CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter gives detailed description of the theories used in this research. To prevent the research goes far from its goal; the researcher needs some theories which can be used as a guide to analyze the data and to support the research. This research tends to use many references as possible to support the research. Those are Translations, Legal Text, Classification of Legal Terms, Translation in Legal Text, Translation Techniques, and UN SSR Toolkit. The reason why the writer uses translation techniques as the supporting theory is simply because the study of translation cannot be separated from some techniques that are used by the translator to face some problems during the process of translation. Besides, the classification of legal terms that become the topic of analysis are also included in this chapter. The information related to the source of the data is given in the gender and SSR Toolkit entitled *Penal Reform and Gender (International Centre for Prison Studies)* into *Reformasi Pemasyarakatan dan Gender (Pusat Kajian Kepenjaraan Internasional)* issued by United Nations. The detail descriptions of the theories can be seen as follows:

2.1 Translation

Translation is defined as process to transfer the logical meanings of the source text (ST) into an equivalent target text (TT). This definition indicates some important concepts. First, it refers to translation as a process (Manfredi, 2008: 21). Here, translation is as a process that involves some stages for the acquisition of the logical meanings of the ST and their transfer into the TT. Furthermore Manfredi (2008:21) also stated that translation refers to translation as a product of the process of translation. It means that translation is as a product, it refers to a translation which serves as TT. It has the function which is the same as the function of the ST (House, 2001:247). Moreover, the translation functions to provide the logical meanings which are similar the one of the ST. In such a nature and extent, it is viewed as the replacement of the ST. Another definition is provided by House (2001:247). He said that translation refers to translation as equivalence. It implies that as equivalence, it is used to account the translation quality which shows the nature and extent of the relation between the ST and TT. Based on the three theoretical concepts, translation is defined a process of acquiring and transferring the meanings of a ST into an equivalent target language (TL) from a source language (SL) into a TL which is different from the SL.

Translating a text or written translation is not only changing one language into another language, but also sending a meaningful message so that the readers can understand. It is because it deals with many aspects, such as social aspects, cultural aspects and linguistic aspects. Translation has an important role to make the text grammatically and to be naturalness, so that the text can be easily understood by the readers. The goal of translation is generally to establish a relation of equivalence of intent between the source and the target texts. Here are some definitions of translation which are proposed by some experts. Catford (1974:20) states that “Translation is replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)”.

Meanwhile, Nida and Taber (1974:12) states that “Translation consists of reproducing in the receptor language to the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in term of meaning, secondly in term of style”. Based on the definitions of translation according to the experts above, the researcher concludes that translation replaced the textual material in one language into another language which the target language is the closest natural equivalent of the source language. It can be said that translation means delivery of message contained in source language (SL) into target language (TL), and the message transferred in target language (TL) is closely similar to that in the source language (SL). Translation is an operation of some languages, it is a process of transferring ideas, thoughts and purposes from one language (SL) into another language (TL).

In translation, there is substitution of TL meanings for the SL. In transference there is an implantation of SL meanings into the TL text. These two processes must be clearly differentiated in any theory of translation. The best translation does not sound like a translation. But, this does not mean that it should exhibit in its grammatical and stylistic forms any trace of awkwardness or strangeness.

Definition of translation cannot separate from the approaches in translation because it is one of theory to support the translation and approaches in translation are basic of translation. Translation has an important role to make a grammatical and natural text, so that the text can be understood by the readers. Translation is a subject of interests not only to linguists, professional and amateur translators and language teachers but also to electronic engineers and mathematicians. Translation activity is very important in the modern world. Translation is a useful test case for examining the whole issue of the role of language in social life. It is also meant the activity to substitute the source text into the target text in order to make a grammatical and natural text that involves many factors that influence the result of the text.

Translation involves source language and target language. Source language is language which is used by the writer to express the message, ideas, and then make the material that will be translated. Source language can be called “the original language”. While target language is the places of translation language, the message, ideas by the writer of the original language, in addition, a source language is a language that will be translated and a target language is a translated language. It is important to know that source language has a system, a structure of tenses, and a structure of morphology and word class that is different from the target language and the target language must adapt to the source.

