

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will discuss several kinds of theories related to the research. They will function as the basic foundation in analyzing the data of the research.

A. Translation

1. Definition of Translation

The term "translation" originates from the Latin root "translatio," signifying "carrying across." Historical records indicate instances of translation dating back to the Mesopotamian era, approximately during the second millennium BC, when the Sumerian poem, Gilgamesh, was translated into various Asian languages. Additionally, an archaeologist from Europe unearthed a stone inscribed with two languages in Egypt, estimated to have existed since 3000 BC. These findings serve as early evidence marking the inception of the translation field (Putra, 2021).

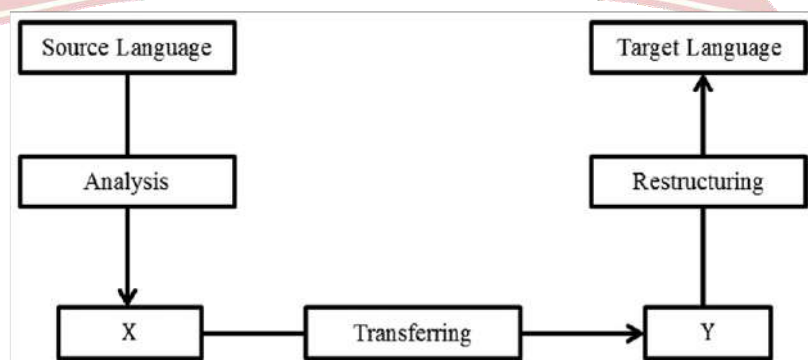
According to Fakhrurrazi (2020), translation is the procedure of transmitting the meaning, ideas, or messages of a text from one language to another. This involves transforming the source language into the target language with the goal of achieving equivalence. Furthermore, translation employs semantic structures to convey messages from the source language to the target language, ensuring the

consistent preservation of conveyed meaning throughout the translation process.

As per Murwantono (2020), the translation process comprises three stages: analysis, transfer, and harmonization. Each stage can be revisited to enhance the comprehension of the text's content. The analysis stage entails comprehending the text's intended purpose, its delivery method or style, and the choice of language units. Following that, the transfer stage concentrates on replacing elements in the source language (SL) with their counterparts in the target language (TL) in terms of both form and content, acknowledging that precise equivalence may not always be attainable. Adjustments are then applied to harmonize the translation results with the specific terms and conditions of the target language.

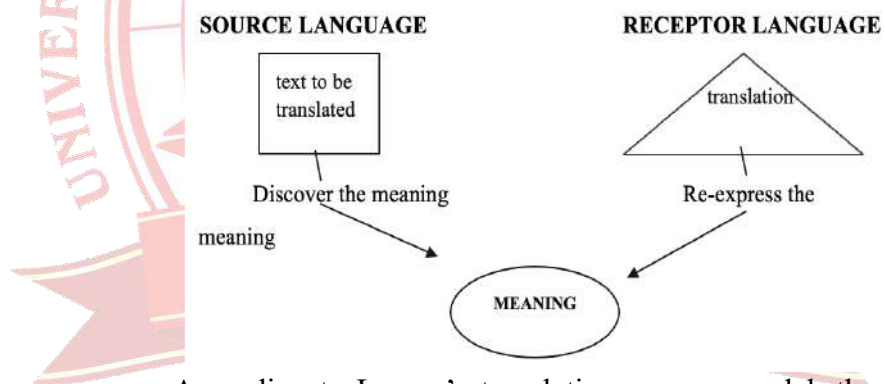
Furthermore, Munawaroh, as cited in Nida and Taber (2020), depicted the translation process in the diagram below:

Figure 1. 3 Nida's translation process model



The translation process is delineated into three stages. Firstly, the analysis phase involves examining the surface structure in terms of grammatical relationships and the meanings of words and word combinations. Secondly, the transfer stage entails transferring the analyzed material from language A to language B within the translator's mind. Thirdly, the restructuring phase involves reorganizing the transferred material to ensure the final message is fully acceptable in the receptor language. Munawaroh (2020) further elaborated by presenting Larson's diagram of the translation process, as outlined below:

Figure 1. 4 Larson's translation process model



According to Larson's translation process model, the purpose of the translation process, as illustrated in the diagram, is to convey the meaning of the text rather than its form from the source language to the target language. The translation involves analyzing the source language text to identify its vocabulary, grammatical structure, and context. It also

entails uncovering the meaning of the text and seeking a natural equivalent in the target language. From those definitions above, the researcher concludes that the translation process comprises three primary stages: analysis, transfer, and restructuring.

1. The analysis stage involves the translator meticulously examining the entire text to extract meaning from the source text using their background knowledge and linguistic competence. During this phase, the translator breaks down the source text sentences into translation units, which encompass words and phrases. The primary objective is to produce a precise, acceptable, and coherent text in the target language that accurately represents the original text in the source language.
2. The transfer stage signifies the process wherein the translator selects words from the source language and finds the closest equivalent in the target language to convey the intended meaning effectively in both languages.
3. Restructuring is a crucial stage involving the reproduction of the text in the target language. Here, the translator ensures the creation of an appropriate text by adhering to the grammatical and semantic structures present in the source language. Additionally, the translator must assess whether the translation maintains a smooth and natural flow in the target language during this phase.

