A. Literature Review

1. Theoretical Description

a. Sociolinguistics

Etymologically, the term sociolinguistics is derived from the word socio and linguistics. In nature, it describes the knowledge of how language is used in social context. This concept affects many experts proposing the definitions of sociolinguistics. A simple definition of sociolinguistics is the study of language and society (Finch, 2003: 204). It means that sociolinguistics has the main concern in the relation between society and language. Gumper in Wardhaugh (2006: 11) states that sociolinguistics is an attempt to find a relationship between social structure and linguistic structure and also to observe the changes that occur. A social structure shows systematic patterns of behaviour between individual-individual, group-group, and individual-group relationship. Meanwhile, a linguistic structure describes the rule of linguistic component creates wider component. Thus, sociolinguistics studies the social uses of language and the social evaluation of language variations.

Chaika (1982: 2) formulates sociolinguistics as the study of language used in society through interaction. It deals with what people intend and do to convey their meaning in social interaction. It is supported by Trask (1999: 187) who defines sociolinguistics as the branch of linguistics which studies the relation between language and society. In addition, he argues that society is likely to create a number
of language variations. Thus, sociolinguistics may be said as the study of language variation.

Fishman in Coulmas (2007: 233) proposes that sociolinguistics covers two domains. First, it deals with the descriptive sociology of languages. It is in charge in figuring out the accepted social organization of language usage within a speech community and attempting to relate the standards of language usage. Second, it deals with the dynamic sociology of languages. It is related with how different rates of change affect in the social organization either in terms of the language use or the human behaviour toward language.

Furthermore, Marshall (2004: 15) says that sociolinguistics is mostly concerned with integrated models to account for the links between three fields; linguistic variation, social structure, and linguistic change. Linguistic variation refers to the range of differences between the languages of the world. It is affected by the regional and the social aspects where the language is used. The second field is social structure- patterned social arrangements which structure the society as a whole and which distinguish them into some varying degree. The third field is linguistic change. It is a phenomenon whereby some branches of linguistics such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, grammar, semantics, and pragmatics differ over time. This concept is supported by Katamba and Kerswill in Culpeper et al. (2009: 262). They elaborate five causes of linguistic change i.e. imperfect learning of grammar, social, functional, structural, and contact. Firstly, imperfect learning grammar deals with the phenomena where there is lack of young generation incomplete learning that results in the modification, such as for and form. Secondly, social aspect influences
language change in terms of age, gender, class, and ethnicity. Thirdly, functional factor occurs such as in the change of going to into gonna and want to into wanna. Fourthly, language change is affected by structural function that focuses on formal relationship between linguistic elements. The last is contact which occurs as a result of interaction with other language.

Based on the some proposed concepts of sociolinguistics, it can be concluded that sociolinguistics is the study of linguistic field that investigates the effect of the aspects in society, such as cultural norms, expectations, and situation (context) in which language is used, and the effects of language use on society.

b. Language and Society

Wardhaugh (1986: 1) says that a language is what the elements of a particular society speak. It allows people to say things to each other and express their communications needs. Richards and Schmidt (2002: 283) define language as structured arrangement of sound that forms into larger units, e.g. morphemes, words, sentences, utterances whether it is spoken or written and then establish system of human communication. In line with Richards and Schmidt, Aitchison (2003: 13) defines language as specific sound signalling system which seems to be organized to develop in humans.

Similarly, Rogers (2004: 81) defines language is ubiquitous to human activity especially those belong to group activity on which discourse analysts and sociocultural theorists focus. Moreover, language is defined as a cultural systematic means of communication in which it is learned, transmitted from generation to
generation, and, as an integral part of culture, changes through time (Kopriva, 2008:27). In line with Kopriva, Walsh (2006: 16) explains that language is used as the vehicle for communication and as the medium through which opinions, feelings, emotions, concerns are expressed and information, goods and services are transacted.

People use language to reveal and conceal their personal identity, character, and background. Almost all of their contact with family and friends, and much of their contact with stranger involve language. Most of their language that they use is governed by rules, rules that dictate not only what they should say but also how they say it.

