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The Analysis of English – Indonesian Exclamative Clauses in The Novel Entitled the Adventures of Tom Sawyer By Mark Twain and Their Indonesian Version Entitled Petualangan Tom Sawyer Translated By Djokolelono



Kadek Avu Ekasani a

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Abstract

This paper is about the analysis of exclamative clause which is occurred in English novel and its translation into Indonesian. Some theories are used to support the analysis, the theory of translation by Nida and Taber (1974) and also types of sentences by Quirk (1976). The analysis found there are two types of exclamative clause, i.e. interjection and exclamative sentences in the novel as the data of this study. The form of the exclamative sentences is not only marked by a noun phrase but also an adjective phrase. The structure of both texts (SL and TL) syntactically could be translated into the same or different structure, while the SL is mostly translated or equivalent into TL by the same forms. The changes of information do not change the main idea from the SL so the message can be transferred the same to TL. The result of this study shows that there are variations of translation of the English exclamative clause into Indonesian, which include the communicative functions of the sentence.

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Author correspondence:

Kadek Ayu Ekasani,

The Bali International Tourism Institute, Bali-Indonesia

Email address: ayuekasani@gmail.com

1. Introduction

Explanative clauses express an emotional attitude of the speaker towards the situation that they denote. For example: "What a silly boy you are!", "He is so cute!" etc. They show a wide range of syntactic structures, nevertheless have something in common. According to common opinion, the speaker of the explanative clause expresses her emotion caused by some state of affairs. This expression contains a positive or negative evaluation of this state of affairs. It assumes two things: First: the speaker recognizes that state of affair as existent. Therefore it is maintained that explanative clauses, contrary to other clause types (e.g. declarative or

^a The Bali International Tourism Institute, Bali-Indonesia

interrogative) presuppose their propositional content. Second: The evaluation is feasible if there is a possibility to compare the proposition denoting the actual state of affairs (let's call it the "true proposition") with some other object. This other object is the proposition that denotes the speaker's expectations according to that state of affairs (let's call it the "expected proposition"). The communicative function of exclamations to express the speaker's surprise is to be explained by the difference between these two propositions.

So the utterance of the explanative clause allows the hearer to carry out a pragmatic inference that leads to the conclusion that the "true proposition" differs from the proposition denoting speaker's expectations. Thereby the hearer arrives at the implicature that the speaker is surprised. The relation between the two propositions is represented as scales ordering speaker's expectations. The "expected proposition" is assigned a lower value than the true proposition:

a) How very tall she is!

True proposition: She is 180 cm tall.

Expected proposition: She is less than 180 cm tall.

If the speaker expected that she is 180 cm tall or taller, then it would be inappropriate to utter sentence 1.

b) What you do to become famous!

True proposition: You strip in front of the camera.

Expected proposition: You don't strip but rather write a book.

Based on the description above, it becomes very interesting to analyze English – Indonesian explanative clauses in the novel entitled *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* by Mark Twain and their Indonesian version entitled *Petualangan Tom Sawyer* translated by Djokolelono. The research problems can be formulated as follows:

- a) What are the types of exclamative clause found in the novel entitled *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer?*
- b) How are the structures of exclamative clauses in the source text translated into Indonesian?

2. Research Methods

Some Concepts Relevant to Translation and Sentence Types

2.1 The Concept of Translation

There are many definitions in terms of translation, commonly referring to the same notion. Translation is an activity which requires a sophisticated knowledge of the source language and the target language. Translation is also generally seen as a process of communicating the foreign text by establishing the equivalence based on universal of language culture. It is a dual act of communicating; then, it presupposes the existence of not a single language but of two different languages, the source language (SL) and the target language (TL).

Nida and Taber (1974: 12) state that translating consists in reproducing the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. In relation to this notion of translation, they further add that translating must aim primarily at "reproducing the message". And in reproducing the message, the translator must make a good many grammatical and lexical adjustments. However, since no two languages are identical, there cannot be a fully exact translation.