2. The Types of Translation

Corina as cited in Newmark (2021) said about the level of translation, which is formed as follows, may also be used to identify the different forms of translation:

a) Word to Word Translation

This level involves identifying lexical components in the source language that possess multiple meanings and finding their equivalents in the destination language.

b) Group to Group Translation

This level, though more comprehensive than word-for-word translation, simplifies understanding by recognizing fixed counterparts for English phrases in another language. As long as the researcher comprehends the phrase's meaning, translation becomes more manageable.

c) Sentence to Sentence Translation

This translation level begins with a lexical (word-to-word) and grammatical analysis, followed by applying the fundamental dynamic and closest natural equivalent principle to craft an equivalent translation after restricting the message.

d) Paragraph to Paragraph Translation

This level encompasses the processes involved in the first to the third ranks. Following these steps, the

conversion of the message from the source language into its counterpart in the target language is executed. Additionally, Corina, as cited in Jakobson (2021), categorized translation into three segments: First, Intralingual Translation: This involves interpreting verbal signs using other signs within the same language. Second, Interlingual Translation: It pertains to interpreting verbal signs using other signs of a different language. And Last, Intersemiotic Translation: This refers to interpreting verbal signs using signs from nonverbal sign systems.

In conclusion, the researcher may opt for specific translation ranks based on the nature of the source text. The first rank is suitable for single words, while the fourth rank is appropriate for paragraphs. These distinctions aid in choosing the most effective translation method tailored to the source text's characteristics.

1. Translation Technique

The translation method is a strategic approach employed by translators to convert a word, a group of words, or even entire sentences, especially if those phrases can be broken down into manageable translation units. According to Hartono (2021), there are eight techniques of translation, which are elucidated below:

a. Borrowing

Borrowing stands as one of the most straightforward methods within translation. Although its frequent use may not necessarily diminish the discourse's significance, translators sometimes resort to it to impart specific stylistic effects. This method, termed naturalization, denotes the act of borrowing. It encompasses incorporating words directly from the original language of the target text. When encountering terms that lack suitable translations in the target language, this strategy endeavors to maintain the original language as a gesture of reverence toward the source material. For example, while “laptop” can be translated into Polish as “komputerprzenośny”, its more recent variant, i.e. “tablet” appears to function in Polish exclusively in a lexical form borrowed directly from English.

Borrowing is one of the simplest translation methods, which involves taking a word directly from the source language and using it in the target language. This technique is often applied when no accurate equivalent exists in the target language or when the translator intends to preserve the original nuance of the source text. For example, in Indonesian many words are borrowed from English, such as *software*, *internet*, and *laptop*, which are retained in their original form because no exact equivalents

are available. Similarly, English has absorbed numerous words from French, including *café*, *genre*, and *déjà vu*, which are kept in their original spelling to maintain a stylistic effect. Borrowed terms can also be seen in English from Japanese, such as *karaoke*, *tsunami*, and *anime*, which have been integrated without translation. In addition, several scientific and academic terms like *algebra* and *alcohol* are derived from Arabic and have long been adopted into English. Thus, borrowing serves not only as a strategy to overcome the absence of suitable equivalents but also as a way to respect the authenticity of the source language while enriching the vocabulary of the target language.

b. Calque

Calque represents a distinctive form of borrowing where a language adopts another language's expression directly. This translation method, also known as loan translation, involves the direct translation of a term or a foreign word, transferring a morpheme from one language into its equivalent in another. For instance, the Indonesian term for the weekend, "*Akhir pekan*," directly derives from the English term "Weekend." This exemplifies the application of calque, where the meaning and structure of the source language are mirrored in the target language to convey the intended concept.

c. Synonym

The quest for the nearest equivalent term in the target language exemplifies an approach commonly employed when dealing with synonyms. For instance, the phrases "what a cute baby you've got" in the source text and its counterpart "*alangkah lucunya bayi anda*" in the target language serve as illustrative examples of this translational process. This approach aims to capture the closest semantic match in the target language while ensuring the preservation of the intended meaning conveyed in the source text.

d. Adaptation

Adaptation, also known as a cultural equivalent or cultural substitute, involves the quest to find the cultural counterpart of a term or phrase from the source language in the target language. This process of adaptation aims to seamlessly integrate cultural nuances and context from the source language into the target language. For instance, the transformation of "sincerely yours" to "*hormat saya*" in the target language, or "Dear Sir" to "*Dengan hormat*" in the source language, exemplifies the practice of adaptation. Such adaptations ensure the effective transmission of cultural meanings and conventions while maintaining relevance and sensitivity in cross-cultural communication.

e. Contextual Conditioning

In the domain of translation techniques, Machali highlights the significance of conditioning, particularly in its contextual application. Conditioning serves as a pivotal method employed to render information from the source language comprehensible within the target text. Contextual conditioning strategically embeds additional information within the context to enhance understanding. For instance, consider the sentence "The mustang was the race's fastest." In order to interpret this sentence accurately, the translator must discern that "mustang" refers to a horse breed. Armed with this understanding, the translator can effectively convey the intended meaning as demonstrated by the translation: "*Kuda Mustang itu adalah yang tercepat dalam pacuan tersebut*" in the target language. This exemplifies the practice of contextual conditioning, where background information is provided within the translated text to ensure clarity and accuracy.

f. Generalization

The translation technique known as generalization involves the utilization of a more neutral or generic phrase, fostering a language expression that is less specific or context-bound. Referred to as neutralization in some contexts, this approach in the target language aims for greater neutrality in the conveyed message. For instance,

the transformation of "penthouse" to "*tempat tinggal*" and "*becak*" to "vehicle" in the target text exemplifies the practice of generalization. This technique allows for a more generalized and less context-specific rendition, ensuring a broader and more universally comprehensible representation in the translated text.

g. Particularization

Particularization in translation involves the utilization of more precise or concrete terms that offer specific and distinct meanings. This approach aims to replace general or abstract terms from the source text with more explicit and tangible equivalents in the target text. For instance, the transformation of "air transportation" in the source text to "*helikopter*" in the target text and "mass transportation" in the source text to "*bus*" in the target text exemplifies the practice of particularization. This technique enables a more detailed and specific representation, facilitating a clearer and more defined understanding of the translated content.

h. Compensation

Compensation, a vital technique in translation, is utilized when a specific element from the source text cannot be directly replicated in the same position within the target text. This method involves relocating or repositioning certain elements from the source text to

ensure the preservation of informational or aesthetic impact in the target text. By introducing linguistic idioms from the source language into the target language, compensation maintains the essence and impact of the original text. For instance, consider the transformation of the original text "*wanita itu benar-benar tega tidak menemuibibinya*" to "never did she visit her aunt" in the target text. This example illustrates the application of compensation, ensuring the retention of the original meaning and emotional tone despite the rearrangement of linguistic elements in the translation process.