As a result, language develops four types of appearances, i.e. conversational skill, non-egocentric language, language variation, and request (Gleason and Bernstein, 2009: 196-201). The first type of the language is conversational skill. It is defined as the ability to take other’s perspective and use request in communication. Secondly, non-egocentric language occurs when speakers describe something what he/she wants someone to get using social language instead of their own perspectives. Meanwhile, language variation is formed by the affected factors surrounding the society. This concept results on the formation of regional variation affected by region and social variation affected by social condition. The last, language is a form of request which has two classifications. Firstly, request figures the distinctions among three components of speech acts: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts. Secondly, it is stated that speakers produce a contexts by varying the requests they use in different situations.
Wardhaugh (2006: 1) defines society as any group of people who are drawn together for certain purpose or purposes. It leads people to behave in equal position. The gap among low and high level of social status is lessened. Trask (1999: 59) argues that every society has its own norms for communicative behaviour. If people are sitting at the dinner table and they want the salt, which is out of reach, they might say ‘Would you mind very much passing me the salt?’ or ‘Could you pass the salt, please?’ And they possibly can just reach over the person next to me to grab the salt without say something. Some of these behaviours are more suitable than others, depending on the circumstances, and some would perhaps never be acceptable at all.

Society exists when there are people of various groups serve as authoritative members. Marshall (2004: 23) sees society can be formed as various characteristics like income, education, occupation, residence or life-style, which are evaluated by society at large. Moreover, society can be ordered into strata, or classes, with as many subdivisions. Hospitals, schools, colleges, clubs, market, hotel, bank, airport, local state and central government, manufacturing and trading concerns are some of the organizations people are associated with throughout our life (Kainthola, 2009: 1).

Language and society is inseparable things. A language affects a society by influencing or even controlling the world view of its speakers. Language is as a means of communication to express the idea, attention, and thought using a system of signals, such as voice sounds, gestures, or written symbols. Meanwhile, society is a group of people associated each other together for religious, cultural, scientific, political, or other purposes. A language varies and symbolizes one society among others, such as the language of people belong to hotel field is different with people
belong to medical field. It also occurs between first, people belong to childhood will be different with people belong to adulthood and second, people belong to senate will be different with people belong to labour.

In conclusion, the communication in society, that is, group of people who share the same particular background takes place smoothly using effective language in particular background as well which uses system of signals, such as voice sounds, gestures, or written symbols.

c. Language Variation

Language variation are the object of sociolinguistics which are the result of the relationship between language and social factors, such age, sex, education, social status, social occasion, professional occupation, and other factors (Barber and Stainton, 2010: 478). The principal types of language variation manifested in pronunciation (accent), grammar and vocabulary are the regional variation (regional dialects) and the social variation (social dialects, sociolects, also ´genderlect´, jargon, slang, argot).

Bright in Coulmas (2007: 53) states two fundamentals facts of language variation. First, that it is always changing in all areas of structures (phonology, grammar, discourse, style, semantics, and vocabulary). It occurs for instance in the case that American English pronounces *whine* [hwain] merges with *wine* [wain]. Second, language variation changes in different ways at diverse place and times. It occurs for instance in the case that Speakers of English nowadays say and write *ice*
cream instead of iced cream. It unconsciously in 1900 was considered as a vulgar error.

Malmkjær and Anderson (1995: 558) state that lots of sociolinguistic studies are concerned with the way in which language varies according to the social context. It also discusses where it is used and according to the social group to which a user belongs. It aims to explain this variation and to show how it reflects social structure influenced by some factors such as the user’s region, class, ethnic group, age, and gender. The areas of this variation are formulated by Belletti (2007: 9) who distinguishes them into two points of view, i.e. language comparison and language acquisition. She adds that acquisition might create a strange area where language variation can manifest itself. In case of manifesting language variation, acquisition can give alternatives of variation that are also exploited by different languages.

Similarly, Marshall (2004: 5-6) states that language variation provides an explanation of how communication takes place. Language variation is not arbitrary, but rather strictly controlled, often by extra-linguistic factors, and the specification of these factors may help us account for change. The language variations which occur are age, sex, social class, and attitude. In line with Marshall, Eckert and Rickford (2001: 185) mention that class or sex or age correlates as supposed determinants of language variations. They affect the use of language, such as in sex, males tend to use –logic and strict to the point- statements instead of females.