The above definition of translation emphasizes that translation is a process of transferring 'meaning' of the source language, not of 'form'. Therefore, a translator should not only be able to identify and understand the meaning in general, but also the types of meaning in the text. It should also be important to be realized that meanings can be signaled either by linguistic features or features outside linguistics or normally both. The real meanings of words must be discovered by resolving what people do with the words, not what they say about them.

2.2 General Types of Translation

a) Literal Translation

What is meant by literal or word-for-word translation is the direct transfer of a source language text into a grammatically appropriate target language text in which the translator translates each element in the source language?

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b) Modified Literal Translation

Most translators who tend to translate literally actually make a partially modified literal translation. They modify the order and grammar enough to use acceptable sentence structure in the receptor language. However, the lexical items are translated literally.

In a modified literal translation, the translator usually adjusts the translation enough to avoid real nonsense and wrong meanings, but the unnaturalness still remains (Larson, 1998: 18).

c) Idiomatic Translation

Idiomatic translation reproduces the meaning of the SL in the natural form of the TL, both grammatical constructions and in the choice of lexical items. A truly idiomatic translation does not sound like a translation. It sounds like it was written originally in the TL. Therefore, a good translator will try to translate idiomatically. This is his goal.

It is not easy to consistently translate idiomatically. A translator may express some parts of his translation in very natural form and then in other parts fall back into a literal form. Translations fall on a continuum from very literal, to literal, to modified literal, to near idiomatic, and may even move to be unduly free (Larson, 1998: 19).

d) Unduly Free Translation

Unduly free translations are not considered acceptable translation for most purposes. Translations are unduly free if they add extraneous information not in the source text, if they change the meaning of the SL, or if they distort the facts of the historical and cultural setting of the SL text.

Sometimes unduly free translations are made for purpose of humor or to bring about a special response from the receptor language speakers. However, they are not acceptable as normal translations. The emphasis is on the reaction of those reading or hearing it and the meaning is not necessarily the same as that of the SL (Larson, 1998: 19).

2.3 The Process of Translation

The translator first analyzes the source language text, i.e. examines it from as many different points of view as are considered necessary for the purpose of adequate translation. The language analysis may consist of: (a) analyzing the grammatical relationships between constituent parts, (b) identifying the meanings of the semantic units. The nonlinguistic analysis is conducted to find out, among others, message of the text, social and cultural background of the speaker, relevant features of the communicative situation in which the text is used, the conditions of the intended audience.

The next step is breaking down the text into basic structural and semantic units. The purpose of the action is to make sure that there should not be any relevant points missed out.

The process of transference of the message consists in translating the basic units, then restructuring of these raw translations into a semantic unit that is appropriate for the audience.

2.4 Translation Equivalence

Nida in Venuti (2000: 134) describe that there are two different types of equivalence which are called formal and dynamic equivalences. Formal equivalence is oriented to the form and content of the source language. In this kind of translation, the translator wants to reproduce as closely and meaningfully as possible the form and content of the source language. Formal equivalence attempts to reproduce several formal elements including (1) grammatical unit, (2) consistency in word usage, and (3) meaning in term of the source text. This translation also normally attempts not to make adjustments in idioms, but rather to reproduce such expressions more or less literally.

Dynamic equivalence is oriented to the complete naturalness of expression, in which the translator is not so concerned with matching the receptor language message with the source language message, but with dynamic relationship, that the relationship between the receptor and the message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptor and the message. To define a dynamic equivalence is to describe it as to produce in the target language "the closest natural equivalent to the source language message." This type of definition contains three essential terms: (1) equivalent, which points toward the source language message, (2) natural, which points towards the receptor language, and (3) closest, which binds the two orientations together on the basis of the

2.5 Sentence Types

There are four types of sentences in English, they are, declarative, imperative, interrogative, and explanative, which are used, represent, to make a statement, to give a directive, to find out if something is true or not, and to express an exclamation.