4. Aspects of Translation

According to Gafurovna (2021), in an effort to understand the contents of the source language, translators first dealing with four main aspects that must be studied. The four aspects are lexical aspect, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural aspect.

1) Lexical Aspects

Lexical elements encompass the words or idiomatic expressions encountered by translators when engaging with the source language text. It is crucial for translators to delve deeper into the comprehensive meaning behind these words or idioms used by the author to convey their ideas.

For instance, in English, the expression '*bersaudara*' in the sentence '*Berapa bersaudara anda?*' necessitates construction with multiple words, specifically 'brothers and sisters,' to convey the equivalent meaning in the question 'How many brothers and sisters do you have?' This exemplifies the meticulous process through which translators navigate linguistic nuances to ensure accurate and contextually relevant translations.

2) Grammatical structures

Grammatical structure refers to the way of the translator arranges words to express the message in source language. Each language has its own way of arranging its words to become a meaningful phrase or sentence.

For example, in English, to say '*buku bagus*' is expressed very differently from Indonesian. In Indonesian it is arranged by prioritizing the noun and then the adjective. On the other hand, in English it is arranged in reverse, with the adjective (A) coming first, then followed by the noun (N), so that it becomes 'good book'.

3) Situational Context

The situational context encompasses various facets such as the ongoing discourse, spatial and temporal elements, and the intended audience of the text,

among others. This context plays a pivotal role in determining the nuanced meaning of a word.

For instance, in English, the word 'run' exhibits multiple meanings contingent upon the specific context being discussed. When discussing water, as in 'The water ran down the drain,' 'run' denotes the act of flowing or coursing, as water moves through aqueducts. However, in a business context, such as 'My brother will run a company,' 'run' assumes a distinct meaning, signifying the act of managing or leading the company. This exemplifies how the situational context profoundly influences the interpretation and diverse connotations associated with a single word within varying contexts of usage.

4) Cultural Aspects

The meaning of words is also determined by culture. The pronoun *you* in English cannot be interpreted as the researcher wishes in Indonesian, however the researcher must be able to see to whom the pronoun *you* is addressed.

For instance, if the researcher greets a woman lecturer in her 40s, of course the researcher will say in Indonesian: '*Tolong bukakan pintu, Bu!*'. In English, it is not translated as: 'Will you open the door for me, Mother, please?', but simply with: 'Will you open the

door for me, please? In Indonesian culture, under certain conditions the researcher may not use the greeting 'you' to the lecturer, but '*Bapak*' or '*Ibu*'.

5. Translation Strategies

From the problems of non-equivalence at the word level, Baker (2011) highlighted several approaches that professional translators have used to address translation. Owji (2013) called this set of translation techniques the taxonomy of Baker. Baker's translation strategy taxonomy provides the most appropriate set of strategies, because it displays the techniques used by experienced translators. Here, this definition indicates the applicability of these strategies. The translation strategies in it are as follows:

1. Translation by a More General Word (Superordinate)

In translation, it is one of the most used strategies and works well in most languages. Using this strategy, the translator simply translates the source-language specific word into a general word in the target language. For example, leap, vault, spring, bounce which can be represented by the general word jump can be translated into lompat in Bahasa Indonesia.

2. Translation by a Neutral/ Less Expressive Word

In translation, a translator can also decrease the expressive meaning of a word if it is necessary.

Translation by a less expressive word is a way to solve the non-equivalence problem by decreasing the expressive meaning of the word or making it sound more neutral/common. In English, the word skyscraper's expressive meaning can be downgraded by using a word like a tall building.

3. Translation by Cultural Substitution

Translation by cultural substitution allows the translator to replace the culture-specific item or expression with the targetlanguage item, which could impact the reader. The main advantage of using this strategy is that it provides the reader with a concept that can be identified as something familiar. Using this strategy, the translator's decision will largely depend on the authority given, the purpose of the translation and the translator's judgment.

4. Translation Using a Loan Word plus Explanation

In translation, it is possible to translate a word just by adding the explanation after the word. Translation using a loan word is a translation technique in which the translator may leave the word just as it is in the source language texts but accompanied by the target language description. When explained, it is possible to use the loan word alone. There is no need to re-explain the word because its length of description can

distract the reader. For example, katana (a sword originated from japan used by a samurai).

5. Translation by Paraphrase Using a Related Word

The translator applies translation by paraphrase using a related word by choosing a different form to lexicalize the concept expressed by the source-language. This strategy is simply replacing the source-language word with the synonyms in the target language. For example, terraced can be translated to the target language to an item that stands for "created in a terrace". It also works for the word creamy which can be translated as "that resembles cream". Both of them are still related to each other.

6. Translation by Paraphrase Using Unrelated Word

Translation by paraphrase using unrelated word is used when the source item is not lexicalized at all in the target-language. This strategy is bit awkward to use since one slot of a word from the source-language will be filled by explanation consisting of several words in the target language. For example, (..... the areas most accessible to and disturbed by Man) translated into (..... the places where human beings enter most easily and interfere most).