Some language variations emerge as the result of age, sex, social class, and attitude influence, i.e. jargon, register, argot, slang, and style. Each is often overlapped among others. They are often equalized although they are different in
nature. Yule (2006: 211) proposes jargon as specialized vocabulary used by those inside established social groups while slang is more typically used among those who are outside established higher-status groups.

According to Holmes (2001: 246), some linguists use the terms register narrowly to describe the specific vocabulary associated with different occupational groups. In accordance with her, Wardhaugh (2006: 52) defines register as a set of language items associated with discrete occupational or social group. It is made by an individual or a group to fulfil the variety of language functions that add up to communications. The language of sport commentator, airline pilot, and soldier are the examples of register.

Yule (2006, 210-211) defines register as a conventional way of using language that is appropriate in a specific context, which may be identified as situational, occupational and topical. According to him, one of the defining features of register is the use of jargon, which is technical specialized vocabulary associated with specific area of work or interest.

Zhang (2008: 437) defines a register as a technique of classifying texts according to the situation in which the texts are used. Furthermore, he mentions that the concept of register tries to capture the intuition that the situation of use has an impact on the way language is used. He illustrates the definition by bringing the case the way people talk to intimate friends will be different when they talk to superiors at work.

The term argot also appears in the discussion of jargon. According to Allan and Burridge (2006: 69-70), the relevant sense of argot completely overlaps with the
definitions of jargon and slang. Hornby (1998) defines argot as a set of words and phrases used by a particular group and not easily understood by others. The characteristic of argot that distinguishes it from jargon and slang is the purposes of secrecy. Thieves might use the word package instead of stolen goods in order to avoid their intention and to any information leaking to those who do not belong to their group.

The other language variation is called slang. According to Allan and Burridge (2006: 69), slang is language of a highly colloquial and contemporary type, considered stylistically inferior to standard formal, and even polite informal speech. It often uses metaphor and/or ellipsis and often manifests verbal play in which current language is employed in some special sense and denotation; otherwise the vocabulary and sometimes the grammar is novel or only recently coined.

Furthermore, Allan and Burridge (2006: 69-70) define that the most significant characteristic of slang overlaps with a defining characteristic of jargon, that is a marker of in-group solidarity, and so it is a correlate of human groups with shared experiences. According to them, the slang serve as in-group recognition devices and purportedly disguise meanings from out-groupers which is why Halliday described them as anti-language, ‘the language of the anti-society’. The language of those involved in unofficial or illegal activities needs to exclude regulators and law officers. To a greater extent than jargon, slang is ‘antilanguage’ because it is intended to dissimilate users from out-groupers.

One mark of slang that distinguishes it from jargon is that it dates much faster (Allan and Buridge, 2006: 69-70). Out-groupers meet severe problems when trying
to learn and use the slang of particular group because it dates faster than jargon. Slang of one generation is either out dated for the next or becomes a mainstream.

Another distinguishing feature of slang is that it can usually be replaced by standard language without loss of communicative efficiency, whereas the best jargon cannot (Allan and Buridge, 2006: 69-70). When people describe someone as pickled or pissed, people can simply say those words with drunk without losing communication efficiency. Such substitutions will necessary change the connotations of the utterance or text and, consequently, the communicative effect.

Another term of language variations is style. Holmes (2001: 245-46) describes that terms style as a language variation which reflects some changes in situational factors, such as address, setting, task or topic. Style is often analyzed along the scale of formality while register is associated with particular groups of people or sometimes situations of use.

In addition, Malmkjær and Anderson (1995: 490-497) define style as a consistent occurrence in the text of certain items and structures, or types of items and structures, among those offered by the language as a whole. This phenomenon can be seen when people can have APA style in research report writing which deal with five chapters: general presentation, tables and figures, footnotes and quotations, references, and APA intricacies. The term is derived from American Psychological Association.