1) Declarative

The declarative sentence has a function to make a statement that will be defined negatively at a particular language level as simply lacking the special grammatical properties that distinguish the marked types. There are three main overriding factors that may interfere the simple correlation between declarative as a statement, i.e.:

a) Intonation

Rising intonation (represented by '\foat' in contrast to falling '\psi') can make a statement change into a question and commonly used in certain varieties of English not to turn a statement into a question but to superimpose on a statement an implicit question as to whether the addressee is following or understanding, often suggesting diffidence on the speaker's part.

b) Performative use of illocutionary verbs.

Verbs like request, command, promise, ask, congratulate and many more are 'illocutionary verb' in that they denote illocutionary acts: one can request, command, promise, ask, congratulate, etc. Usually, such verbs can be used performatively only when they are in the present tense and the clause they head is positive, declarative, non-subordinate and has a 1st person subject.

c) Markers of imperative force

There are various ways a declarative can be invested with imperative force. They are:

- (1) Selection of a modal operator used deontically, especially with 2nd person subject, e.g.: *You must come immediately*, would normally construct as an imperative to come in.
- (2) Please as in I'll have that hammer please; expression of what the speaker wants or would like -I want you to meet me at six, I'd like some more coffee if I may.

2) Imperative

Imperative is used, for example, to tell or ask people what to do, to make a suggestion, to give advice or instruction, to encourage and offer, and to express wishes for people welfare (Swan, 1995: 268). Subclasses of imperative according to Quirk (1985: 827) are:

a) Imperative without a subject

The imperative verb lacks tense distinction and does not allow modal auxiliaries. The progressive form is rare, and the perfective even rarer: *Be listening to this station the same time tomorrow night.* Passives with *being* occurred chiefly in negative directives, where they generally have the meaning 'Don't allow yourself to be.....'. What might be treated as passive occurs with *getting*: Get washed, Get dressed, Get transferred.

b) Imperative with a subject

The implication can be demonstrated by the occurrence of you as subject of following tag question (Be quiet, will you?), by the occurrence of only yourself or yourselves as the reflexive (Behave yourself or Behave yourselves, not *Behave myself, etc), and by the occurrence of only the emphatic possessive your own (Uses your own comb, not *Use her own comb, etc).

c) Imperative with let

First person imperative can be formed by proposing the verb *let* followed by a subject in the objective case: *Let us* all work hard.

d) Negative imperative

Below are the forms of negative-positive of the imperative sentence:

No.	Positive Form	Negative Form
1.	Open the door.	<u>Don't open</u> the door.
2.	You open the door.	<u>Don't you open</u> the door?

e) Illocutionary force of imperative

Imperative sentences are used for a wide range of illocutionary acts. There are many sentences that may be used for different illocutionary acts, but here we should be aware that illocutionary force depends in most cases on the situational context. Some of the situation that using the illocutionary acts: Order, Command, Prohibition, Request, Plea, Advice, Recommendation, Warning, Suggestion, Instruction, Invitation, Offer, Granting Permission, Good Wishes, Imprecation, Incredulous Rejection, Self-Deliberation, Promise, Threat.

f) Do with positive imperative

A positive imperative can be made more persuasive or insistent by adding *do* before the verb. *Do* reinforce the positive sense of the imperative. For many people that persuasive use of *do* seems more typical of female than male speech: *Do have some more tea*.

3) Interrogative

There are two main subclasses of the interrogative clause, there are, the open interrogatives and the closed interrogative (Huddleston, 1991: 34). The open interrogative contains one of the interrogative words who, whom, which, whose, what, where, when, why, and how. On the other hand, the closed interrogative

The interrogative word usually appears at the beginning of the interrogative clause. The formation of an open interrogative from a corresponding declarative thus typically involves the movement of the interrogative phrase to initial the position.

4) Exclamative

Utterances in exclamatory mood express the speaker's feelings or attitude, usually in an emphatic way. They are often uttered forcefully and in writing this may indicate by an exclamation mark. Exclamations may be single words or sentences.

a) Interjections

Many exclamations are single words also called interjections, which are usually uttered as an immediate reaction to some event to express surprise, anger, and so on. There are a great many interjections; Oh! Oh dear!

