestige and to those who do not speak them, they often seem ridiculous languages.
- **A pidgin language has 3 identifying characteristics:**
  1. It is used in restricted domains and functions
  2. It has a simplified structure compared to the source language
  3. It generally has low prestige and attracts negative attitude – especially from outsiders.

Pidgins often have short life. If they develop for restricted functions, they disappear when the function disappears.

- **A creole** is a pidgin which has acquired native speakers. Many of the languages which are called pidgins are in fact now creole languages. They are learned by children as their first language and used in a wide range of domains.

A creole is a pidgin which has expanded in structure and vocabulary to express the range of meanings and serve the range of functions required of first language.

**Answer the questions below:**

1. What type of linguistic variety does English and Indonesia fall into? Give a thorough explanation
2. Find specific examples of the linguistic variety mentioned in the discussion today. (The name of the language, dialect-linguistic variety) Why are they categorized as that particular variety?
3. Analyse the Pidgin below:

PIDGIN	STANDARD AMERICAN ENGLISH
1. <b>Dis country</b> weather very hot one.	
2. <b>Dat person there</b> cannot trust.	

3. **Tomorrow** dun need bring camera.

4. **He play soccer** also very good one leh.

5. **Walao, I want eat chicken rice.**

6. **I go bus-stop wait for you.**

## COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATION

Before answering the questions below, you need to read and understand the theories of components of communication by Dell Hymes, Bonvillain and Janet Holmes.

1. What is the difference between Dell Hymes, Bonvillain and Janet Holmes's components of communication theory?
  2. Explain how the components of communication affect our language variety.
- **(Pesona bahasa, Suhardi dan Sembiring, 2010:51)** Kita harus memperhatikan kapan, di mana, tentang apa, dan dengan siapa kita berbicara. Ketika bahasa digunakan, harus memperhatikan *accuracy* dan *appropriacy*. Hymes (1974 dalam Suhardi dan Sembiring, 51) menyebutkan adanya unsur-unsur yang terdapat dalam setiap komunikasi bahasa. Disajikan dalam bentuk akronim SPEAKING.
  - Language, Culture and Communication; The meaning of messages **(Bonvillain,2003:77)**. Hymes in Bonvillain (2003:77) lists several components of communication requiring descriptions:
    1. Participants, minimally speaker and addressee
    2. Code used by interlocutors
    3. Channel (e.g. speaking, writing, nonverbal signals)
    4. Setting or context
    5. Form or genre (e.g. conversation, folktale, chant, debate)
    6. Topics and attitude
  - Peristiwa Tutur, **SPEAKING** Dell Hymes (1972) **(Chaer and Agustina, 2004: 48-49)**:
    - **S**: Setting and scene - waktu dan tempat
    - **P**: Participants -
    - **E**: Ends – tujuan, maksud
    - **A**: Act Sequence – kata yang digunakan, bagaimana penggunaannya, topik
    - **K**:Keys - nada
    - **I**: Instrumentalities – jalur; lisan, tertulis
    - **N**: Norm of interactions and interpretations – norma
    - **G**: Genre – jenis bentuk penyampaian; narasi, puisi, editorial, etc.
  - **(Wardaugh, 2010: 259-260)** Hymes has proposed an ethnographic framework which takes into account the various factors that are involved in speaking. **An ethnographic of a communicative event** is a description of all the factors that are relevant in understanding how that particular communicative event achieves its objectives. **SPEAKING** is used as an acronym for the various factors relevant for a communicative event.

- **(Plat and Plat, 129)**

“**Ethnography of communication:** the study of the place of language in culture and society. Language is not studied in isolation but within a social and/or cultural setting. It studies, for example, how people in a particular group or community communicate with each other and how the social relationships between these people affect the type of language they use.”

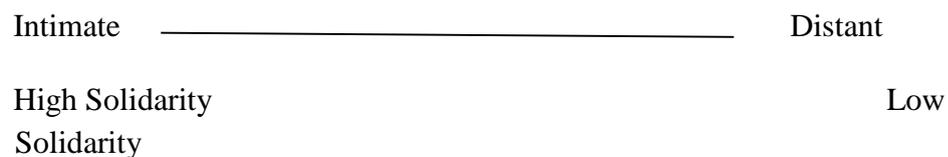
### WHAT IS THE ACRONYM OF *SPEAKING*? (Pesona Bahasa 51-53)

- **Setting and Scene** (Latar) – tempat dan waktu terjadinya percakapan (tempat dan waktu)
  - **Participants** (Peserta) – penutur dan mitra tutur
  - **Ends** (Hasil) – hasil percakapan, tujuan percakapan. Conventionally recognized and expected outcome of an exchange as well as to the personal goals that participants seek to accomplish on particular occasion (Wardhaugh, 260).
  - **Act Sequence** (Amanat) – bentuk dan isi amanat dalam bentuk kata-kata dan pokok percakapan. (Speech Act)
  - **Key** (Cara) – pelaksanaan percakapan. Mengacu kepada cara, nada dan jiwa (semangat) tindak tutur dilakukan (Sumarsono, 329). Refers to the tone, manner, or spirit in which a particular message is conveyed: light-hearted, serious, precise, pedantic, mocking, sarcastic, pompous, and so on. May also be marked non-verbally by certain kinds of behaviour, geture, posture (Wardhaugh, 260)
  - **Instrumentalities** (Sarana) bentuk lisan atau tulisan. Refers to the choice of channel, e.g. oral, written. The language choice; dialect, register, formal, informal (Wardhaugh, 260).
  - **Norms** (Norma) – aturan perilaku peserta percakapan
  - **Genres** (Jenis) – mengacu kepada kategori. Contohnya, puisi, mite, dongeng, orasi, kuliah, perdagangan, surat edaran, editorial, pidato, email, drama.
- 
- **Bonvillain (2003:77)** simplified, an ethnographic approach to analyzing communication stresses the cultural specificity of rules of communication and the totality of factors needing description. The most important aspects are:
    1. Setting
    2. Participant
    3. Topic
    4. Goal
- 
- **Setting:** context
  - **Participants** in a speech event include: speakers, addressees, and audience.
  - **Topic and goal:** goals can be expressed by a variety of linguistic forms, the same linguistic form can express diverse intents, depending on contextual components of setting, participants and topics. (Speech Act)