To translate one language into another language is not an easy work. There is a process to substitute the source language into the target language, so that the sound of the result of translated language is not natural or rigid. Fuller in

Soerjowardhana and Quitlong (2002:2-3) add that there are two elements in translating, they are:

1. Form: The ordering of words and ideas in the translation should match the original as closely as possible. Cattford, Nida, Savoci and Pinchuck in Rifqi (2000:1-30) add ‘equivalent’ is also important in translation.
2. Meaning: The translation should reflect accurately the meaning of the Original text. Nothing should be arbitrary added or removed, though occasionally part of the meaning can be changed.

Based on the definition above, it can be said that translation means delivery of message contained in Source Language (SL) into Target Language (TL), and the message transferred in Target Language (TL) is closely similar to that in Source Language (SL). Translation is an operation of some languages; it is a process of transferring ideas, thoughts, and purposes from one language (SL) into another language (TL). The most important thing to consider is message of the text, then the term style that the translator uses.

2.2 Legal Text

Legal texts vary on a wide range of classifications depending on its nature of function. Legal English can be seen as consisting of several kinds of writing, depending on their communicative function. As suggested by Hiltunen (1990: 81), there are three different types of legal writing to be distinguished: (a) academic texts which consist of academic research journals and legal textbooks, (b) juridical texts covering court judgements or law reports and (c) legislative or statutory writings consisting of Acts of Parliament, contracts, treaties, etc. Despite the external similarity between ordinary language on one hand and legal discourse and the language of law on the other, there are some crucial differences that need to be highlighted (Tiersma, 1999:56).

Legal language is often treated as a distinctive type of language for special purposes (Taylor, 1998:20). He adds that there are two characteristics of legal language are the high degree of formality and extended register (Taylor, 1998:21). Formality is derived from the fact that legal documents are always produced in official settings and legal discourse is practiced in very formal situations with very strict rules of role taking and participation. The rules and restrictions are identical with those of "felicity conditions" required for validity of speech act. A sentence to death, for example, can not be interpreted as such unless it is performed in a court of law by a judge or authority liable to pass this act.

2.3 Classification of Legal Terms

Technical language is very different in style and structure from everyday language. The term refers to vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and document organization. Technical language is found in fields such as medicine, law, finance, etc. It refers to both technical terminology and technical documents, thereby including vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and document organization. Technical language can be found in legislation, contracts, policy, consent forms, and even in newspaper articles. One of the technical language is legal language.

Legal language is based on ordinary language. Hence, the grammar and most of the vocabulary of legal language are identical to those of ordinary language. On the other hand, legal language is one of the languages for special purposes, as a result of which it has certain characteristics that differ from ordinary language, for example, on the level of syntax and style. Legal language is characterized especially by the use of technical terms, the nature and number of which vary according to the branch of law. The language of law is classified in various ways and one may speak of a language for special or specific purposes, or of a sublanguage, scientific language, or specialized language (Pearson 1998: 28).

Vocabulary used in law can be classified from different perspectives. Mellinkoff (2004: 11) groups the vocabulary into eight categories (common words with uncommon meanings, such as ‘prayer’ as a form of ‘pleading’, Old English and Middle English words /witnesseth/, Latin words and phrases /lexfori/, words of Old French and Anglo-Norman origin /plaintiff/, terms of arts /fee simple/, argot /taking the fifth/, formal phrases /approach the bench/, and lexical units with flexible meanings /reasonable/). Another classification (Riley 1995: 73–79) distributes the legal lexicon among three wider groups:

1) ”Pure” legal terminology as relatively a scarce group of lexical units or phrases (such as legal maxims) that are not used outside the branch of law unless stylistically marked. Examples are ‘detinue’ (as the act of detaining or withholding of what is due) or ‘asportation’ (the action of carrying off). This category usually includes Old and Middle English words, and Latin lexical units and phrases.
2) Legal terminology found in everyday speech: these are lexical units with related legal meaning, such as ‘land’, ‘negligence’ or ‘law’.
3) Everyday words which are assigned a special connotation in a given legal context; this often happens when a word or phrase regularly and primarily used in common speech becomes a part of the subject-matter of a statute thus acquiring new semantic dimensions either expanding or narrowing their original meaning. For example, the British Animal Welfare Act 2006 defines animal as “a vertebrate other than man” but, under certain circumstances, the Act allows for the expansion of the concept to “include invertebrates of any description”.