An interjection can be followed by a sentence in one of the other moods, which also tends to be exclamatory in tone: Gosh! It's really expensive!

b) Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences are marked by one or other of the exclamative words *how* followed by an adjective or a noun and *what* followed by a noun phrase.

e.g.:

- a) How tall Joe is!
- b) How beautiful!
- c) What a tall boy Joe is!

3. Results and Analysis

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The exclamative clause has a function to express the speaker's feelings or attitude. And it can also be expressed by single words or sentences. For the detail discussion, it can be seen in the following examples.

3.1 Interjections

Example:

The Source Language Text (p. 28)

"There! I might a' thought of that closet."

"What you been doing there?"

"Nothing."

"Nothing! Look at your hands. And look at your mouth. What is that truck?"

"I don't know aunt."

"Well, I know. It's jam – that's what it is. Forty times I've said if you didn't let that jam alone I'd skin you. Hand me that switch."

```
The switch hovered in the air – the peril was desperate –

"My! Look behind you, aunt!"

The Target Language Text (p. 10)

"Heh! Mengapa tak terpikir olehku lemari itu."

"Apa yang kau kerjakan di dalam lemari itu?"

"Tak apa-apa, Bi."

"Tak apa-apa! Lihat tanganmu! Dan lihat mulutmu! Bekas apa itu?"

"Tidak tahu, Bi."

"Baiklah, tapi aku tahu. Itu bekas selai, tak salah lagi. Empat puluh kali sudah kuperingatkan padamu, jangan mengganggu tempat selai itu, kalau kau tak ingin kukuliti. Bawa kemari cambuk itu!"

Cambuk terangkat...bahaya mengancam...

"Astaga! Tengok ke belakang, Bi!"
```

In the semantic equivalent of the exclamative sentences from the English text to Indonesian text, the word "My" is an exclamative single word or interjection and translated to be "Astaga" in the target language. Here the exclamations uttered as an immediate reaction to express attention to something. In this case, Tom used the exclamation word to make his aunt, Aunt Polly attended to another thing, not him.

Syntactically, both exclamative words in English (My!) and in Indonesian (Astaga!) here are the same that is a noun phrase.

3.2 Exclamative Sentences

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Example 1:

The Source Language Text (p. 33)

"Well why don't you do it? You say you can do it."

"Well I will, if you fool with me."

"Oh yes — I've seen whole families in the same fix."

"Smarty! You think you're some, now, don't you?"

Oh, what a hat!"

The Target Language Text (p. 17)

"Kerjakan segera! Kau bilang tadi kau bisa."

"Tunggu, bila kau bikin gara-gara."

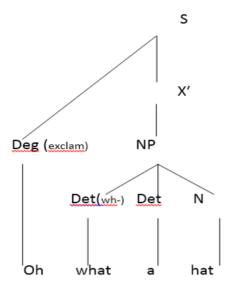
"Oh, ya... banyak sekali kulihat seluruh keluarga menghadapi persoalan yang sama."

"Lagaknya! Kaukira kau manusia luar biasa, huh? Cih, topi apa itu!"
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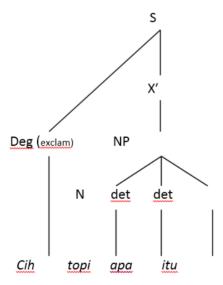
The above text shows that Tom was angry with a stranger above him – a boy a shade larger than himself. He was express his anger with interjection *Smarty* translated to be *Lagaknya* and exclamative sentence *Oh*, *what a hat!* That was translated to be *Cih*, *topi apa itu!* The exclamative is used in order to express Tom's feeling from the strange boy. English exclamations with "what" followed by a noun phrase have no direct equivalent in Indonesian; instead, an interjection followed by a statement may be used as the example 1.

From the first interjection the structure in English is an adverbial phrase and in Indonesian, the structure changed to be colloquially the adjective phrase with -nya. The second exclamations the structures are the same both in SL and TL, i.e. noun phrase. It can be seen in tree diagram:

Source Language



Target Language



From the diagram above we can see that both structures are the same which is followed by a noun phrase while in the Indonesian language the structure of NP has different positions with the source language. In the source language, the structure of NP (det-det-N) and in the target language the structure changed to be NP (N-det-det).