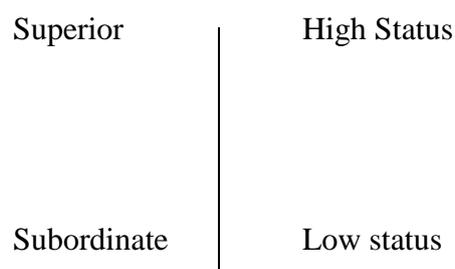
## SOCIAL FACTORS, DIMENSIONS AND EXPLANATIONS

- (Janet Holmes,2013:8) In any situation linguistic choices will generally reflect the influence of one or more of the following components (our language choice is influenced by):
  1. The **participants: who** is speaking and **who** are they speaking to?
  2. The **setting: where** are they speaking?
  3. The **topic: what** is being talked about?
  4. The **function: why** are they speaking?
- There are basic components in sociolinguistic explanations of why we don't all speak the same way, and why we don't all speak in the same way all the time.
  1. A social distance scale
  2. A status scale
  3. A formality scale
  4. Two functional scales

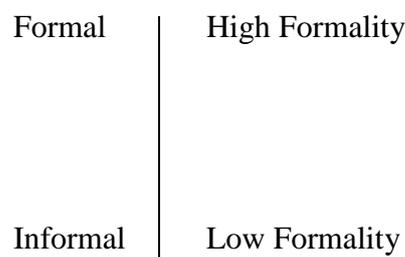
### 1. The solidarity – social distance scale (concerned with participant relationships)



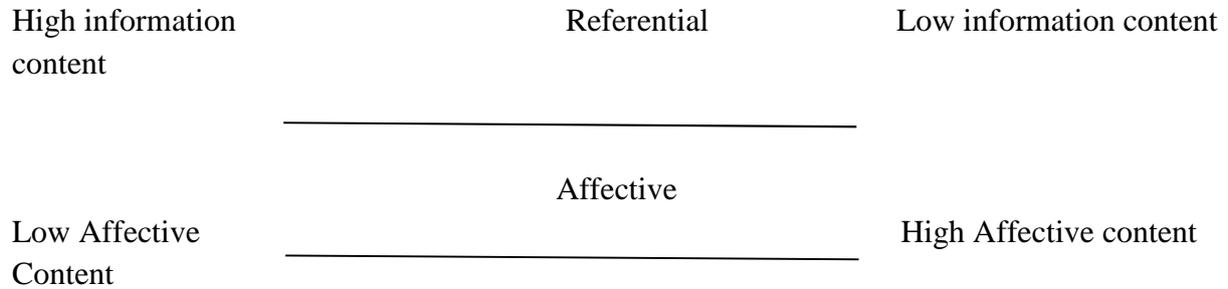
### 2. The Status Scale (concerend with participant relationships)



### 3. The Formality Scale (related with the setting or type off interaction)



#### 4. The Referential and Affective Function Scale



##### Example 1

Ray : Hi mum.  
Mum : Hi. You're late.  
Ray : Yeah, that bastard Sootbucket kept us in again.  
Mum : Nana's here.  
Ray : Oh sorry. Where is she?

##### Example 2

Ray : Good afternoon, Sir.  
Principal : What are you doing here at this time?  
Ray : Mr. Sutton kept us in, Sir.

##### Example 3

<b>Name</b>	<b>Speaker</b>	<b>When/where</b>
Anisa	colleague	in the office
Ms. Walker	secretary	in the office
Mrs. Walker	the janitor	in the office
Mum	daughter	at home
You	husband	at home
Mrs. Billington	stranger	formal invitation
Nisa	very close friend	telephone conversation

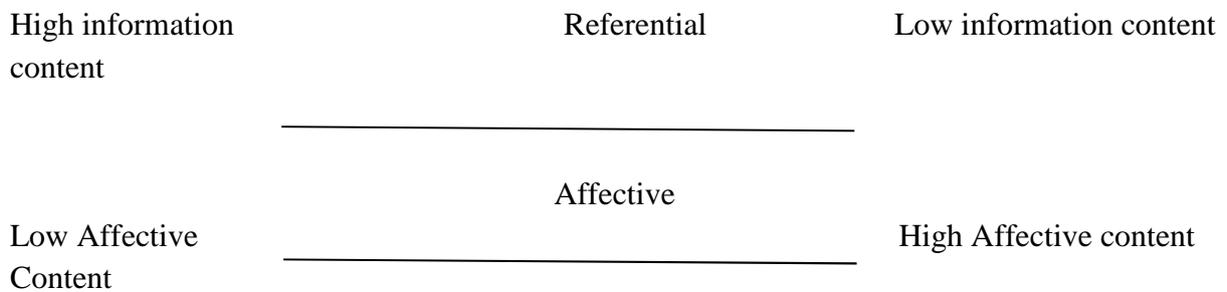
**Example 4**

Sam: You seen our ‘enry’s new ‘ouse yet? It’s in ‘alton you know.

Jim: I have indeed. I could hardly miss it Sam. Your Henry now own the biggest house in Halton.