In conclusion, language variations are forms of a language used by people of that language as there are various social interactions among region, class, ethnic
group, age, and gender. Language variations vary on some language aspects, i.e. pronunciation (accent), grammar, or word choice within a language.

d. Jargon

1) Definition

Allan and Burridge (2006: 56) define jargon as the language weird to particular context like a trade, profession or other group. It is the language used in a body of spoken or written texts, dealing with a circumscribed domain in which speakers share a common specialized vocabulary, habits of word usage, and forms of expression. Moreover, they state that jargons are used among people who have common work-related or recreational interest. It binds not only professionals, but also members of any groups who use a particular jargon. It is why in the hotel Housekeeping Division, for whom there is a long and difficult apprenticeship, there is a consequent feeling amongst in-groupers that they belong to an exclusive club.

In addition, Malmkjær and Anderson (1995: 115) state that jargon is used only in restricted contexts such as trade and recruitment of labour. Jargon is like mini-dialects, but used only for the activity for which they were created. They are not only sensitive to the requirements of the activity but also to the personal and social needs of the speakers.

Yule (2006: 211) says that jargon is a special technical vocabulary associated with a particular area of work or interest. In social terms, jargon helps to create and maintain connections among those who see themselves as ‘insiders’ in some way and to exclude ‘outsiders’. It is often taken place inside a register.
Hornby (1995: 296) also states that jargon consists of technical words or expressions used by a particular profession or group of people and difficult for others to understand. The group here can be a professional or social group. Furthermore, Spolsky (1998: 33) defines jargon as speech used by marked group of people such as a trade or occupation. A specialized bond between members of in-group and enforce boundaries outside. If the people do not understand a certain jargon, it means that they do not belong to a certain group. Jargon can be useful for conveying meaning precisely and effectively for specific communities. However, it may also exclude and/or confuse those who are not “in-group”. Thus, speakers and writers need to be aware of their audiences when deciding to use jargon appropriately.

Moreover, Crystal (2003) defines jargon as the technical vocabulary or idiom of special activity or group. The reality is that everyone uses jargon; it is an essential part of the network or occupation and pursuits which make up a society. All jobs present an element of jargon, which workers learn as they develop their expertise. All hobbies require mastery of a jargon. All sports and games have their own jargon. Each society grouping has its jargon. The occupation of person causes his language to vary, particularly in the use he makes of technical terms. The phenomenon of using jargon therefore, turns out to be universal and valuable.

Richards and Schmidt (2002: 278) define jargon as spoken or written words and expressions used by a group of people who belong to a particular trade, profession, or any other group bound together by common attention, e.g. the jargon of law, medical jargon. A jargon has its own set of words and expressions, which
may be incomprehensible to an outsider. The term jargon is typically not used by the
group but by those unfamiliar with that particular type of language.

Jargon is sometimes compared to slang because both have the same senses as
kinds of shorthand of language. However, the line of demarcation between jargon
and slang is open to dispute because slang is sometimes defined in such way to
overlap almost completely with the definition of jargon (Allan and Burridge, 2006:
68).

In accordance with above statements, Tashword (2008) defines jargon as the
words used in a particular context that are meaningful to people experiencing that
context. Tashword explain that jargon is not a bad thing as it can make
communicating with others in the field quicker and easier. Jargon, therefore can
make communication efficient and effective for the users.

Allan (2001: 172) proposes three criteria in identifying a jargon. First, it can be
identified by its lexical markers such as specialized used vocabulary, idiom, and
abbreviations. Second, a jargon can be identified by its syntactical markers, e.g.
imperative and passive sentences. Third, a jargon is identified by its presentational
markers in terms of prosodic (voice quality, amplitude, rhythm) and format in which
the context is presented.

In conclusion, jargon is technical language of some fields such as a trade,
profession, or similar group using unusual vocabulary, complex phrasing, and
unclear meaning. It is an exclusive term in which mostly known by the insiders, i.e.
users of the jargon instead of the outsiders, i.e. people who do not belong to be field.
There are some motivations of creating jargon. First, it is used to exclude the people or novices, there who do not belong to. If a person does not understand a jargon of group as it means as it mean he does not belong to that group. Jargon can give a person a sense of belonging to a specific group. Jargon is an effective signal for identification. It is effective when it is used in the group where the jargon created or occurs. Another motivation of creating jargon is communicative efficiency. If something has to be frequently mentioned, it is more economical to have a single word to refer to it than a length phrase. We know that jargon uses items already existing in language and then extend their meaning and function. Jargon rarely uses completely new words or construction. Practically, the words are old but with new meaning and different meaning.