Example 2:

The Source Language Text (p. 33)

"Well why don't you do it? You say you can do it."

"Well I will, if you fool with me."

"Oh yes – I've seen whole families in the same fix."

"Smarty! You think you're some, now, don't you?"

Oh, what a hat!"

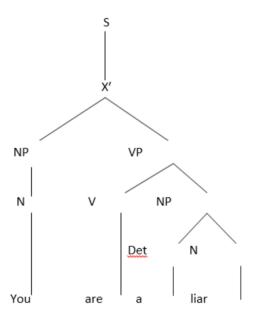
"You can lump that hat if you don't like it. I dare you to knock it off – and anybody that'll take a dare will suck eggs."

"You're a liar!"

The Target Language Text (p. 17)

- "Kerjakan segera! Kau bilang tadi kau bisa."
- "Tunggu, bila kau bikin gara-gara."
- "Oh, ya... banyak sekali kulihat seluruh keluarga menghadapi persoalan yang sama."
- "Lagaknya! Kaukira kau manusia luar biasa, huh? Cih, topi apa itu!"
- "Kau boleh membuang topiku ini bila kau tak menyukainya. Ayuh kalau berani . . . dan siapa pun yang berani membuang topiku ini pasti kubikin bocor hidungnya."
- "Pembohong!"

Both sentences are exclamations while in English text is an exclamative sentence and in Indonesian text is an interjection. Here Tom does not believe with the strange boy that will hurt him because Tom knocks off his hat. Although the exclamations equivalent in both text are different, while in English text it is an exclamative sentence *you're a liar!* and translated only by a single word (interjection) *Pembohong!*, both exclamations syntactically, are the same. It can be seen from the tree diagram:



In the structure of the source language above, we see that the exclamation structure is followed by a noun phrase, while in the target language has the same structure that is marked by a noun phrase.

Example 3:

The Source Language Text (p. 94)

- "Now it's all done, Becky. And always after this, you know, you ain't ever to love anybody but me, and you ain't ever to marry anybody but me, never and forever. Will you?
- "No, I'll never love anybody but you, Tom, and I'll never marry anybody but you and you ain't to ever marry anybody but me, either."
- "Certainly. Of course. That's part of it. And always coming to school or when we're going home, you're to walk with me, when there ain't anybody looking and choose me and I choose you at parties because that's the way you do when you're engaged."
- "It's so nice. I never heard of it before."
- "Oh, it's ever so gay! Why, me and Amy Lawrence -"

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The Target Language Text (p. 92)

"Nah, selesailah, Becky. Dan selanjutnya, kau tahu, kau tak boleh mencintai orang lain kecuali aku, dan kau tak akan kawin dengan siapa pun kecuali dengan aku, selama-lamanya, selama-lamanya. Maukah kau?"

"Ya, Tom, aku tak akan mencintai orang lain kecuali engkau, dan aku tak akan kawin dengan orang lain kecuali dengan engkau... dan kau pun tak boleh kawin dengan orang lain."

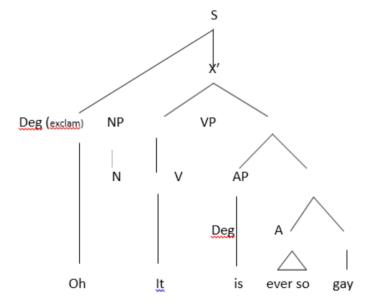
"Pasti. Begitulah. Dan bila pergi e sekolah atau pulang dari sekolah kau harus berjalan bersamaku, bila tak ada orang yang melihat . . . dan kau harus memilihku, serta aku memilihmu di pesta-pesta untuk berdansa, sebab begitulah cara orang bertunangan."

"Oh, senang sekali. Belum pernah kudengar."

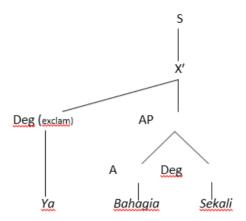
"Ya, bahagia sekali! Dulu, waktu aku dengan Amy Lawrence. . ."