Moreover, Hughes & Alcaraz (2002: 16-18) assign the same three groups of legal vocabulary slightly modified names preserving their characteristics as suggested by Riley above: (1) purely technical terms (meaning the lexical units and phrases found only in the legal setting, i.e. having no application outside law); (2) semi-technical or mixed terms (Words which have both a common usage in ordinary situations and a different and precise usage in science, eg ‘cell’ mot technique déguisé), and (3) everyday vocabulary frequently found in legal texts. It should be noted that the border between (1) and (2) in the latter classification is more relaxed than that of Riley above. In this research, besides the classification of legal term, the researcher uses Black’s Law Dictionary 10th

Edition to help find the legal terms context since they have ambiguous meaning (Rotman, 1995:35). It is also claimed (Harvey 2002:21) that law is an unstable discipline, largely indeterminate, and that legal discourse is fluctuant, with its meaning depending on the language in which it is expressed and even on the target audience.

2.4 Translation in Legal Text

Legal translation is a special purpose translation, then, the goal of which is to preserve the meaning of the source text and lead to the same results in practice. It falls under a specialist category, technical translation, since it involves the use of a special language (technically speaking a LSP, language for special purpose) within a technical context, namely the one of law. Cao (2007:8) says that LSP is therefore distinguished both from ordinary language and from special languages of other domains. Being inscribed in the discipline of law, for legal translation we can speak about Language for *Legal* purpose (LLP).

Legal translation focuses all that has to do with the legal world, from the transcription of a press conference held after a summit to the introduction of a new regulation. Every text has different traits and has to be handled with more or less care according to function and legal force; so, the effect it is meant to produce. Furthermore, the legal texts share some features that make up what is called the Language of law.

Moreover, there are some difference about whether legal language should be treated as a technical language on its own or as ordinary language used for, and adapted to, special purposes, what is sure is that it uses ordinary language and that, again according to texts and their role, it can be more or less technical and consequently understandable to the lay person. Legal translation can come to light at different levels: on a national basis, in the case of a bilingual or multilingual country, on an international basis, i.e. when an international organization is concerned or in the case of an international treaty wanted by two or more countries that do not share the same language, or even when regulating legal relationships among privates coming from different legal systems and/or speaking different languages.

2.5 Translation Techniques

Translation has relationship to the translated text, and a process, the act of translating, where by translating we mean take what is written in one language and turn it into an equally meaningful text written in another language. Bell (1991:13) states that if confined to a written language, translation is a cover term with three distinguishable meanings. The first meaning is the word "translating", which concerns on the process (to translate; the activity rather than the tangible object). The second meaning is carried by "a translation", concerns on the product of the process of translating (e.g. the translated text). The last meaning carried by translation is "translation" as the abstract concept which encompasses both the process of translating and the product of that process. Molina and Albir (2002:509) classify translation techniques based on the following criteria:

1) To isolate the concept of technique from other related notions (translation strategy, method and error).
2) To include only techniques that are characteristic of the translation of texts and not those related to the comparison of languages.
3) To maintain the notion that translation techniques are functional. Our definitions do not evaluate whether a technique is appropriate or correct, as this always depends on its situation in text and context and the translation method that has been chosen.
4) In relation to the terminology, to maintain the most commonly used terms.
5) To formulate new techniques to explain mechanisms that have not yet been described.

Furthermore, Molina and Albir (2002: 509-511) classify the translation into 18 techniques:

(1) Adaptation

It is the replacement of the cultural element of source text (ST) into the culture of target text (TT). It can be said that adaptation is the freest and the closest translation in the TL. In addition, the important element such as theme, character, and plot should be retained. Usually poetry and comedy are translated with this technique. It is applied by adapting the cultural terms of the TL and the SL is rewritten. For example: change *wolf* into *kancil* in a translation into Indonesian (Hartono, 2011:46). It happens because replacement of cultural element, *wolf* is a symbol of clever animal in the ST (Source Text). Thus, the translator has to find appropriate word in translating the text in order to have the same meaning from ST (Source Text).