2) Forms of Jargon

Form of jargon is the physical appearance of a term or combined terms that results important technical meanings. Halligan (2004) elaborates four kinds of jargon. They consist of acronym, abbreviation, word, and phrase. It is supported by Chaika’s theory (1982) telling that jargon appears in two ways. Firstly, it is shaped in the form of new words. Secondly, it appears in the form of existed words as common people know.

a) Acronym

The first form of jargon is acronym. It is formed from the initial letters of a set of other word. Bauer (1988: 39) and Yule (2006: 57) state that acronyms are formed from the initial letters of the words in name, title or phrase. It can be pronounced as a
single word, for example UNICEF that stands for United Nations Children’s Fund, NATO for North Atlantic Treaty Organization, NASA for National Aeronautics and Space Administration, and UNESCO for United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. There are many acronyms that become everyday terms such as laser (‘light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation’) and radar (‘radio detecting and ranging’). Names for organizations are often intended to have their acronym represent an appropriate term, as in ‘mothers against drunk driving’ (MADD) and ‘women against rape’ (WAR). Some new acronyms come into general use so quickly that many speakers do not think of their component of meanings. Innovation such as PIN (‘personal identification number’) is regularly used with one of their elements.

b) Abbreviation

Talking about abbreviation, there are two theories that can be used as the basis for explaining it. The first theory is proposed by Leech in Culpeper et al. (2009: 109) who mentions that an abbreviation is formed by taking the initial letters which does not result in well-formed syllables. Thus, unlike an acronym, an abbreviation cannot be pronounced as if a word. The people should spell as what the initial letters are, such as USA which is pronounced /yu es ai/ instead of /yusa/.

The second theory is proposed by Fromkin, et al. (1991: 84). They say that abbreviation is intended to simplify words or combined words by putting one or some syllables of the original word/words. It can be formed by longer words or phrases such as phone for telephone, math for mathematics, board for blackboard, and fridge for refrigerator. By taking the only initial letters of each word that has
already contained complete information such as BBC standing for British Broadcast Corporation, using abbreviation might increase more efficient communication, (Allan and Burridge, 2006: 89).

c) Word

Leech in Culpeper et al. (2009: 109) mentions that a word is not merely defined as the smallest form that can occur by itself as an utterance as it can also be manipulated by syntax such as what occur in sentence structure of an active sentence and passive sentence. Meanwhile, Finegan (2004: 40) proposes four informations dealing with a word. First, people should be able to identify a word’s sound and the sequencing. It is related with phonological information. Second, people should be able to identify a word’s meaning which is related to semantic information. Third, people should be able to identify how related words such as the plural form of a noun or past tense of a verb are formed. It deals with morphological information. Fourth, people should be able to identify a word’s category and how to use it in a larger composition, i.e. a sentence.

In relation to a word’s class, word is divided into content word and function word (Fromkin, et al., 1991: 64). A content word is a word which determines thing, quality, state, or action. It has meaning when it is used alone. It consists of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. On the other hand, a function word is a word which has little meaning on its own. It is used to show grammatical relationships in and between sentences. It consists of conjunctions, prepositions, articles, and pronoun.
d) Phrase

According to Leech in Culpeper et al. (2009: 130-135), a phrase, i.e. a group of words which form a grammatical unit, has a main word that is called a head. It is the only word that has to occur in the phrase. A phrase does not contain a finite-verb and does not have a subject-predicate structure. The modifier, putting before as well as after the head, is optional. Every content word can be formed into a phrase as explained as follows.

a) a diligent housekeeper → a noun phrase
   The head is housekeeper.

b) is going to mop → verb phrase
   The head is mop.

c) extraordinarily clean → adjective phrase
   The head is clean.

d) very diligently → adverb phrase
   The head is diligently.