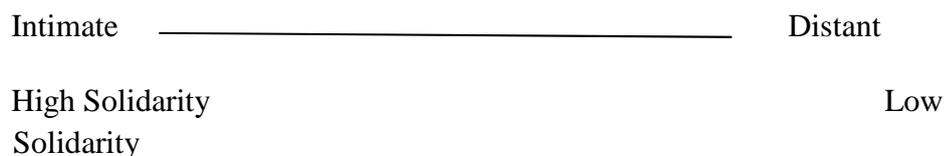
- 1. This is a radio broadcast/weather report and therefore the speaker does not know the hearer. This is reflected in the lack address term and the formal syntax. It’s primary function is to provide referential information. It is not intended to provide information on how the speaker is feeling.

**The Referential and Affective Function Scale**



- 2. Despite the initial greeting good morning which can be used to strangers and acquaintances, the speaker clearly knows the addressee well. Two affectionate endearment terms are used (*little one, pet*). These are terms appropriately used downwards in status (e.g. mother to a child, older person to younger, nurse to young patient).  
The use of tag form (*didn't you*) is an attempt to elicit a response. However it is not a request for information. This is clearly an utterance with a high affective content.

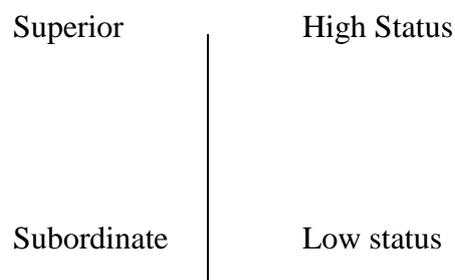
**The solidarity – social distance scale (concerned with participant relationships)**



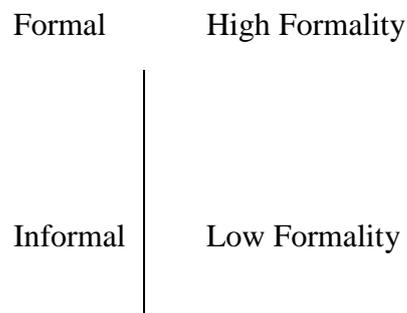
- The address forms (Mr. Clayton, Sir), as well as the initial phrase, as apology for interruption (excuse me), suggest this is an utterance from a subordinate to a superior and that the two do not know each other well.

The primary intention of this utterance appears to be to provide referential information. Note, however, that it might have other functions too if we knew more about the context. The secretary might be indirectly (and therefore politely) asking if she might leave since she has finished a particular task. Utterances often serve more than one function.

### **The Status Scale (concerned with participant relationships)**



### **The Formality Scale (related with the setting or type of interaction)**



**Answer the questions below:**

#### **1. Why does the person use different language style?**

##### **A. Context: a is in the cafeteria having lunch.**

A: Hey what's up with the sad face mate?

B: Nothing, it's all the face I got.

A: (LOL) Come here and have lunch.

B: Yeah, that's a good idea.

**B. Context: a is at the office**

A: What d'ya say sharing data and programs?

B: Sure whatta you have there?

A: I've got heaps mate. Here ...

**C: Context: a is at the office**

A: Excuse me Mrs. Eddington, may I have a word with you?

B: Sure, come in Alex.

A: I apologise beforehand, but I'm having a problem with a co-worker and his work ethics. I don't think we will finish the project in time. I have completed my work, but ...

**d. Context: at the office**

A: Hey Goodwill, how's it going?

B: Everything great mate, everything alright?

A: Great!

B: How was the soccer game last night?

A: You should've seen it, awesome game.

B: Ah couldn't of made it even if it was free.

A: Yeah shame.

**Read the situation below, then answer the the questions:**

- a. What is the difference between the context in the situations below?
- b. What are the topics in the situations? Why do you think the language style is different?

**Example 1:**

Three different requests for information

1. *From a friend*

Where were you last night? I rang to see if you wanted to come to the pictures.

2. *In court from a lawyer*

Could you tell the court where you were on the night of Friday the seventeenth of March?

3. *From a teacher to his pupil in school on the day after Halloween.*

I know some of you went 'trick-or-treating' last night and so I thought we might talk a bit today about how you got on. Did you go out last night Jimmy?

**Addressee as an influence on style - Example 2:**

- a. Excuse me. Could I have a look at your photos too, Mrs. Hall?
- b. C'mon Tony, gizzalook, gizzalook.

#### Age of addressee - Example 4:

1. Dear Paul

Thanks for your letter and the subsequent postcards from exotic resorts. We were all green with envy over your trip to Rion with all expenses paid! How do you get to be so lucky!

Thanks also for the great T-shirt you sent for Rob's birthday. He has vowed to write to you in order to express his gratitude personally – but don't hold your breath! He is particularly embroiled in some new complex computer game at present which is absorbing every spare moment.

2. Dear Michael

Thank you very much for the letter you sent me. It was beautifully written and I enjoyed reading it. I liked the postcard you sent me from your holidays too. What a lovely time you had swimming and surfing. I wished I was there too.

Robbie liked the T-shirt you chose for him very much. He has been wearing it a lot. He has promised to write to you soon to say thank you but he is very busy playing with his computer at the moment. So you may have to wait a little while for his letter. I hope mine will do instead for now.

#### Social background of addressee - Example 5:

- a. Last week the British Prime Minister Mrs. Margaret Thatcher met the Australian Premier Mr. Bob Hawke in Canberra ... Their next meeting will not be for several months.
- b. Last week British Prime Minister Mrs. Margaret Thatcher met the Australian Premier Mr. Bob Hawke in Canberra ... Their next meeting won't be for several months.

- **Research - An Analysis of the Language Variety of the Main Character in the Movie/Drama/Talkshow/Blog etc .... (italics)**
- **Research Question; Using the theory of components of communication by ... what type of the language variety does the character in the/... use?**

## CODE MIXING & CODE SWITCHING

**Watch the video and answer the questions below:**

1. What were the people talking about?
2. Where is the setting?
3. How many language varieties did you notice in the conversation?
4. Why did they use different varieties?