7. Translation by Omission

Translation by omission is a translation strategy where the translator can omit particular item or expression which is not vital enough in delivering the meaning to the target language. When this strategy applied, the translation product will likely become very smooth. However, it might be less expressive. Moreover, there is a possibility that there will be a loss of meaning in the translation process. Therefore, this strategy is advised to be used as the last resort.

8. Translation by Illustration

Translation by illustration helps the translator to solve the non-equivalence problem regarding a physical entity. The word is simply replaced with an illustration in the form of the picture. For example, the word tagged as in tagged teabag is not easy to translate without using a long explanation. Here, an illustration of tagged teabag can be used instead of paraphrase.

Similar studies about strategies in teaching speaking firstly have been conducted by Junining (2014) entitled “Translation Strategies Adopted by English Department Students in Coping with Non Equivalence Problems”. This study employs three genres of the text namely informational, literary and news. The next is by Stepanova (2017) who wrote about “Translation

Strategies of Legal Texts: Experimental Approach". The study is aimed to identify translation methods and strategies chosen by some professional translators and practicing lawyer in resolving problems in translating legal terminology.

Further previous study was conducted by Lovihandrie, Mujiyanto, Sutopo (2018) entitled "The translation strategy used by lingliana in translating taboo words in sylvia day's bared to you". The study investigates the strategies Indonesian translators use to translate taboo words in Silvia Day's novel entitled 'Bared to You'. The main idea of the present study is similar with the three previous studies mentioned because this study will focus on the topic regarding the translation strategy.

Chesterman (1997), as Bergen (n. d.) stated, believes that in translation strategies' field there is "considerable terminological confusion". As Chesterman (1997) believes, the general characteristics of translation strategies are as follows:

1. They involve text manipulation.
2. They must be applied to the process.
2. They are goal-oriented.
3. They are problem-centered.
4. They are applied consciously.

5. They are inter-subjective. (It means the strategies must be empirical and understandable for the readers not the person who used them.)

By his classification, he meant: first, we read and comprehend a text. Second, we analyze the differences between the source text and the target one, and we must decide on the kinds of strategies which we are up to use them. And lastly, we produce the equivalent text in the target language. Lorsch (1996: 28) identifies nine basic elements, or as he called, building blocks of translation strategies. These building blocks are as follows:

Original elements of translation strategies

1. Realizing a translational Problem RP
2. Verbalizing a translational Problem VP
3. Searching for a possible solution to a translational Problem SP
4. Solution to a translational Problem SP
5. Preliminary Solution to a translational Problem PSP
6. Parts of a Solution to a translational Problem SPa, SPb...
7. Solution to a translational Problem is still to be found SPø
8. Negative Solution to a translational Problem SP=ø

9. Problem in the reception of the Source Language text PSL

The first complex notation means that there is a translation problem of some sort, and the translator immediately finds a preliminary solution to the problem [(P) SP], and stops working on this problem [#], or [/] decides to leave this problem unsolved and return to it later [SP ø].

Hatim and Munday (2004) stated that some of the main issues of translation are linked to the strategies of form and content of literal and free translations. This division can help identify the problems of certain overly literal translations that impair comprehensibility. However, the real underlying problems of such translations lie in areas such as text type and audience.

Chesterman (1997) believes, as quoted by Bergen (n. d.), that the taxonomy of translation strategies can be presented simply. It includes a basic strategy which is: *change something*. In his statement, Chesterman (1997) does not refer to the replacement of elements in the source text words by their equivalent in the target text; it means that this replacement cannot be the only task of a translator and

it is not sufficient. The normal types of changes made by the translators can be classified as:

- a) The words which are used in the source text
- b) The structure of these words
- c) The natural context of the source text

Thus, as Bergen (n. d.) mentioned, according to Chesterman (1997), local translation strategies can be categorized into semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic changes; each group has its own subcategories. Also, there is no obvious distinction between them, so it is difficult to say which exact strategy is being used. In the following subsections, Chesterman's (1997) classification of translation strategies is described, according to Bergen (n. d.):

1. Syntactic strategies

These local strategies change the grammatical structure of the target text in relation to the source text. Although most of the strategies are applied because a literal translation is not appropriate, Chesterman (1997) presents his first syntactic strategy, *literal translation*. He believes that, according to many translation theorists, this is a "default" strategy.

- 1) Literal translation: It means the translator follows the source text form as closely as possible without following the source language structure.
- 2) Loan translation: This is the second syntactic strategy in his classification which refers to the borrowing of single terms and following the structure of the source text which is foreign to the target reader.
- 3) Transposition: Another term that Chesterman (1997) has borrowed from Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) is *transposition* that refers to any change in word class, for example adjective to noun.
- 4) Unit shift: This is a term that has been borrowed from Catford (1965) in the levels of morpheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence and paragraph.
- 5) Paraphrase structure change: This strategy refers to changes which take place in the internal structure of the noun phrase or verb phrase, although the source language phrase itself maybe translated by a corresponding phrase in the target language.
- 6) Clause structure change: This is a term which refers to a strategy in which the changes affect the organization of the constituent phrases or clauses. For example, changes from active to passive,

finite to infinite, or rearrangement of the clause constituents.

7) Sentence structure change: It is a term that refers to changes in the structure of the sentence unit. It basically means a change in the relationship between main clauses and subordinate ones.

8) Cohesion change: The way in which the parts of a sentence join together to make a fluent, comprehensible sentence is called *textual cohesion*. *Cohesion change* is a term referring to a strategy which affects intra-textual cohesion, this kind of strategy mainly takes place in the form of reference by pronouns, ellipsis, substitution or repetition.