3) Meaning of Jargon

Meaning of jargon sometimes does not mean what exactly people mean by themselves. As a result, people who do not belong to particular group of field will not understand entirely of what the people who belong to the same field talking about using jargon. Identifying the meaning of jargon is conducted by investigating technical meaning instead of lexical meaning. Some sources are employed, such as
In every term, meaning contains two concepts in nature, i.e. sense and reference (Finch, 2003: 132-133). Firstly, sense shows its meaning in relation to linguistic structure and it is seen as the mental representation of a linguistic expression. There are two kinds of sense, conceptual sense and associative sense. Conceptual sense indicates the established semantic features of a word. It is commonly investigated by using a classical componential analysis, i.e. comparing a set of words in a semantic field in pairs and distinguishing between them in terms of a set of binary feature. For example, the word ‘man’ and ‘woman’ are possibly described as ‘human, adult, male’ for man, and ‘human, adult, female’ for woman.

woman: \[ + \text{human} + \text{adult} + \text{female}\]
man: \[ + \text{human} + \text{adult} + \text{male}\]

Associative sense acquires significant associative meanings from the social and cultural contexts in which they are used. Some associative processes are connotation, collocation, stylistic variation, and reflection. A word or phrase has a connotation as the supplementary meaning besides its central meaning. Collocation is the manner in which words are used together regularly (such as particular preposition for particular verb). Stylistic variation is variation in writing of a person or group of people according to the situation of the topic. Reflection is the practice of thinking back on and considering experiences, in order to understand better the significance of such experiences.

Secondly, reference shows its meaning in relation to the external world, such as the things, actions, events, and qualities they stand for (Hurford 2007: 117). A
reference is distinguished into definite and indefinite reference. A definite reference occurs when an addressee is able to identify the referent of the linguistic expressions spoken by a speaker. It is usually characterized by the putting articles in the initial position, i.e. the, that, this, those, and these. On the other hand, an indefinite reference occurs when an addressee is unable to identify to do so. It is indicated by the presence of indefinite singular (a, an) and plural noun (-s). The examples of the definite and indefinite reference are described as follows.

A woman put these vases on that table.

A woman: indefinite reference

These vases, that table: definite reference

4) Function of Jargon

Brown and Attardo (2000: 110) sum up that jargon has two main functions. It is created to provide speakers of specialized domains with clear on ambiguous terms to refer to their activities and to provide speakers of a subgroup with means of working in-group membership and excluding outsider. Based on these two functions, jargon can make communication between people inside the field quicker and easier. However, when used with outside the relevant fields, jargon can be confusing and hinder understanding. It can even be used to make the outside people feel inferior because they do not understand the jargon. It is often used to show social identification; to show that he people belong to a certain group. They have their own jargon to make the process of communication more efficient.
Similarly, Allan and Burridge (2006: 58) propose two functions of jargon. Firstly, a jargon functions in providing a technical or specialist language for particular and efficient communication. Broadly speaking, a jargon makes communication more effective since it offers a word in which the scope is limited to a particular field and carries a specialized meaning. It is called as technical since a jargon of a field is unlikely used in other fields, for example the jargon $OD$ which stands for occupied dirty. This jargon belongs to a room status indicating that the rented room is dirty. However, medical field, $OD$ stands for over-dosage which is meant as the situation where the patient consumes too much medicine.

Secondly, a jargon encourages in-group solidarity. People who belong to the same field will have a harmonious situation using jargon in their communication. This results in their position as a solid member of society. For example, housekeepers using *lobby duster* as their jargon are likely pumped in terms of solidarity because out-groupers are excluded at the same time. In other words, a jargon can widen the users’ authority putting them into the situation where it is only their domain.
e. Hotel Field

Rutherford and O’Fallon (2007: 78-81) construct the organization in a hotel as in this following figure.

![Hotel Organization Diagram](image)

Figure 1: Hotel Organization

1) Food and beverage department

Food and beverage department includes six divisions, i.e. food production, food service, room service, beverage manager, convention and catering, and stewarding. The primary function of this department is providing food and drink to hotel guests. In earlier time, a hotel had only one dining room, that the task was simpler. However, nowadays, a hotel might have more complete service in terms of food and beverage such as a coffee shop, a gourmet restaurant, a poolside snack bar,
room service, two banquet halls, and ten separate function rooms where food and beverage may be served. It might also have a piano bar and lounge, a nightclub, and a lobby bar. This adds up to 19 food and beverage outlets, excluding room service.

