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Bakalářská práce

Neologisms in Arundhati Roy's *God of Small Things*

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Prohlášení:

Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto bakalářskou práci vypracovala samostatně a výhradně s použitím citovaných pramenů, literatury a dalších odborných zdrojů.

V Praze, dne 10. dubna 2014

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Abstract:

This thesis focuses on neologisms in the novel *The God of Small Things* by Arundhati Roy. It aims at describing their morpho-syntactic features, the word-formation processes from which they result, and their contextual function in the analysed text. The original text is compared with the Czech translation and the ways of translating neologisms in Czech are explored.

The thesis explores three hypotheses. Firstly, the predominant word-formation process employed in creating neologisms in the text is likely to be compounding. Secondly, the Czech translation is expected to contain fewer neologisms than the original. Thirdly, it is supposed that the distribution of neologisms is not balanced throughout the book, and that their frequency will increase in those chapters which offer the children's perspective.

Out of these three hypotheses the first and the third one were confirmed. The validity of the second hypothesis could be neither confirmed nor refuted, for that would require further research on the Czech translation of the text, which was beyond the scope of this thesis.

Key words: neologism, word-formation processes, compounding, translation counterparts, Arundhati Roy

Abstrakt:

Bakalářská práce se zabývá neologismy v románu Arundhati Royové *Bůh maličkostí*. Cílem práce je popsat morfologicko-syntaktické rysy těchto neologismů, slovtvorné procesy, kterými byly vytvořeny, a kontextovou funkci neologismů v analyzovaném textu. Práce dále porovnává původní text s českým překladem a zkoumá způsoby překladu neologismů do češtiny.

Bakalářská práce ověřuje tři hypotézy. Za prvé, nejčastěji bude k tvorbě neologismů v daném textu použito slovtvorného procesu skládání. Za druhé, český překlad bude obsahovat méně neologismů než originál. Za třetí, rozložení neologismů ve zkoumaných kapitolách nebude rovnoměrné a jejich frekvence bude stoupat v kapitolách, které jsou psané z pohledu dětí.

První a třetí hypotéza se potvrdila. Druhou hypotézu nebylo možné při daném rozsahu a zaměření práce ani potvrdit ani vyvrátit.

Klíčová slova: neologismus, slovotvorné procesy, skládání, překladové protějšky,
Arundhati Royová

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1 Introduction

This thesis deals with the forms and functions of neologisms in the novel *The God of Small Things* by Arundhati Roy, and their translation into Czech.

Arundhati Roy is an outstanding Indian English-writing present-day author. Her novel *The God of Small Things* was first published in 1997, and it won the Booker Prize in the same year. Although *The God of Small Things*, her first novel, gained her wide recognition, Roy has not written another novel since. It seems that for her there is little difference between fiction and non-fiction, for she believes that the two are merely “different techniques of story telling” (Tickell 18). Since *The God of Small Things*, she “has turned her attention to journalism and political/environmental activism” (Tickell 17) and is now mostly known for her prose essays.

The novel is exceptional in many ways. Unlike most of the English Indian novels, which concentrate on finding and establishing the history and nationality of India, *The God of Small Things* “self-consciously refuses grandeur of scale” (Gopal 155). Roy deliberately opposes the large-scale national epics or historical novels and focuses on as small and as intimate things as possible. The book narrates the story of two young children, twins, who through seemingly minute and innocent actions unknowingly contribute to the ruination of their lives. Some parts of the book are narrated through the perspective of the children, Rahel and Estha, and some through the perspective of grown up Rahel.

A playfulness of language is one of the main characteristics of *The God of Small Things*. It makes use of various figures of speech, repetitions, emphatic capitalizations, and also neologisms (Tickell 7). As neologisms represent an important feature of the novel’s language, the aim of this thesis was not only to analyze their morpho-syntactic features and etymology, but also to try to discover their function in the text.

Following these objectives, the thesis is organized into three main chapters: Theoretical background, Material and method, and Analysis.

The first chapter (pp 10 – 18) serves as a theoretical background for the core analytical part. It therefore focuses on the definition of neologisms adopted in the present thesis and on the ways they can be created. The English word-formation processes are described in detail. The first chapter then proceeds to describe the strategies of translating neologisms and the ways of forming neologisms in Czech.

The second chapter, Material and method (p. 19), gives the details of the procedure through which the material for this thesis was obtained and how it was further analyzed.