9) Level shift: By the term level, Chesterman (1997) means the phonological, morphological, syntactical and lexical levels. These levels are expressed variously in different languages.

10) Scheme change: This strategy is another term in Chesterman's (1997) classification. It refers to rhetorical schemata such as parallelism, alliteration and rhythm and rhyming in poetry. Parallelism refers to similar arrangement of collocations, phrases or sentences.

2. Semantic strategies

The second group in Chesterman's (1997) classification is semantic strategy which has its own subcategories.

- 1) Synonymy: It is the first subcategory in this group. In this strategy the translator selects the closest synonym, which is not the first literal translation of the source text word or phrase.
- 2) Antonymy: In this strategy, the translator uses a word with the opposite meaning. This word mostly combines with a negation.
- 3) Hyponymy: It means using a member of larger category (e.g. *rose* is a hyponym in relation to *flower*), and also hypernym is a related superordinate term, which describes the entire category with a broader term (e.g. *flower* is a hypernym in relation to *rose*).
- 4) Converses: This strategy refers to pairs of opposites expressing similar semantic relationships from the opposite perspectives (e.g. *send-receive take-give*).
- 5) Trope change: The formal name that is used for a figure of speech or metaphor is called *trope* which means using a term or phrase to compare two things that are unrelated with the purpose of revealing their similarity. This relates to a type of strategy called trope change strategy.

- 6) Abstraction change: The other kind of strategy in the list is abstraction change. This strategy concerns shifting either from more abstract terms to more concrete ones or vice versa.
- 7) Distribution change: This is a kind of strategy in which the same semantic component is distributed over more items (expansion) or fewer ones (compression).
- 8) Emphasis change: This strategy increases, decreases or changes the emphasis of thematic focus of the translated text in comparison to the original.
- 9) Paraphrase strategy: This is the last strategy in the list. According to the overall meaning of the source text, it creates a liberal approximate translation, some lexical items may be ignored in this sort of strategy.

3. Pragmatic strategies

In the field of translation studies, strategies are considered essential tools that help translators bridge linguistic as well as cultural differences between the source text (ST) and the target text (TT). Chesterman (1997), as cited in Bergen (n.d.), categorizes translation strategies into three major groups: semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic. Among these, pragmatic strategies occupy a significant position since they extend beyond the linguistic structure

and meaning of individual words or sentences. Instead, they focus on communicative effectiveness and the adaptation of a text to the cultural, social, and contextual expectations of the target readership.

Pragmatic strategies allow translators to introduce modifications such as additions, omissions, shifts in style, or changes in information in order to ensure that the target text remains coherent, natural, and functionally appropriate. They are therefore not merely linguistic operations but also decisions guided by considerations of context, readership, and communicative intent.

The following section elaborates on the main types of pragmatic strategies proposed by Chesterman (1997), each of which reflects a particular approach to managing the communicative challenges in translation.

- 1) Cultural filtering: According to Chesterman (1997 as cited in Bergen n. d.), the first sort of strategy in this group is cultural filtering. It may be described as the concrete realization, at the level of language, of the universal strategy of domestication or target culture-oriented translation. This strategy is generally used while translating culture-bound items.
- 2) Explicitness change: In explicitness change strategy some information of the source text maybe added; or deleted to make the text more or less explicit.

- 3) Information change: The next type of strategy is information change which is similar to the previous strategy; however, here the changed information is NOT implicit in the source language text.
- 4) Interpersonal change: This strategy is used to affect the whole style of the text to make it more or less informed, technical etc.
- 5) Speech act: There is another strategy the changes the nature of the source text speech act, either obligatory or non-obligatory (e.g. from reporting to a command, or from direct to indirect speech).
- 6) Visibility change: This is a strategy that increases the "presence" of either the author of the source text or its translator (e.g. footnotes that are added by the translator).
- 7) Coherence change: Another strategy is coherence change which is similar to *cohesion change* which was mentioned in the previous section (*syntactic strategies*). The only difference is that, cohesion change concerns micro-structure level (e.g. a sentence or a paragraph), but coherence change concerns a higher textual level (i.e. combining different paragraphs to each other in a way different from the source text).

- 8) Partial translation: This is a strategy that refers to translating a part of a text, not the entire text (e.g. song lyrics or poetry).
- 9) Trans-editing: As Bergen also stated, according to Stetting (1989), another strategy which can be mentioned in this section is trans-editing that refers to extensive editing of the original text when necessary (i.e. changing the organization of the source text information, wording or etc).

The above-mentioned strategies present the classification of Chesterman (1997) cited by Bergen (n. d.). It is clear that all strategies can specific cases of "changing something," which is, as Chesterman (1997) believes, the basic strategy of translation. The levels on which these translation strategies work differ from each other; and as Bergen (n. d.) stated, this may lead to terminological confusion among researchers who are concerned with translation studies.

As Venuti (2001) states, from Vinay and Darbelnet's (1958) point of view, translators can select two main methods of translating which are called: *direct/literal translation* and *oblique translation*. When literal translation is not possible because of lexical and syntactical differences between the two languages,

oblique translation is used. Oblique translation includes seven subcategories which are as follows:

- 1) Borrowing: that is used to tackle a meta-linguistic difference. It is the simplest strategy of translation that means using source language terms in the target text.
- 2) Calque: This is a special type of borrowing in which the borrowed expression is literally translated into the target language.
- 3) Literal translation: that means rendering a source language text into the appropriate idiomatic or grammatical equivalent in the target language.
- 4) Transposition: that is substituting one word class with another without changing the meaning of the message.
- 5) Modulation: this means changing in point of view (e.g. changing part of speech).
- 6) Equivalence: this refers to rendering two situations by different stylistic and structural methods; these two texts include the source text and its equivalent text which is the target text.
- 7) Adaptation: that refers to those situations when cultural differences occur between the source language and the target language. Thus, translation

can be considered as a special kind of equivalence which is situational equivalence

The above-mentioned strategies fit the classification of Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), which shows some similarities with Chesterman's classification; however, as we can see above Chesterman's (1997) classification is clearly more detailed. All the above-mentioned strategies are theories which are named differently by different theorists. However; if one wants to examine the applicability of these strategies, there would be no clear borderline between them.