The use of at least two languages either by an individual or by a group of speakers, such as the inhabitants of a particular region or a nation.

- Is Indonesia a bilingual society?
- Bilingual conversational strategies:

### **Code switching and Code mixing**

- **Code:** the selection of a particular language or language variety for a given situation.
- Code switching/code mixing: a change by a speaker (or writer) from one language or language variety to another one.
  
- **Reasons for code switching (Holmes, 2001)**
  - For amusement and dramatic effect.
  - Expressing anger
  - Switching for affective functions.

### **Reasons for code switching (Chaer & Agustina, 2004:108):**

1. Speaker
2. Addressee
3. The existence of a third person
4. Changing from formal to informal or vice-versa
5. A change of topic.

Di samping lima hal di atas, sesungguhnya masih banyak faktor atau variabel lain yang dapat menyebabkan terjadinya peristiwa alih kode.

Penyebab ini biasanya sangat berkaitan dengan *verbal repertoire* yang terdapat dalam suatu masyarakat tutur serta bagaimana status sosial yang dikenakan oleh para penutur terhadap bahasa atau ragam bahasa yang terdapat dalam masyarakat tutur itu. (Widjajakusumah, 1981 dikutip dalam Chaer dan Agustina, 2004: 112)

- Very similar to code switching
- Difficult to differentiate
- Definition:

**Code mixing:** a mixing of two codes or languages. This is quite common in bilingual or multilingual communities and is often of solidarity, e.g. between bilingual friends or colleagues in an informal situation. Code mixing can involve various levels of language, e.g. phonology, morphology, grammatical structures or lexical items.

**Campur kode dibagi menjadi dua (Rahardi,2010:24)** yaitu:

1. Campur kode ke dalam (*innercode-mixing*): Campur kode yang bersumber dari bahasa asli dengan segala variasinya (formal, baku, informal, tidak baku)
2. Campur kode ke luar (*outer code-mixing*): campur kode yang berasal dari bahasa asing.

**Reasons for code mixing, Holmes (2001: 34-40):**

1. Hadirnya peserta lain dalam sebuah percakapan.
  2. Perbedaan jarak sosial dan formalitas.
  3. Topik pembicaraan.
  4. Keinginan mengutip perkataan orang lain atau pribahasa dalam bahasa aslinya.
  5. Kurangnya kosakata dalam bahasa pertama.
- **Similarities:** they both use two languages or more.
  - **Differences:**
    - ❖ Code switching; two languages are dominant, they have their own autonomy, is done consciously with a clear purpose.
    - ❖ Code mixing; one dominant language while the other is only pieces.

**Fasold (1984) in Chaer&Agustina (2004:115):** kriteria gramatika untuk membedakan campur kode dari alih kode.

- Satu kata atau phrase = campur kode
- Klausa = alih kode
- Code switching – Code mixing, the key word is dominant. Study have proven that linguistic proficiency must be fairly advanced before code switching can occur. (Bonvillain, 2003:360)

**Aslinda & Syafyahya (2010:87) mengutip Thelander (dalam Chaer dan Agustina, 1995:152):**

- ❖ Alih kode/Code switching: bila dalam suatu peristiwa tutur terjadi peralihan dari suatu klausa suatu bahasa ke klausa bahasa lain. Masing-masing klausa mempunyai fungsi sendiri
- ❖ Campur kode/Code mixing:menggunakan suatu kata atau frase. Masing-masing klausa dan frase tidak mendukung fungsi sendiri-sendiri

❖ **Wujud campur kode ini bisa:**

1. Penyisipan kata
2. Penyisipan frasa
3. Penyisipan klausa
4. Penyisipan ungkapan atau idiom
5. Penyisipan bentuk baster (gabungan pembentukan asli dan asing)

Wujud Lain?

Code-switching between standard and vernacular forms.

❖ **(Rahardi, 2010:84):**

- Kode yang berwujud ragam/style
- Kode yang berwujud dialek

**Look at the example below:**

Context: two littel girls are playing ‘school’ in the classroom during the lunch-break. Mere is the teacher and Hime is the pupil. Mere has written on the board; It is ten o’clock. Time for work. A little boy, Tama, puts his head in the door.

Tama : Where’s Mrs. McLean?

Mere : Dunno. She not here.

Tama : You sure?

Hime : Mrs. McLean not here dummy!

Mere : Mrs. McLean isn’t around today.

(Tama leaves at this point and Mere continues with her lesson)

Mere : Now Hime. You copy this carefully.

Hime : Yes Miss. I will.

- a. Berikut merupakan contoh interaksi “X”, seorang berkebangsaan Australia dengan bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa Ibu dan bahasa Indonesia sebagai bahasa ke-2. Lawan bicara adalah “Y”, seorang warga negara Indonesia dengan bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa ke-2.

Y: *S’cuse me. Are you waiting for someone?* (1)

X: *Yes, I’m picking up my wife. She’s studying here.*(2)

Y: *Oh, why don’t you come in? It’s raining.*(3)

X: *No, No, terima kasih. Saya cuma tunggu sebentar istri saya.*(4)

Y: *I don’t think so. It’s Friday. The classes won’t finish until 5 o’clock.*

*Come on in. By the way, my name’s Joko. I am one of the instructors here.* (5)

X: *Nice to meet you. I’m Jim. Boleh saya duduk disini? May I sit here?*(6)

Y: *Of course, make yourself comfortable. By the way, which class is your wife in?*(7)

X: *She’s in the Elementary class. Etty. She just started 3 days ago.* (8)

Y: *Ooh, Etty. The one with long straight dark hair and glasses?*

*Your wife’s very pretty.*(9)

X: *Yeah, that’s my wife.* (10)