Furthermore, Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti (2000:84-93) define adaptation as a technique that creates a new situation to indicate a situational equivalence. And also it involves changing the cultural reference when a situation in the source culture does not exist in the target culture. This technique brings us to the extreme limit of translation; it is applied when the situation to which the message refers does not exist at all in the TL and must be created by reference to a new situation, is not required, as cultural similarities in such instances usually provide a series of parallelisms of content that make the translation less difficult than when both languages and cultures are disparate. Adaptation is question of situational equivalence. In fact, sometimes, due to religious, cultural and literary factors, it is difficult to find a standard equivalent in one language for another. It is similar with loss and gain strategies.

The concept of loss and gain is proposed by Nida and he said (1975:102), a translator should have good knowledge of the languages of the cultures of both languages. The linguistic knowledge that should be mastered includes morphology, lexis, syntax, and semantics, while cultural knowledge should be sufficiently possessed as the background of the user of these languages. However, it is very difficult to find lexical equivalents between TL culture and SL culture since they are different from one another. The lexical meaning of the two languages will not exactly be the same. There tends to be loss, gain and skewing of information. Adaptation is particularly used in the translation of book and film. The examples are: gone with the wind is translated into hilang tanpa jejak and hide and seek is translated into petak umpet.

(2) Amplification

This technique is used to introduce details that are not found in the ST (Source Text): information, explicative paraphrasing. According to Ardi (2010:12), addition technique is not the same with the amplification technique as stated by Molina and Albir (2002:86). He argues that the amplification technique is used to make the hidden or implicit message become the explicit one. However, if the message is come from outside of the SL text it is categorized as addition technique. For instance: when translating from Arabic to add *the Muslim month of fasting* to the noun *Ramadan*. Therefore, *Ramadan* is translated into *Ramadan*, *the Muslim month of fasting* (Hartono, 2011:46).

(3) Borrowing

It is a type of translation which takes a word or expression straight from another language. It can be pure (without any change), e.g., to use the English word *urine, horizon, diameter, stereo, and neutron*in Indonesian text, or it can be naturalized (to fit the spelling rules in the TT (Target Text), e.g., *gol, informasi, and tes* (Hartono, 2011:46). Another explanations is presented by Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti (2000:84-93) say that borrowing is the simplest of all translation techniques. In borrowing, the SL is directly transferred to the TL. It can be said that this task refers to a case where a word or an expression is taken from the SL and used in the TL, but in a 'naturalized' form, that is, it is made to conform to the rules of grammar or pronunciation of the TL.

According to Haugen in Sari (2009:18), there are three types of borrowing. First is pure loan word. It is type of borrowing which is not change the form and the meaning. The examples are: email is translated into *email.* Second is mix loan word. It is type of borrowing which is change in form but without change the meaning. The examples are: package is translated into *paket*. The last is loan blend word. It is type of borrowing when part of the term is native and the other part is borrowed. The examples are: broadcast network becomes *jaringan broadcast,* national debt is translated into *hutang nasional*.

(4) Calque

A calque is a special kind of borrowing whereby a language borrows an expression from another, but then translates literally each of its elements. Furthermore, Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti (2000:84-93) explain that there are two results of calque: (1) a lexical calque which respects the syntactic structure of the TL, whilst introducing a new mode of expression: and (2) structural calque, introduces a new construction into the language.The calque is loan translation (linear substitution) of morphologically analyzable SL syntax which after a time, are often accepted, or at least tolerated by the target language community. On the other word, it is the literal translation of a foreign word or phrase; it can be lexical or structural, e.g., the English translation *Police Academy* for the Indonesian *Akademi Polisi* (Hartono, 2011:46).

(5) Compensation

It is to introduce a ST (Source Text) element of information or stylistic effect in another place in the TT (Target Text) because it cannot be reflected in the same place as in the ST (Source Text), for instance, the translation of English *“Me?” Exclaimed Mrs. Albert Forrester, for the first time in her life regardless of grammar* into Indonesian *“Apaan?” Teriaknya. Albert Forrester, untuk pertama kali dalam hidupnya lupa pada tata bahasa* (Hartono, 2011:40).

(6) Description

It means to replace a term or expression with a description of its form or/and function, e.g., to translate English *cow-creamer* into Indonesian *poci yang berbentuk sapi untuk tempat susu* (Hartono, 2011:40).

(7) Discursive creation

It is a kind of translation which establishes a temporary equivalence that is totally unpredictable out of context, e.g., the Indonesian translation *A Betrayed Son Malinkundang* into *Si Malinkundang* (Hartono, 2011:41).