Moreover, they are just some of the strategies that can be used by a translator, and it seems that there are different options that a translator may have while doing the translation. However, there is no hierarchical order of more or less often used strategies. Baker (1992) offers a taxonomy of eight translation strategies, which are used by professional translators.

6. Translation Quality Assessment Rubric

According to Nababan, Nuraeni, and Sumardiono (2012), translation quality can be assessed based on three main aspects: **accuracy**, **acceptability**, and **readability**.

1. Accuracy

This aspect evaluates how accurately the meaning from the source text (ST) is conveyed into the target text (TT) without any distortion.

Table 2. 1 Rubric Accuracy Assement

Score	Criteria
3	The meaning of the source text is transferred very accurately into the target text, with no distortion of meaning.
2	Most of the meaning is conveyed accurately, but there are minor errors or slight distortions that do not significantly affect the overall message .
1	The meaning is inaccurately transferred , with distortions, omissions, or serious errors.

Example :

Source Text (ST):

The government must take immediate action to reduce air pollution in urban areas.

Skor 3 (Akurat)

Target Text (TT):

Pemerintah harus segera mengambil tindakan untuk mengurangi polusi udara di daerah perkotaan.

Makna tersampaikan sepenuhnya, tidak ada distorsi.

Skor 2 (Cukup Akurat)

Target Text (TT):

Pemerintah perlu mengambil tindakan untuk mengurangi polusi udara di kota.

Makna utama tersampaikan, tetapi kata “immediate” (segera) tidak diterjemahkan secara eksplisit.

Skor 1 (Tidak Akurat)

Target Text (TT):

Pemerintah dapat mempertimbangkan tindakan terhadap udara di daerah tertentu.

Makna berubah dan banyak informasi penting hilang.

2. Acceptability

This aspect assesses whether the translation sounds natural and conforms to the linguistic and cultural norms of the target language.

Table 2. 2 Rubric Acceptability Assement

Score	Criteria
3	The translation is highly natural , fully conforms to target language norms, and does not feel like a translation.
2	The translation is fairly natural, though some parts still show influence from the source language, but do not hinder comprehension .
1	The translation is unnatural , strongly influenced by the source language, and difficult to accept in the target language.

Example :

Source Text (ST):

Freedom of speech is a fundamental right in a democratic society.

Skor 3 (Sangat Berterima)

Target Text (TT):

Kebebasan berpendapat merupakan hak fundamental dalam masyarakat demokratis.

Alami, sesuai kaidah dan budaya bahasa Indonesia.

Skor 2 (Cukup Berterima)

Target Text (TT):

Kebebasan berbicara adalah hak yang fundamental dalam sebuah masyarakat yang demokratis.

Masih dapat diterima, tetapi terasa sedikit kaku dan terpengaruh struktur bahasa Inggris.

Skor 1 (Tidak Berterima)

Target Text (TT):

Kebebasan dari berbicara adalah sebuah hak dasar di dalam masyarakat demokrasi.

Tidak alami dan tidak sesuai dengan norma bahasa Indonesia.

3. Readability

This aspect measures how easily the target readers can understand the translated text.

Table 2. 3 Rubric Readability Assesment

Score	Criteria
3	The translation is very easy to understand by the target readers.

2	The translation is moderately easy to understand, though some parts require extra effort from the reader.
1	The translation is difficult to understand or confusing for the reader.

Example :

Source Text (ST):

Digital media plays an important role in shaping public opinion.

Skor 3 (Sangat Mudah Dibaca)

Target Text (TT):

Media digital berperan penting dalam membentuk opini publik.

Jelas, singkat, dan mudah dipahami.

Skor 2 (Cukup Mudah Dibaca)

Target Text (TT):

Media digital memiliki peranan yang cukup penting dalam proses pembentukan opini publik.

Masih mudah dipahami, tetapi lebih panjang dan agak berbelit.

Skor 1 (Sulit Dibaca)

Target Text (TT):

Media digital memainkan sebuah peran yang pentingnya dalam hal pembentukan terhadap opini publik masyarakat.

Kalimat tidak efektif dan membingungkan pembaca.

B. Opinion Texts in Digital Newspapers

1. Definition of Opinion Text

Opinion texts are a genre in which writers express personal views, evaluations, and arguments on specific issues or topics (Anderson, 1997). Unlike objective news reports that primarily relay facts, opinion texts are inherently subjective, aiming to persuade, critique, or influence readers' perspectives. They present the author's standpoint supported by reasoning, evidence, and various rhetorical devices.

Opinion text, often referred to as an *opinion article* or *op-ed*, is a type of journalistic writing that presents the author's personal views, arguments, or evaluations regarding a current issue. Unlike news reports, which focus on objective facts, opinion texts are subjective and argumentative, aiming to persuade or influence readers' perspectives.