- b. Contoh: “...belum tentu sifatnya sesuai dengan apa yang kamu kira selama ini. Makanya, *don’t judge the book by its cover!*”

c. A: Boleh ngga kalau sumbernya dari *internet?*

B: Boleh-boleh aja asal ditulis *link-nya.*

## BORROWING

- ❖ The borrowing of words from another language to express a concept or describe an object for which there is no obvious word available in the language they are using.
- ❖ Borrowing of this kind generally involves single words and it is motivated by lexical need.
- ❖ It is very different from switching where speakers have a genuine choice about which words or phrases they will use in which language.
- ❖ The words *mutasi*, *reformasi*, *organisasi*, *komisi*, *asosiasi*, etc. are just simply adopted by adjusting their phonology and mixed into Bahasa Indonesia due to the subtle and distinctive meanings these words possess.
- ❖ The following Indlish utterances can often be heard: *mentransfer dana* (to transfer fund), *dimodifikasi* (being modified), *diasosisikan dengan* (being associated with), and many others.
  
- ❖ What borrowed words exist in ..... ?
- ❖ What is the etymology?
- ❖ Etymology : the study of the history of words, their origins, and how their form and meaning have changed over time
- ❖ Dictionary, textbooks

## REGIONAL AND SOCIAL VARIATION

- ▶ **Regional variation:** a variety of a language spoken in one part of a country (American English, British English, Australian English, etc..)
- ▶ **Social variation:** a variety of a language spoken by people belonging to a particular social class standard English, vernacular English (AAVE), Pidgin/Creole English
  
- ▶ **Regional variation = Topics to write about for research:**
  1. Perbedaan bahasa Inggris singapura dan Malaysia – Standard American English/British English (kosakata, grammar).
  2. American vs British English; kosakata, grammar, sejarah.
  3. Pidgins and Creoles
  4. Pronunciation
  5. Bagaimana bahasa menunjukkan status seseorang
  6. Perbedaan makna dalam penggunaan Australian, American, British, Canadian, South African slang
  
- **Analysing standard and vernacular (AAVE)**

DESCRIBE AAVE and the difference between Standard English what else can you find and discuss. Must find something new.

## REGISTER

### ► **Language variation focus on uses (Keberagaman bahasa menurut pemakaiannya):**

- Field (Medan)
- Tenor (Suasana)
- Mode (Cara)

Pesona Bahasa (49) – suatu bahasa dipakai oleh masyarakat penuturnya untuk keperluan komunikasi sesuai dengan keadaan atau keperluan yang mereka hadapi. Peristiwa komunikasi meliputi tiga hal: medan (field), suasana (tenor) dan cara (mode).

- A. **Medan (field):** hal atau topik
- B. **Suasana (tenor):** subjek atau topik dalam teks suatu pembicaraan
- C. **Cara (mode):** peran yang dimainkan bahasa dalam komunikasi, contoh bahasa tulis, lisan.

Perpaduan antara tenor, medan dan cara membentuk laras bahasa (register) suatu teks atau tuturan. Karena itu, kita melihat perbedaan laras bahasa antara tulisan jurnalistik dan tulisan ilmiah. Perbedaan itu ditandai oleh kosakata, struktur kalimat dan lafal (untuk bahasa lisan) (Pesona Bahasa, 50)

### A. **Medan (field):**

- Hal atau topic atau subjek, tentang apa bahasa itu dipakai. Example, kegiatan, kata-kata; *accounting, management, supply, demand*, berkaitan dengan aktifitas dalam bidang ekonomi.

- Contoh medan; ekonomi, politik, teknologi. Kata-kata seperti replik, duplik, naik banding, kasasi, dan grasi sering dipakai oleh mereka yang bergerak di bidang hukum. Kata-kata seperti *aki, rem, persneling, terot*, dan *roda gila* banyak dipakai oleh mereka yang bekerja di bidang perbengkelan. Keberagaman bahasa kelompok ini sering memperlihatkan laras bahasa (register), yang ditandai oleh, salah satunya, penggunaan istilah teknis (jargon). Pesona Bahasa (49).

### ► **Register:**

- Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Plat & Plat, 1997: 312-313): a speech variety used by a particular group of people, usually sharing the same occupation (e.g. Doctors, lawyers) or the same interests (e.g. Stamp collectors baseball fans). A particular register often distinguishes itself from other registers by having a number of distinctive words, by using words or phrases in a particular way and sometimes by grammatical constructions (e.g. Legal language).

- 360. Some linguists use the term register for a stylistic variety whilst the other differentiate between the two.

Style – variation in a person’s speech or writing. Style usually varies from casual to formal according to the type of situation, the person or persons addressed, the location, the topic discussed, etc. A particular style, e.g. a formal style or a colloquial style, is sometimes referred to as a stylistic variety.

- (Holmes, 2001: 24): ‘style’ in earlier sections refer to language variation which reflects changes in situational factors, such as addressee, setting, task or topic. ... Register on the other hand when they are distinguished from styles, tend to be associated with particular groups of people or sometime specific situations of use. Journales, baby talk, legalese, the language of auctioneers, race callers, and sports commentators, the language of airline pilots, criminals, financiers, politicians and disc jockeys, the language of the courtroom and the classroom, could all be considered examples of different registers. The term register here describes the language of groups of people with common interests or jobs, or the language used in situations associated with such groups.

**As stated by Plat & Plat** Some linguists use the term register for a stylistic variety whilst the other differentiate between the two (360), Holmes differentiate between register and stylistic variety.

► (Brown and Attardo, 2009:116-117) Register is another variation of a language, similar to a dialect, but determined by the subject matter, rather than geographical and social issues.

Baby talk, motherese, or child-directed speech: the language caretakers use with children, e.g., *itsy-bitsy* = small, *boo-boo* = small cut, diminutives such as *blankie* and *doggie*.