The analytical part of this thesis (pp 20 – 35) explores the form, frequency and function of the neologisms. At the beginning of this chapter the three hypotheses which this thesis seeks to explore are presented. The chapter is then subdivided into three parts, each of which aims primarily at exploring one of the hypotheses. The first part, Results: Word-formation in the original text (pp 20 – 26), focuses on the form of the neologisms in the original text. The results are organised according to the word-formation processes described in the theoretical background. The second part, Results: Czech counterparts and translation strategies (pp 26 – 32), explores the Czech correspondences of the English neologisms and analyses the translation strategies applied. The third part, Discussion (pp 32 – 35), presents more general findings and interpretations of the preceding results.

The last chapter, Conclusion (pp 36 – 37), summarises the findings and comments on the hypotheses with a view of evaluating their validity in the given analytical framework.

2 Theoretical background

This chapter presents the theoretical background to the three main areas explored in the Analysis part. First, neologisms are defined and the word-formation processes employed in their creation in English are described. Secondly, the approaches to translating neologisms are presented. Thirdly, the possibilities of creating neologisms in the Czech translation are specified.

Although this is a theoretical part of the thesis, some examples from the source text will be used to illustrate the phenomena described. These examples will be, however, dealt with in more detail in the analytical part of this thesis.

2.1 Neologisms

This thesis concentrates on neologisms in the novel *The God of Small Things* (henceforth referred to as GST) written by Arundhati Roy. Neologisms can be defined as “[words] that were newly coined in a given period” (Plag 64). There are several ways of widening the English word stock. (Yule 53-54, 233)

- a) New words can be created according to the rules of **word-formation** in a given language. Examples of these will be discussed in the following chapter.
- b) There is a thin boundary between the word-formation process of compounding (resulting in a single lexeme, see the chapter 2.2.1 Compounding) and newly coined **non-standard collocations**. An example from GST can be *Airport Frock* (Roy 136).
- c) Another way of enriching the vocabulary is **borrowing**, i.e. “the taking over of words from other languages” (Yule 54). Loanwords from various languages are very frequent in English, e.g. *chamois* (from French), *sofa* (from Arabic), *tsunami* (from Japanese). In the GST there are some examples of borrowing from Malayalam, e.g. *a Baba* for father (Roy 31).
- d) New words can originate, albeit infrequently, through **coinage** (word manufacture), i.e. “the invention of totally new terms” (Yule 53), for example *sandwich*, *xerox*, *google*.
- e) A word already existing in the language may acquire a new meaning through **semantic shift**, i.e. “change in meaning” (Campbell and Mixco 181), for example, *orange* (the fruit → the colour).