The exclamations appear when Tom feels happy while Becky accepted his engagement. Here we can see that exclamative words are not only marked by *how* or *what* but it can be followed by the adjective phrase. Syntactically the forms of both exclamations (in SL and TL) are the same, and it can be seen from the following tree diagram:

Source Language



Target Language



From the tree diagram above we can see that the structures of both exclamative sentences are followed by an adjective phrase. Although in the source language the structure consists of the noun phrase and verb phrase, while the adjective phrase is the part of the VP.

4. Conclusion

From the discussion above about the analysis of exclamative clause there are some points that can be drawn to the conclusion:

There are two types of explanative clause, i.e. interjection and explanative sentences found in the novel as the data of this study and the explanative sentences are not only marked by a noun phrase but also an adjective phrase. Syntactically, when we see from the structure of both texts (SL and TL), the structures sometime could be the same or different between the two texts, while in grammatical forms of the source text (English) are mostly translated or equivalent into target text (Indonesian) by the same forms. However, some of them are translated in a different way but the meaning of the message in the source language text is well maintained in the target language. For the purpose to maintain the message and meaning of the source language text there are some changes of information in the target language. However such changes do not significantly change the main idea of the SL text to be transferred into Indonesian TL. The result of this study shows that there are variations of translation of the English explanative clause into Indonesian, which include the communicative functions of the sentence.

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APPENDICES

I. INTERJECTIONS

SL: "Bother! Well, go 'long with you. (p.30) TL: "Sialan! Pergilah sekarang." (p.13)

SL : "Confound it!" (p.31)
TL : "Sialan!" (p.14)

SL: "By jingo! for two cents I will do it." (p.34)

TL: "Persetan! Dengan upah satu sn cukup bagiku untuk menghajarmu!" (p.20)

SL : "<u>Well, I never!</u>" (p.45) TL : "<u>Masya Allah!</u>" (p.34)

SL: "Ouch!" (p.58) TL: "Aduh!" (p.48)

SL: "Hours. Ouch! Oh, don't stir so, Sid, you'll kill me." (p.76)

TL: "Berjam-jam! Aduh! Jangan sentuh aku, Sid, kau membunuhku!" (p.70)

SL: "Rubbage! I don't believe it!" (p.77)
TL: "Omong kosong! Aku tak percaya." (p.70)

SL: "Aha! Talk about trying to cure warts with spunk-water such a blame fool way as that!—" (p.81)

TL: "Aha! Tolol sekali untuk menyembuhkan kutu dengan air keberanian, bila tak tahu cara-caranya..."

(p.75)

SL: "Then art thou indeed that famous outlaw? Right gladly will I dispute with thee the passes of the merry wood. Have at thee!" (p.101)

TL: "Ha, jadi kaulah penjahat yang termasyhur itu? Girang aku bisa bertengkar denganmu tentang ijin di rimba ini. Awas!"

SL: "By hokey, that's so, Tom!" (p.116)
TL: "Masya Allah! Betul juga, Tom!" (p.116)

SL: "Oh, geeminy, it's him!" (p.121) TL: "Masya Allah! Itulah dia!" (p.122)

SL: "Poor fellow!" (p.126) TL: "Malang dia!" (p.127)

II. EXCLAMATIVE SENTENCES

SL: "My! Dat's a mighty gay marvel I tell you! But Mars Tom I's powerful 'fraid ole missis—" (p.38)
TL: "Wah, bagus betul kelereng ini, betul bagus. Tapi Tuan Tom, aku sangat takut pada Nyonya..." (p.25)

SL: "Ah, if he could only die temporarily!" (p.98) TL: "Ah, betapa senangnya kalau bisa mati." (p.96)

SL: "Oh, lordly, I'm thankful!" whispered Tom. (p.119)

TL: "Ya, Tuhan, syukur!" bisik Tom, (p.120)

SL: "—Oh, it's so hard!—" (p.158) TL: "...Oh, sangat pedih!..." (p.167)

SL: "Why, it's just as easy!—" (p.167) TL: "Wah, mudah sekali!..." (p.177)