Newspaper English, e.g., the dropping of articles (*President orders withdrawal of troops*).

Sports announcer talk, e.g., *She shoots! She scores!*

A register is commonly defined as a set of choices among linguistic features. The set of features must be recognizable because the concept of register is a distinctive one, that is, a register is identifiable insofar as it opposes itself to another kind of register.

► Parameters determining **register**:

1. Subject matter: what the text is about

2. Social roles/situations: who the speaker is and what they do

3. Discursive function: what the speaker is using the text for, discussing, presenting etc.

Here Brown and Attardo uses the term register and stylistic variety under one idea/definition. Attardo differentiates them with Jargon. Jargon can be seen as occupational varieties. Computer programmers need to talk about their job using specific, clear, specialized unambiguous terms and thus they develop some special terms that refer to their activity. The same is true for every profession.

The police for example, have well-developed, well defined jargons (there even exist booklets collecting the terminology). Also restaurant workers, college students, doctors, flight attendants all have jargons. In fact, in any occupation, hobby association or organized group is likely to develop its own jargon.

Note that jargon is also used of purposes of not letting others understand you, to show off, or to establish in-group membership. The fact that people of the same profession converse

about their work topic using words and sentences that people outside of that profession would have trouble understanding is jargon. For example, a “rhinoplasty” is just a doctor’s jargon for “nose job”. Thus summing up, jargon has two main functions, it:

1. Provides speakers of specialized domains with clear, unambiguous terms to refer to their activities, and
2. Provides speakers of a subgroup with a means of making-group, membership and excluding outsiders.

(Wardaugh, 2010: 48) – sets of language items associated with discrete occupational or social groups. Jargon is an alternate terms that is sometimes used for this kind of language, but usually pejoratively. Surgeons, airline pilots, bank managers, sales clerks, jazz fans, employ different registers. As Ferguson (in Wardaugh, 48) says: “People participating in recurrent communication situations tend to develop similar vocabularies, similar features of intonation, and characteristic bits of syntax and phonology that they use in these situations.”

Each register helps you to express your identity at a specific time or place, i.e., how you seek to present yourself to others and how you validate yourself to those with whom you would seek to impress.

### ► MAKNA DENOTATIF DAN MAKNA KHUSUS

**(Pateda, 2010:98) Makna denotatif:** makna kata atau kelompok kata yang didasarkan atas hubungan lugas antara satuan bahasa dan wujud di luar bahasa yang diterapi satuan bahasa itu secara tepat. Makna denotatif adalah makna polos, makna apa adanya. Makna denotatif didasarkan atas penunjukkan yang lugas pada sesuatu di luar bahasa atau yang didasarkan pada konvensi tertentu (Harimurti dalam Pateda, 98).

Denotasi adalah hubungan yang digunakan di dalam tingkat pertama pada sebuah kata yang secara bebas memegang peranan penting di dalam ujaran (Lyons dalam Pateda, 98). Makna denotatif menunjuk pada acuan tanpa embel-embel. Misalnya kata *uang* yang mengandung makna benda atau kertas atau logam yang digunakan dalam transaksi jual beli. Kata *uang* dimaknai tanpa mengasosiasikan dengan hal lain. Makna tidak dihubungkan dengan hal lain. Tidak ditafsirkan dengan benda atau peristiwa lain. Makna denotatif dapat disebut makna sebenarnya.

**Makna khusus (Pateda, 2010: 106):** adalah makna kata atau istilah yang pemakaiannya terbatas pada bidang tertentu. Misalnya kata *operasi* dalam bidang kedokteran dan militer akan memiliki makna yang berbeda.

- Kedokteran; *operasi jantung* (upaya menyelamatkan orang), *operasi mata*.
- Militer; *Operasi ke kantong pertahanan musuh akan dilaksanakan besok* (upaya melumpuhkan lawan).
- Polisi; *operasi ketupat 1996* (menjaga ketertiban dan keamanan selama beberapa hari setelah Idul Fitri).

- Pajak; *Operasi pajak kali ini berhasil menghimpun dana sebesar dua juta rupiah.* (upaya untuk menghitung hasil pajak dengan cara memungutnya dari rumah ke rumah)
- Kantor tata kota; *operasi kebersihan, operasi pedagang kaki lima* (terkait kegiatan)

Makna khusus adalah makna terbatas pada bidang atau kegiatan tertentu.

**Answer the questions below:**

1. What the text is about? ...
2. Who are the speakers? ... What do they do? ... (students of Computer Science)
3. What is the speaker using the text for? ...

For Example: “*Mouse*”

- Makna denotasi: ...
- Makna Khusus: ...

**B. Suasana (Tenor): Pesona Bahasa (49)**

- hubungan sosial antar penutur dan mitra tutur yang ada dalam teks atau pembicaraan.
- menekankan: pemilihan bahasa dipengaruhi oleh hubungan sosial, berjud dalam aspek kesantunan, ukuran formal dan tidaknya suatu ujaran dan status partisipan yang terlibat di dalamnya.
- dapat tercerminkan dalam address term (cara menyapa), Mr, Mrs, Ms, John, Professor, etc
- mempengaruhi pemilihan ragam bahasa, stylistics; intimate, santai, konsultatif, resmi, beku.