According to Wikipedia (2024), an opinion piece is “an article, published in a newspaper or magazine, that mainly reflects the author's opinion about the subject.” Similarly, DecisionDesk (n.d.) classifies opinion articles such as editorials, reviews, and letters to the editor under the opinionated genre, where subjectivity dominates the content and structure. These texts typically follow a structure that includes an introduction to the issue, the

author's arguments, supporting evidence, and a concluding remark that often contains a call to action.

Newspapers, on the other hand, serve as the primary medium where opinion texts are published. A newspaper is defined as a regular publication, printed or digital, that provides news, analysis, and commentary on a wide range of topics including politics, economics, society, culture, and sports.

Wikipedia (2024) describes a newspaper as “a periodical publication containing written information about current events, often accompanied by opinion columns, editorials, and op-eds.” The opinion section of newspapers plays a crucial role in shaping public discourse, offering not only institutional viewpoints through unsigned editorials but also diverse individual perspectives through signed op-eds and regular columns. Thus, both opinion texts and newspapers contribute significantly to public communication by combining factual information with interpretative and persuasive writing.

2. Characteristics and Structure of Opinion Texts

Opinion articles have special language and structure that set them apart from other types of journalism. Halliday and Hasan (1989) say that opinion writing usually shows strong opinions, includes words that express judgment, and conveys personal meaning. These traits

show how the writer feels, believes, or views the topic being discussed. In terms of structure, opinion pieces usually have an argumentative layout, which includes:

- a) Introduction (Introducing the Issue). This part starts by bringing up the main topic or debate and presents it from the author's perspective. The writer often catches the reader's interest with a hook, like a quote, news story, or a controversial statement, making the topic feel important.
- b) Body (Main Arguments and Support). The body is where the author shares their main points, backed up by reasoning, examples, expert opinions, or facts. This part is the main area of persuasion in the opinion piece, using logic, emotions, and credibility to convince readers.
- c) Conclusion (Summary and Suggestions). The conclusion goes over the author's main idea again and often includes language that encourages readers to think or take action. It might suggest changes, offer policy ideas, or share moral thoughts.

Hyland (2005) believes that opinion articles engage readers by inviting them into an ongoing discussion with different viewpoints. The language choices like persuasive words, softening statements, and rhetorical questions help steer readers to agree with the author's views.

3. Language Features of Opinion Texts

From a language point of view, opinion pieces have specific words and grammar that show trying to convince and judge. According to Martin and White in their Appraisal Theory, writing opinions uses attitude (showing feelings and opinions), engagement (recognizing other people's views), and graduation (making meanings stronger or weaker). These elements help writers show they know what they are talking about and encourage readers to agree with them.

Some typical language features found in opinion pieces are:

- a) Descriptive adjectives and adverbs that express opinions, like outstanding, careless, sadly, unexpectedly.
- b) Words that show certainty or necessity, like must, should, may, and might.
- c) Rhetorical techniques such as comparing things, repeating ideas, and using metaphors to make arguments stronger.
- d) Using first-person or group pronouns (I, we, our community) to connect with readers.
- e) Complicated sentence forms with extra clauses that show reasons (like because, therefore, even though).

C. Previous or Related Research Findings

Numerous empirical studies have investigated the translation abilities and strategies of EFL students, especially in the context of translating digital news or opinion texts, which are characterized by idiomatic expressions and cultural nuances. These studies provide insights into common challenges faced by EFL learners and the approaches they use to overcome linguistic and cultural gaps.

One study by Basri and Lubis (2023) focused on EFL students' translation strategies for narrative texts, revealing a predominant reliance on literal translation accompanied by limited use of more adaptive strategies such as modulation and compensation. The findings highlighted a tendency among students to prioritize direct word-for-word translation, often leading to awkward or inaccurate renderings of idiomatic and culturally bound language (Basri & Lubis, 2023).

Another research conducted by Kusumaningrum (2023) examined the translation strategies employed by Indonesian EFL learners when translating narrative texts, identifying borrowing, calque, and adaptation as the most common strategies. The study emphasized the students' difficulty in maneuvering cultural expressions and idiomatic language, particularly within opinion texts where persuasive style presents additional complexity (Kusumaningrum, 2023).

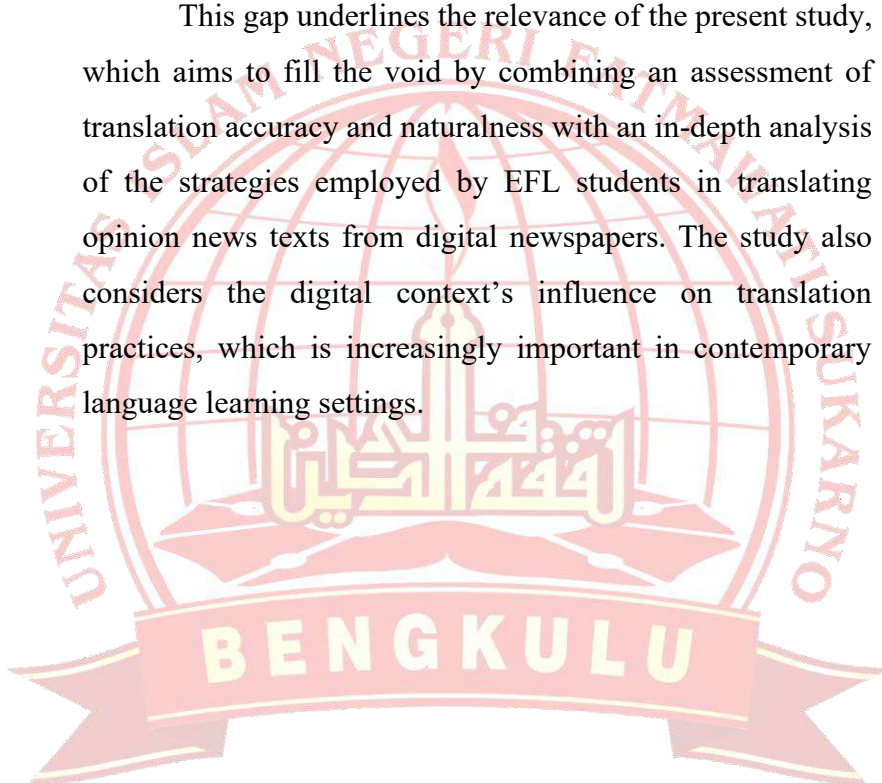
Recent technological advancements have also influenced translation practices. A study by Al Rousan, Jaradat, and Malkawi (2025) explored the role of artificial intelligence translation tools, such as ChatGPT, and found that while AI assistance improves translation speed and offers varied alternatives, human translation skills—especially in understanding context and cultural nuance—remain irreplaceable. EFL students reported preferences for AI tools that provide interactive feedback, which helps in refining their translation output, yet challenges remain in handling idiomatic and persuasive opinion language (Al Rousan, Jaradat, & Malkawi, 2025).