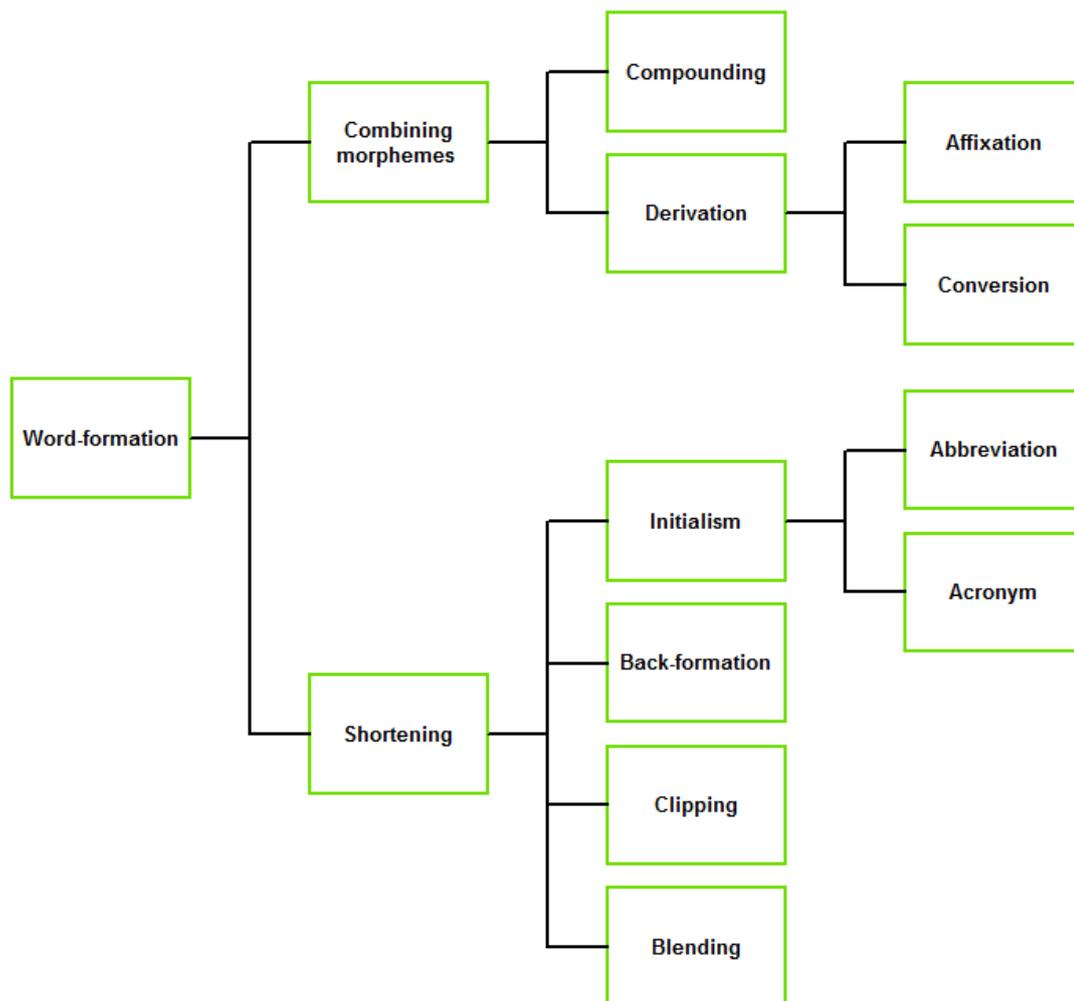
In this thesis the concept of neologisms will be narrowed down merely to the new words created through (a), English word-formation processes, and (d), coinage. However,

no examples of neologisms created through coinage were found in the analyzed text. I shall therefore further concentrate only on the neologisms formed by the English word-formation processes. These word-formation processes will be described in detail in the following paragraphs of the theoretical part of the thesis, proceeding from the standard and most productive ones to the marginal processes.

2.2 Word-formation processes in English

The word-formation processes in English are based either on a combination of existing morphemes or on various types of shortening. The former group comprises compounding and derivation. The latter group is comprised of acronymy, abbreviation, backformation, clipping and blending (Figure 1). Compounding and derivation constitute the central word-formation processes in English; the other types are peripheral.

Figure 1: Word-formation processes in English



2.2.1 Compounding

The process of compounding consists in combining two or more free lexical morphemes (Lehrer 7149, Lipka 83). The compound functions “both grammatically and semantically as a single word” (Quirk et al. 1567). We have to distinguish between a compound and “separate words in a syntactic construction” (Huddleston and Pullum 1644). In spoken language we can rely on the placement of primary stress on the first constituent of compound (Quirk et al. 1568). In written language the distinction is not entirely clear. The spelling conventions of compounds vary and “some compounds may even occur in three different forms, ‘solid’, hyphenated, and ‘open’” (Quirk et al. 1569), e.g. *a flower pot* (open), *a flower-pot* (hyphenated), *a flowerpot* (solid). In this thesis only the hyphenated and solid ones will be considered (with the exception of dephrasal compounds, whose compound status is signalled in other ways). The open compounds are generally hard to distinguish from non-standard collocations, and therefore, they will not be included in the analysis.

Syntactically, “[t]he great majority of compounds are subordinative, in that one base can be regarded as head, the other as dependant. The head is normally the second element” (Huddleston and Pullum 1646), for example in *birdcage* the head is *cage* and in *cage-bird* the head is *bird*. If the “component bases are of equal status” (Huddleston and Pullum 1646), the compound is called coordinative, for example *secretary-treasurer* is both a secretary and treasurer. Among the neologisms in the GST the word *jam-jelly* represents this category.