- \* Intimate (intimate); hubungan akrab
- \* Santai (casual); tidak baku, tidak resmi, dapat digunakan oleh orang yang belum tentu saling kenal
- \* Konsultative (consultative); guru menjelaskan-tanya jawab dengan siswa, pembeli dan pedagang pada saat tawar menawar, berpusat pada transaksi atau pertukaran informasi
- \* Resmi: bentuk kata dan kalimat yang lengkap, akurat, ditandai dengan jarak dan hubungan yang formal
- \* Frozen; ungkapan dan istilah tidak memungkinkan adanya perubahan, kitab suci, wedding vows

- **Gaya Bahasa: Martin Joos (1967) (Chaer and Agustina, 2010: 70)**, variasi bahasa ke dalam lima macam gaya:
  1. Gaya bahasa beku (frozen style)
  2. Gaya bahasa resmi (forma style)
  3. Gaya bahasa konsultatif (consultative style)
  4. Gaya bahasa santai (casual style)
  5. Gaya bahasa akrab/intim (intimate style)

**Brown and Attardo (117)** – Joos distinguishes five styles primarily based on the speaker and hearer roles, the situation and the purpose of the exchange, linguistic features follow from these constraints:

- Consultative: the speaker provides background information and the hearer participates as it is a public mode; no familiarity is presupposed or established.
- Casual: the speaker may be elliptical and use slang as it is also a public mode; familiarity is presupposed or established.
- Intimate: the speaker may take ellipsis to its' ultimate degree; single-word utterances; jargon may be used (as this is in-group only style)
- Formal: the speaker provides background, the hearer(s) do not participate; the text must be very cohesive, to make up for the distance between speaker and hearer; feedback is regulated.
- Frozen: this is a written mode; speaker and hearer are not in contact, so there is no feedback (unlike in other styles); it is a sophisticated style, associated with literature.

The distinctions between registers, jargon, slang, and argot are not watertight. At times it is difficult to decide if a certain text is one or another register or if a given expression is jargon, or, say, slang. (118).

Watch a movie and pay attention to the character/s. Explain the reasons why the character/s use different language style. Do you think context affects the choice of style? How so?

## SLANG

**Slang:** a variety of language that is used by a restricted part of the population, often younger or “less respectable” than the majority, and is based on a very informal or very innovative lexicon that often replaces other words available in the general lexicon. Slang often ages very quickly. The primary function of slang is to mark its speakers as different or unconventional. This is why such disparate groups as teenagers and criminals are some of the most active creators and users of slang.

Because of the informal nature of slang, many people confuse dialectal varieties, such as AAVE, with slang. The principal difference between a dialect and slang is used only by a small part of the population. Thus there is an African-American English slang, just as there is a wider English slang.

- ▶ There are other features of people’s speech which vary at different ages too. Not only pitch, but vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar can differentiate age groups.
- ▶ **Slang (Holmes, 167)** is another area of vocabulary which reflects a person’s age. Slang is the linguistic prerogative of young people. It signals membership of a particular group - the young.
- ▶ **The definition on slang:** casual, very informal speech, using expressive but informal words and expressions.
- ▶ **Slang (Plat & Plat, 336):**
  - Colloquial speech
  - For others its’ undesirable speech
  - Informal situations with colleagues, friends or relative
  - Often serves as an ‘in-group’ language for a particular set of people such as teenagers, army recruits, pop groups, etc.
  - Most slang is rather unstable as its words and expressions can change rapidly, for example: Beat it! Scram! Rack off!.

Choose 20 slang words from a movie/song/status in social media. Find their meaning. Check your friends’ understanding of the slang words.

## TABOO WORDS

**Taboo words:** the word taboo comes from the Tongan language and means roughly things that violate the standards set by society for proper behaviour. There are certain words that are considered too crude or offensive to be uttered by a proper person. The primary sources of taboo words in most societies are:

1. Sexual and/or reproductive organs and behaviour
2. Excretory organs and/or fluids
3. Taboo-breaking behaviour (incest, extramarital relationships, etc)
4. Racial/ethnic slurs
5. Blasphemy

To avoid taboo words, speakers use:

1. Euphemisms (“down there” for the genitals)
2. Child language (pee pee)
3. Medical/technical language (urination, defecation)
4. Zero/avoidance (blanked-out, the symbols that indicate swearing in the comic strips)

What is the difference between slang and jargon? Slang is a public variety, and it is meant to be understood by all the hearers. On the contrary, jargon is primarily an in-group variety, meant to be understood only by the members of the group. But let us note, however, that the two terms are often used loosely and interchangeably.

1. Collect taboo words and ask some people to rate them on a scale of “taboo-ness”. What are the most taboo words? What does it say about society?
2. Collect taboo words from a movie. What words can we exchange?

### C. Cara (Mode) - Pesona Bahasa (49)

- Peran yang dimainkan bahasa dalam komunikasi; jalur (channel). Jalur yang dimaksud adalah apakah pesan disampaikan dengan bahasa tulis, lisan untuk dituliskan, dan tulis untuk dilisankan. Berkomunikasi melalui surat berbeda ragamnya dengan berbicara melalui telepon, apalagi jika dibandingkan dengan ragam bahasa ketika berkomunikasi bertatap-muka. Cara juga berhubungan dengan raga, teroris yang dipakai, misalnya bahasa persuasif, ekspositoris, dan naratif.

- ragam retoris; bahasa persuasif, ekspositoris, naratif.

- ▶ Perpaduan tenor, medan dan cara membentuk laras bahasa (register) suatu teks atau tuturan, i.e. Register; bidang economy, law, engineering, science, social science.
- ▶ Perbedaan ini ditandai oleh kosakata, struktur kalimat dan lafal.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN LANGUAGE

Consider the following sentence. Put F beside those you think were said by a woman, M beside those you think were said by a man and F/M beside those you think could have been said by either:

1. Close the door.
2. That's an adorable dog.
3. Oh dear, the TV set's broken
4. I'll be damned there's a friend of mine!
5. I was very tired.
6. Won't you please get me that pencil?
7. I was very tired.
8. Won't you please get me that pencil?
9. They did the right thing didn't they?
10. You're right damn right!
11. I was just exhausted.
12. My goodness, there's the Prime Minister!
13. I was so mad.
14. Damn it, I've lost my keys!