Further, Lubis and Lubis (2020) investigated the influence of digital media and project-based learning on EFL students' communication and translation abilities. Their study demonstrated that integrating digital platforms enhances students' higher-order thinking and fluency, which indirectly supports their translation performance in complex texts such as opinion news by fostering critical analysis and engagement with source materials (Lubis & Lubis, 2020).

Despite these contributions, there remains a noticeable gap in systematic examination specifically focused on EFL students' abilities to translate opinion news in digital newspapers, especially analyzing their use of translation strategies to tackle idioms and persuasive language unique to

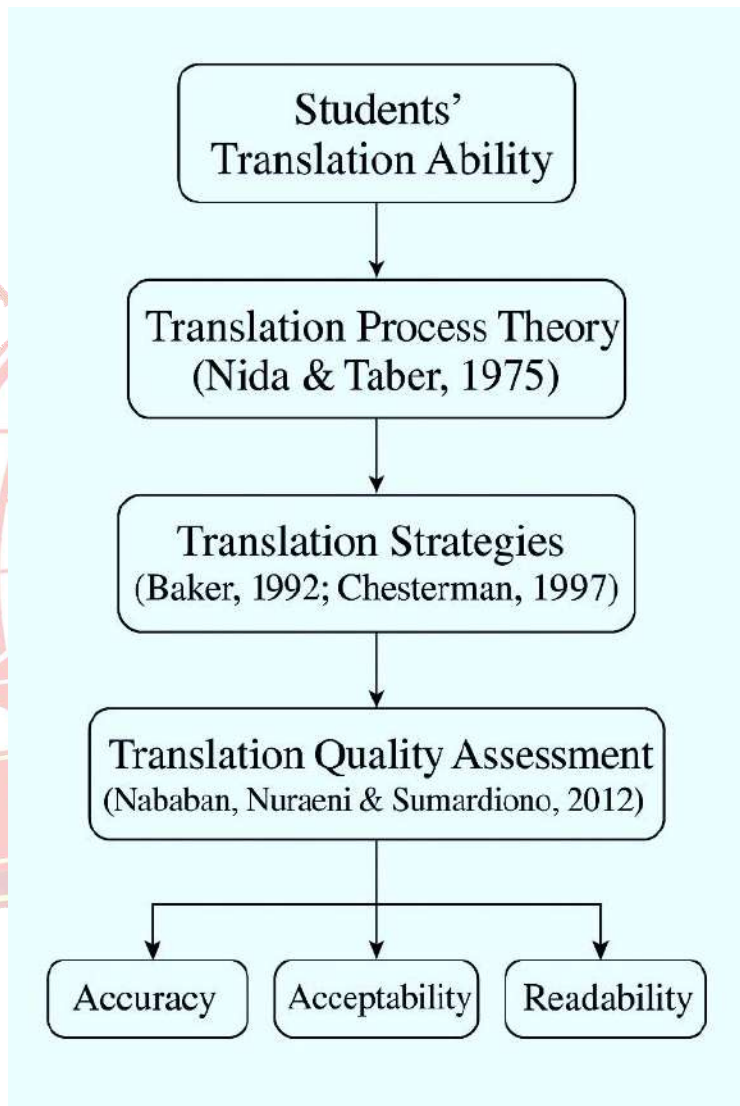
digital opinion genres. Previous studies tend to focus on narrative texts or general digital literacy without detailed analysis of strategy effectiveness or the interplay between translation quality and strategy choice in opinion news translation.

This gap underlines the relevance of the present study, which aims to fill the void by combining an assessment of translation accuracy and naturalness with an in-depth analysis of the strategies employed by EFL students in translating opinion news texts from digital newspapers. The study also considers the digital context's influence on translation practices, which is increasingly important in contemporary language learning settings.



D. Theoretical Framework

Figure 2. 2 Theorical Framework



This theoretical model shows how the main ideas of this research are connected. At the highest level, the main focus is

on how well students can translate. Their translation skills are affected by how well they grasp the theory behind translation (Nida & Taber, 1975), which explains how to analyze, move, and change meaning from one language (English) to another (Indonesian).

Building on this idea, translation strategies (Baker, 1992; Chesterman, 1997) are the hands-on methods students use to tackle translation challenges, especially in news articles that have idioms, persuasive language, and cultural references. Finally, students' work is examined through translation quality assessment (Nababan et al., 2012), which looks at how accurate, acceptable, and readable their translations are. These three aspects together assess the overall translation skills of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students.

In summary, this model shows that students' translation skills come from using what they know about translation theory, applying the right strategies, and producing high-quality translations.