(8) Established equivalent

It is the using of a term or expression recognized (by dictionaries or language in use) as an equivalent in the TT (Target Text), e.g., to translate the English expression "*They are as like as two peas"* into "*Mereka sangat mirip"* in Indonesian (Hartono, 2011:41).

(9) Generalization

Generalization technique is a technique in which the translator uses a more general or neutral term. It is the using of a more general or neutral term, e.g., to translate English '*go by inches*' into '*sedikit demi sedikit*' in Indonesian (Hartono, 2011:42). It happens because there is no expression that have the same meaning in Indonesian, so the translator translated it into more general.

(10) Linguistic amplification

It is the addition of linguistic elements. This is often used in consecutive interpreting and dubbing, e.g., to translate the English expression "*Everything is up to you!"* into Indonesian as "S*emuanya terserah anda sendiri!"* (Hartono, 2011:42)

(11) Linguistic compression

It means to synthesize linguistic elements in the TT (Target Text). This is often used in simultaneous interpreting and in sub-titling, e.g., to translate the English question "*Are you sleepy?"* into "*ngantuk?"* in Indonesian (Hartono, 2011:43).

(12) Literal Translation

The SL text is translated literally, focuses on the form and structure, without any reduction into the TL. It means to translate a word or an expression word for word, e.g., *electronic mail* as *surat elektronik*, or, *upload* as *unggah* (Hartono, 2011:43).

(13) Modulation

It is to change the point of view, focus or cognitive category in relation to the ST (Source Text); it can be lexical or structural, e.g., to translate English "*You* *are going to have a child"* instead of "*Kamu akan menjadi seorang ayah* (Hartono, 2011:44). Modulation is a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view. This changes the semantic and point of view of the SL. And it can also be justified when, although literal, or even transposed, translation results in a grammatically correct utterance, it is considered unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the TL.

There are two types; those are: first, fixed or obligatory modulation occurs when a word, phrase or structure cannot be found in the TL. When an active sentence is translated into a passive one, this is an instance of this type of modulation. Fixed modulation, translators with a good knowledge of both languages freely use this method, as they will be aware of the frequency of use, the overall acceptance, and the confirmation provided by a dictionary or grammar of the preferred expression. For example: I grew up in Pati is translated into *Aku dibesarkan di Pati.*

Second, free modulation tends towards a unique solution, a solution which rests upon a habitual train of thought and which is necessary rather than optional. Free modulation is used often enough, or is felt to offer the only solution, it may become fixed. Free modulation is also the type of modulation which turns a negative SL expression into a positive TL expression. For example: It is not difficult to see you becomes *mudah menjumpaimu.*

(14) Particularization

Particularization occurs when a word or phrase in the source text is transferred into a more specific and particular term in the target text. It is the using of a more precise or concrete term, e.g., to translate *window* in English as *guichet* (jendela toko) in French (Hartono, 2011:52).

(15) Reduction

In this technique the translator reduces the SL text in the TL but the message is implied in another part of the TL. It is to suppress a ST (Source Text) information item in the TT (Target Text), e.g., "*the proposal was rejected and* *repudiated"* into "*usulnya ditolak"* when translating into Indonesian (Hartono, 2011:50).

(16) Substitution (linguistic, paralinguistic)

It is the change of linguistic elements for paralinguistic elements (intonation, gestures) or vice versa, e.g., to translate the Arab gesture of putting your hand on your heart as "*Thank you"*. It is used above all in interpreting (Hartono, 2011:53).

(17) Transposition

It is the change of a grammatical category, e.g., *glasses* translated into Indonesian as *kacamata* (Hartono, 2011:48). The term "grammatical category" refers to specific properties of a word that can cause that word and/or a related word to change in form for grammatical reasons (ensuring agreement between words). For example, the word "*boy*" is a noun. Nouns have a grammatical category called number. The values of number are singular (one) and plural (two or more). There are more than twenty grammatical category in English language: number, case, gender, person, tense, aspect, mood, voice, degree and so on.

Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti (2000:84-93) define transposition is a technique that involves replacing one word class with another without changing the meaning of the message or the sense. It can also be used within a language, as when rewarding the phrase. The technique can also be used within a language, as in rewording. In this term, the second version is called the transposed form, and the original one, the base form. The base and transposed forms are not necessarily equivalent from the stylistic point of view. The transposed form generally has a more literary character. Transposition often involves a reciprocal change: one change leads to another and changing one part of speech for another without changing the message itself.