Compounds can be further subdivided into several groups according to semantic criteria. In endocentric compounds “the compound is a hyponym of the grammatical head” (Bauer 30), for example a *beehive* is a kind of hive. An exocentric (bahuvrihi) compound, on the other hand, “is a hyponym of some unexpressed semantic head [...]. Since the semantic head is unexpressed in such compounds, the compound is frequently seen as metaphorical or synecdochic” (Bauer 30), e.g. *a redskin*, *a highbrow*. A third type of compounds can be illustrated by *a maidservant*, which is a hyponym of both maid and servant. “This type of compound is termed an appositional compound” (Bauer 30). The last type of compounds is called copulative (dvandva). “Here [...] the compound is not a hyponym of either element, but the elements name separate entities which combine to form the entity denoted by the compound” (Bauer 31), e.g. *Alsace-Lorraine*.

Even though “compounding can take place within any of the word classes” (Quirk et al. 1567), most of the compounds are nouns and, to a lesser extent, adjectives.

2.2.1.1 Noun compounds

There are two types of noun compounds: verb-centred compounds and verbless compounds (Quirk et al. 1570-1576).

The verb-centred compounds are those where the head is ‘verbal’. These can be further described according to the relation between the verbal element and the second element. The first is the type ‘subject and verb’, for example *sunrise* which can be paraphrased by the sentence the sun rises, *popcorn* (the corn pops) or *cleaning woman* (the woman cleans). The second is the ‘verb and object’ type, represented for example by *bloodtest* (X tests blood), *story-telling* (X tells story), *songwriter* (X writes songs), *scarecrow* (X scares crows), *drinking-water* (X drinks water). The last type can be described as ‘verb and adverbial’, e.g. *swimming pool* (X swims in the pool), *daydreaming* (X dreams during the day), *boat-ride* (X rides in boat). The examples in the GST comprise all these types, e.g. *paint-flaking*, *hymnbook-holding*, *suddenshudder*.

The verbless compounds can be categorised in the same way, according to the relation between the elements. The first type is ‘subject and object’, consisting of two nouns, for example *windmill* (the wind operates the mill), *bloodstain* (the blood produces stain), *window-pane* (the window has a pane), *postman* (the man works at the post). The second type is ‘subject and complement’, e.g. *girlfriend* (the friend is a girl), *blackboard* (the board is black), *frogman* (the man is like a frog), *breadcrumb* (the crumb consists of bread), *birdcage* (the cage is for bird). Both these types are present in the GST, e.g. *spitstains*, *greentrees*.

2.2.1.2 Adjective compounds

The classification of compound adjectives can be based on the underlying syntactic relation between the elements. Again, verb-centred and verbless compounds can be distinguished (Quirk et al. 1576-1578). Verb-centred compounds comprise two major types: ‘verb and object’, for example *men-eating* (X eats men), *mouth-watering* (X makes the mouth water); and ‘verb and adverbial’, for example *hardworking* (X works hard), *quick-frozen* (X was frozen quickly). In the GST examples of both of these types can be found, e.g. *beer-drinking*, *angry-coloured*.

The verbless type can be illustrated by *foolproof* (X is proof against fools), *grass-green* (X is as green as grass), *grey-green* (the colour is a combination of grey and green). In the GST this category can be represented by *wetgreen*.

2.2.1.3 Verb compounds

Compound verbs are rarer than compound nouns or adjectives. Moreover, they are often “backformed by deletion of a suffix such as *-er* or *-ing* or formed by, for example, converting a compound noun into a verb” (Lehrer 590), e.g. *sky-dive* (derived from *sky-diving*), *carbon-copy* (converted from a noun compound). The verb compounds “occur so frequently in print and in spontaneous speech that it is reasonable to conclude that such compounds have become productive in recent years” (Lehrer 590), e.g. *lip-read*, *gift-wrap*. Verb compounds in the GST are, however, of a slightly different character, e.g. *to Stoppit*. For closer analysis see subchapter 4.1.1.3 Verb compounds.

2.2.1.4 Other types of compounds

Apart from the above mentioned compounds two further types can be distinguished, namely neo-classical and (de)phrasal (quotational) compounds.

In neo-classical compounds at least one of the elements is a combining form, usually of Greek or Latin origin. These compounds “figure extremely prominently in scientific terminology and learned vocabulary generally” (Huddleston and Pullum 1661), e.g. *hydrology*, *jazzofile*.

The dephrasal compounds satisfy the criteria of compound status in consisting of two or more free lexical morphemes and functioning as a single lexical unit. They are usually spelled with hyphens. However, they are formed “through the fusion of words within a syntactic structure into a single lexical base” (Huddleston and Pullum 1646), e.g. *He’s a has-been, his holier-than-thou attitude*. This type of compounding is considered to be a subtype of conversion by Quirk et al. (1563). These characteristics are generally true for neologisms which are classified as the dephrasal compounds in TGS, e.g. *nose-within-a-nose*.