2) Sales and marketing department

This department is quite small. As a result, making intradepartmental coordination is fairly easy. Moreover, it is removed from most day-to-day operational problems faced by other departments. The number of division in this department depends on the recent need and also the type of customers of a hotel. Individual sales managers often specialize in corporate accounts, conventions, or tour and travel markets. Sales managers are sometimes further subdivided along geographical lines such as regional or national accounts.

3) Room department

Room department carries out the lodging function of a hotel. As it includes six divisions, i.e. front office, laundry, reservations, housekeeping, security, and engineering, there are some responsibilities handled by this department. The responsibilities include reservations must be accepted, guests must be hospitably received and assigned clean rooms, the status of available and occupied rooms must be kept current, guests must receive mail and phone messages promptly, security must be maintained, public spaces such as lobbies must be kept clean, and guest questions must be answered. Each division in this department performs rather specialized tasks.

The front office is where guests are greeted when they arrive at the hotel, registered, and assigned to a room. Telephone operators and other guest
communications functions usually fall under the front office department. The hotel bell staff is also a part of this department. A reservation takes and tracks hotel future bookings. The housekeeping department is responsible for cleaning guest rooms and public spaces. Security is responsible for guest safety. Finally, the engineering department is responsible for the operation and maintenance of the hotel entire physical plant, including electrical, mechanical, heating, air conditioning and ventilation, structure, and plumbing. It also performs minor repairs and renovations.

4) Accounting department

The accounting department includes seven divisions as assistant controller finance, assistant controller operation, purchasing, storeroom, food & beverage controller, credit, and systems. Its conventional role is managing all about money, for instance documenting financial transactions, preparing and interpreting financial statements, and providing management with timely reports of operating results. Responsibilities also include payroll preparation, accounts receivable, and accounts payable. These functions are the responsibility of the assistant controller for finance.

5) Personnel department

A hotel personnel department is a staff organization set up in charge in a specialized function. What makes it special is that they serve no customers, book no business, and prepare no meals, yet it plays a vital role in a hotel efficient operation. It includes three divisions, i.e. employee recruitment, benefits manager, and training. The head of personnel department must be an expert on labour law and able to advise managers in other departments while these three divisions do not present many problems of interdependence. Personnel department may recruit, interview, and
screen prospective employees, but final hiring authority resides in the line departments.

f. **Housekeeping Division**

Housekeeping Division is one of the most important departments in a hotel, particularly in room department. Perwani (1995: 11) explains that housekeeping is in charge in making the guests and employees feel comfortable and safe in the hotel. As one of the divisions dealing with some guests, it requires one language system used to communicate with the employee and other divisions as well as the guests so that this division might run the orders and responsibilities well. She explains that the responsibilities of Housekeeping Division are to create a good communication system in its division and make a mutual cooperation with other divisions.

In addition, Rumekso (2001: 1) states that Housekeeping Division is in charge in keeping the cleanliness, tidiness, embellishment and comforting the entire hotel area, indoor and outdoor. The indoor area means a room which have roof and partition, e.g. lobby room, hall, meeting room, bathroom, pantry, and restaurant. Meanwhile, the outdoor area covers garage, swimming pool, parking area, and garden.

As one of the hotel division, it is important for a Housekeeping Division to have a structural organization to make sure the job description run well. Jones (2008: 1- 25) distinguishes hotel professional management of housekeeping operations into some parts:
a) Executive Housekeeper and Scientific Management

This section deals with how the whole parties in housekeeping are managed such as a manager and also the employees. Basically, a hotel manager is in charge in designing the appropriate technology in running his responsibility. In implementing the technology, a manager should cooperate with other boards to monitor the housekeepers. Additionally, he is assisted by a head of Housekeeping Division evaluates the housekeepers’ achievement regularly.