### ► The term sex and gender:

- **Sex;** refer to categories distinguished by biological characteristics. Biologically determined.
- **Gender;** is more appropriate for distinguishing people on the basis of their social-cultural behaviour, including speech. Social construct. Refers to the cultural traits and behaviours deemed appropriate for men or women by a particular society.

Women and men have different words for the same thing.

### ► Gender and social class

- In every social class men use more vernacular forms than women.
- Across all social groups women generally use more standard forms than men and so, correspondingly, men use more vernacular forms than women.

### ► Explanations of women's linguistic behaviour; why do women use more standard forms than men?

1. The social status explanation

More status conscious than men. Women are more aware of the fact that the way they speak signals their social class background of social status in the community.

## 2. Women's role as a guardian society's values

Society tends to expect better behaviour from women than from men. Women are designated the role of modelling correct behaviour in the community. Predictably then following this argument, society expects women to speak more correctly and standardly than men, especially when they are serving as models for children's speech.

## 3. Subordinate groups must be polite

People who are subordinate must be polite. Children are expected to be polite to adults. Women as subordinate group, it is argued, must avoid offending men – and so they must speak carefully and politely.

## 4. Vernacular forms express machismo

Why don't men use more standard forms? Is that men prefer vernacular forms because they carry macho connotations of masculinity and toughness. If this is true it would explain why women might not want to use such forms.

- ▶ Lakoff (1975) proposed theories on the existence of women's language. Her book '*Language and Woman's Place*' has served as a basis for much research on the subject. She mentions ten features for women's language. As cited in Holmes (1993, p. 314), these ten features are:
- ▶ Lakoff's hypotheses have both pros and cons. Men's language as put by Lakoff is assertive, adult, and direct, while women's language is immature, hyper-formal or hyper-polite and non-assertive.

1. Lexical hedges or fillers, *e.g. you know, sort of, ...*
2. Tag questions, *e.g. she is very nice, isn't she?*
3. Rising intonation on declaratives, *e.g. it's really good.*
4. Empty adjectives, *e.g. divine, charming, cute.*
5. Precise color terms, *e.g. magenta, aquamarine.*
6. Intensifiers such as *just* and *so*.
7. Hypercorrect grammar, *e.g. consistent use of standard verb forms.*
8. Superpolite forms, *e.g. indirect requests (would you please open the door, if you don't mind?), euphemisms.*
9. Avoidance of strong swear words, *e.g. fudge, my goodness.*
10. Emphatic stress, *e.g. it was a BRILLIANT performance.*

Note: all of the above utterances are context bound, hedges you know can indicate confidence  
*All that information in the seminar today? Well, you know, it was a repetition from the last.*

Lakoff argued that both kinds of modifiers were evidence of an unconfident speaker, hedging devices explicitly signal lack of confidence, while boosting devices reflect the speaker's

anticipation that the addressee may remain unconvinced and therefore supply extra reassurance. Some use hedging devices to express uncertainty, and they use intensifying devices to persuade their addressee to take them seriously. Women boost the force of their utterances because they think that otherwise they will not be heard or paid attention to. Thus, both hedges and boosters reflect women's lack of confidence. Hedges were characteristic of the speech of the powerless in society.

### Tag questions

- **Uncertainty**

Susan is telling her friend Amy about an exam she did at school: *I did my exams in only an hour was it.*

- **Affective meaning, facilitative meaning, positive politeness devices**

Margaret : Andrew this is our neighbour, Frank. Andrew has just changed jobs, haven't you.

Andrew : Yes I am now a well-paid computer programmer instead of a poorly paid administrative assistant.

- **Facilitative**

Mrs.Short : Here's a pretty one what's this one called Simon?

Simon : mmm (pause)

Mrs. Short : See its tail, look at its tail. It's a pretty looking tail, isn't it?

Simon : mmmm yes it is

- **Criticism**

Zoe and the mother Claire have just come home from the supermarket. Zoe empties the shopping basket all over the kitchen floor.

Claire : That was a bit of an insensible to do, wasn't it?

- **Confrontational and coercive devices**

A police superintendent is interviewing a detective and is criticising the constable's performance.

A : ... you'll probably find yourself um,..before the Chief Constable, okay?

B : Yes, Sir, yes, understood.

A : Now you er, fully understand that, don't you?

B : Yes, Sir, indeed, yeah.

## Practice:

- a. The teacher is talking to Sam, a pupil who is looking at a picture of a butterfly in a cocoon in a book:
- Teacher : What's this called Sam?  
Sam : No answer.  
Teacher : It's a cocoon, isn't it?
- b. Conversation in a kitchen between flatmates:
- Thomas : This isn't Bridget's egg beater is it?  
Michael : No, its our. We still haven't found hers.
- c. Older child tutor to younger child who is reading to her:
- Fran : That's not right is it? Try again.
- d. To visitor who has called in for a chat with a group neighbours:
- Sally : Ray had some bad luck at the races yesterday didn't you Ray?
- e. One friend to another in a relaxed conversation at her home:
- Fiona : But then it would pass on to the rest of your family wouldn't it?  
Jim : No, not necessariy.

In setting out of list of what she calls 'sociolinguistic universal tendencies', Holmes (1998) in Wardaugh (342) does offer some testable claims. There are five of these:

1. Women and men develop different patterns of language use.
2. Women tend to focus on the affectie functions of an interaction more often than men do.
3. Women tend to use linguistic devices that stress solidarity more often than men do.
4. Women tend to interact in ways which will maintain and increase solidarity, while (especially in formal contexts) men tend to interact in ways which will maintain and increase their power and status.
5. Women are stylistically more flexible than men.



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Demikian surat tugas ini dibuat dengan sebenarnya.

Bogor, 25 Januari 2019

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