There are two types of transposition: firstly, obligatory transposition occurs when the target language has no other choices because of the language system. The examples are: 'a pair of glasses' translated into '*sepasang kacamata'* and 'balance of trading' to be '*neraca perdagangan'.* Secondly, an optional transposition is a transposition that, for the sake of style, can be chosen by the translator if it fits better into the utterance. The examples are: ‘medical student’ is translated into ‘*mahasiswa kedokteran’* and ‘faculty of humanity’ translates into ‘*Fakultas Ilmu Budaya*’.

(18) Variation

It is the change of linguistic or paralinguistic elements (intonation, gestures) that affect aspects of linguistic variation: changes of textual tone, style, social dialect, geographical dialect, etc., e.g., to introduce or change dialectal indicators for characters when translating for the theater, changes in tone when adapting novels for children, etc.

2.6 UN SSR Toolkit

Security sector reform (SSR) is increasingly prioritised by governments, and on the agenda of international development, peace and security communities. SSR opens a window of possibility to transform security policies, institutions and programmes, creating opportunities to integrate gender issues. The purposes of the toolkit are:

a. Set out why gender is important to SSR processes.

b. Present practical strategies for integrating gender into SSR assessment, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, drawing upon experiences from different SSR contexts and different security sector institutions.

c. Provide material to guide the development of gender-responsive SSR policy, at both international and national levels.

d. Provide material from which training on gender issues for security sector personnel and SSR practitioners can be developed.

e. Be a references guide on international laws and standards governing women’s rights and gender equality, pertinent to security sector reform and security sector institutions.

Furthermore, The Toolkit is designed to provide an introduction to gender issues for a broad range of people working on security sector reform issues. They include policymakers, programmed officers and consultants working on SSR within:

a) National governments

b) Security sector institutions

c) International and regional organizations

d) Donor governments

e) Civil society organizations, including women's organizations

Although the Toolkit targets SSR specialists rather than gender experts, the Tools and Practice Notes can also be a helpful resources for personnel responsible for gender issues who want to learn more about how their work links to SSR. In addition, there are other target audiences for each of the specific Tools/Practice Notes, for example:

- *Parliamentary Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender* – parliamentarians, parliamentary staffers, and members and staff of regional parliaments.
- *Private Military and Security Companies and Gender* – private military and security companies (PMSCs), PMSC industry associations and clients of PMSCs.

Then, the specific content of the Tools and Practice Notes vary depending upon the topic. However, each includes conceptual information such as the definitions of gender and why gender issues are important, as well as practical information such as case studies, tips and checklists. The authors have strived to include a balance of case studies and examples from different parts of the world and from different country contexts (post-conflict, transitional, developing and developed). Moreover, the security system/sector can be understood as comprising all state institutions and other entities with a role in ensuring the security of the state and its people. These include:

1) Core security actors*:* armed forces (including international and regional forces), police, gendarmeries, paramilitary forces, presidential guards,

intelligence and security services, coast guards, border guards, customs authorities, and reserve and local security units.

2) Security management and oversight bodies: parliament/legislature and its relevant legislative committees; government/the executive, including ministries of defense, internal affairs and foreign affairs; national security advisory bodies; customary and traditional authorities; financial management bodies; and civil society actors, including the media, academia and non-governmental organizations.

3) Justice and rule of law institutions: justice ministries, prisons, criminal investigation and prosecution services, the judiciary (courts and tribunals), implementation justice services (bailiffs and ushers), other customary and traditional justice systems, human rights commissions and ombudspersons.

4) Non-statutory security forces: liberation armies, guerrilla armies, private body-guard units, private security companies, private military companies and political party militias.

5) Non-statutory civil society groups: professional groups, the media, research organizations, advocacy organizations, religious organizations, non-governmental organizations and community groups.

Moreover, the SSR Toolkit is translated by DCAF based on the languages of the members including Indonesia. The toolkit will help the government of Indonesia in making policy or regulations. Besides, it can be helped researchers that are interested in knowing.

(Taken from: User Guide of SSR Toolkit, 2008)