b) Planning, Organizing, and Staffing the New Organization

This phase runs a sequence of operational responsibility. Firstly, planning to administer a housekeeping department becomes the most pre-requisite step in a hotel. In this case, planning is closely related with what the type the hotel is. The more modern the type results on the more complicated of the planning. It includes the number of housekeepers and the job descriptions. Secondly, organizing is the real application of the previous step, planning. Here, the boards in Housekeeping Division do their work based on the job description. Thirdly, the housekeepers’ real work job description is organized in staffing management. A hotel is allowed to group them based on the same job description, e.g. public area, laundry, and room attendant and schedule them daily as well as weekly, e.g. 8 hours per day or 40 hours per week.

c) Directing and Controlling Ongoing Housekeeping Operations

This section deals with the direction and control functions as applied to ongoing operations of housekeeping management. Directing flow is started from the manager and then distributed to the head of division to be continuously executed by
the housekeepers. This mechanism also prevails toward controlling management. Housekeepers’ job description is controlled by the head of the division. Meanwhile, the manager is in charge in controlling the head job description.

2. Previous Studies

There are two studies related to this research. The first was conducted by Laila Putri entitled *An Analysis of Computer Jargon in Macbook Users’ Guide*. This study analyzed the form, meaning, word relation, and function of jargon. There were 94 computer jargons found from MacBook operation. Based on structural formation, there are 24 words (26%) and 21 phrases (22%). Meanwhile, based on unpredictable formation, there are 5 clippings (5%), 4 blends (4%), 4 acronyms (4%), and 36 abbreviations (39%). The meaning of jargon in this study was analyzed using intentionalist approach which every jargon has different meaning compared to the language used in other major. Furthermore, from the word relation point of view, this study found 48 jargons (51%) related with IT field and 46 jargons (49%) unrelated with IT. The last, this study classified the jargon from the function point of view into firstly providing speakers of specialized domain with clear, unambiguous terms to refer to their activities by 46 jargons (49%) and secondly providing speakers of subgroup with a means of marking in group membership and excluding outsiders by 48 jargons (51%).

The second was conducted by Aditya Eko Sigit Wicaksono entitled *An Analysis of Military Jargon in a Video Game: Call of Duty 4 Modern Warfare*. This study analyzed the form, function, and meaning of jargon. There are 107 jargons
found in this study. The result of form classifications shows that 55 jargons belong to word, 25 phrase, 21 abbreviation, and 6 acronym. The jargons function to serve as a technical or specialist language for precise and economical communication (62.62%), to promote in-group solidarity (35.51%), and to exclude out-groupers (1.87%). Meanwhile, the meaning of the jargons was identified by the context in which they are used.

Even though this study has something in common, the researcher has different subject of the study. With regard to the background of the study and related studies, the researcher is inspired and encouraged to conduct a study of Housekeeping Division jargon at Cakra Kusuma Hotel. This research focuses on analyzing the jargons in terms of forms, meanings, and functions.

B. Conceptual Framework

This research focuses on analyzing jargon used in Housekeeping Division at Cakra Kusuma Hotel. In this research, jargon is defined as technical language of some fields such as a trade, profession, or similar group using unusual vocabulary, complex phrasing, and unclear meaning. It involves exclusive terms in which mostly are known by the insiders, i.e. users of the jargon instead of the outsiders, i.e. people who do not belong to be field.

The analysis goes through three categories; form, meaning, and function of jargon. Firstly, the form of jargon is analyzed based on the four categories; acronym, abbreviation, word, and phrase. Secondly, the meaning of jargon is analyzed by investigating the technical meaning instead of lexical meaning. Meanwhile, the
function of jargon is analyzed based on the two categories; first, providing a technical or specialist language for particular and efficient communication and second, encouraging in group-solidarity and excluding as out-groupers.

As the population of the study, a Housekeeping Division belongs to Room Department. A Housekeeping Division is responsible for cleaning guest rooms and public spaces. Since it is one of the divisions dealing with some guests, it requires one language system used to communicate with the employee and other divisions as well as the guests so that this division might run the orders and responsibilities well. To do so, housekeepers use jargon. The jargons are used in their subdivisions, i.e. in room attendant, public area, and laundry.
C. Analytical Construct

Figure 2: Analytical Construct of a Descriptive Analysis of Jargon in Housekeeping Division at Cakra Kusuma Hotel