2.2.2 Derivation

Derivation consists in adding a lexical bound morpheme (affix) to a base. Generally, derivational affixes are class-maintaining or class-changing (Bauer 31). The addition of a class-maintaining affix does not change the word class of the base, while the addition of a class-changing one does.

There are three types of affixation, according to where the affix is attached to the base. Firstly prefixation, which means that the affix – in this case called a prefix – is attached before the base, e.g. *pronounce* → *mispronounce*. Secondly suffixation, which

means the attachment of an affix – in this case a suffix – at the end of a base, e.g. *hope* → *hopeless*. Finally, the least common of the types of affixation is infixation, which attaches the affix – an infix – in the middle of another word, e.g. *absolutely* → *abso-blooming-lutely*. However it is generally accepted that in English “there are no bound morphemes that qualify for infix status” (Plag 127) and the process of infixation is limited to the insertion of expletives.

Another type of word-formation process which can be subsumed under derivation is conversion, frequently called zero-derivation (Adams 16, Bauer 32, Plag 28). It is a “process whereby an item is adapted or converted to a new word class without the addition of an affix” (Quirk et al. 1558). It is typically open word classes which undergo conversion. The frequent types are noun to verb, e.g. *a hammer* → *to hammer*, verb to noun, e.g. *to jump* → *a jump*, adjective to verb, e.g. *empty* → *to empty*, and adjective to noun, e.g. *poor* → *the poor*; other types are rarer, e.g. preposition to verb *down* → *to down* (Plag 134-135).

2.2.3 Shortening (Truncation)

Instead of a combination of morphemes the following word formation processes consist in removing parts of the base or shortening the base otherwise. These involve initialisms, backformation, clipping and blending. Although the processes of shortening are only marginally represented in the GST, they are described in this thesis in order to complete the general picture of word-formation processes in English.

2.2.3.1 Initialisms

Initialisms are formed “by combining the initial letters of a sequence of words (or of the parts of a complex word)” (Huddleston and Pullum 1632). Two main subtypes are distinguished: abbreviations and acronyms. Abbreviations are pronounced only as series of letters, e.g. *CIA, pc*. Acronyms “are pronounced like ordinary words, with the letters having their characteristic phonological value” (Huddleston and Pullum 1633), e.g. *NATO, laser*. Many names of organizations are chosen in such a way that their acronym forms an already existing word with a relevant meaning, e.g. *NOW* (*National Organization of Women*), *MADD* (*Mothers against Drunk Driving*) (Lehrer 591, Yule 58).

2.2.3.2 Back-formation

The process of back-formation can be defined as creating a morphologically simpler word by deleting an affix (or a supposed affix) (Plag 48). Back-formation “is particularly fruitful in creating denominal verbs” (Quirk et al. 1578-1579). Examples include *headhunter* → *headhunt*, *lip-reading* → *lip-read*, *disabled* → *abled* (Huddleston and Pullum 1637).

2.2.3.3 Clipping

Clipping is a process in which one part of a word is deleted, regardless of the morphological boundaries. Usually it is the last part of the word which disappears, e.g. *veterinarian* → *vet*. The deletion of the beginning is also possible, as in *air-plane* → *plane*, and it is also possible to eliminate both the beginning and the ending, for example *influenza* → *flu* (Lehrer 591). This is the only shortening word-formation processes employed in the GST, e.g. *Mactor*.

2.2.3.4 Blending

A blend is “a sequence of two bases with reduction of one or both at the boundary between them” (Huddleston and Pullum 1636). The most common types of blends comprise a full word followed by a reduced word (splinter), e.g. *wintertainment* ← *winter* + *entertainment*, or a splinter followed by a full word, e.g. *narcoma* ← *narcotic* + *coma*. Combinations of two splinters are also possible, e.g. *sitcom* ← *situation* + *comedy*. Some splinters become productive and occur in several blends, e.g. *workaholic*, *shopaholic*, *videoholic*.

2.2.4 Combination of word-formation processes

All of the above mentioned word-formation processes often combine in creating one new word, which makes it sometimes difficult to classify them. The combining of word-formation processes is characteristic especially of Czech, where most neologisms, no matter how they were first created, undergo derivation in order to be easily integrated into the Czech morphology. In the analysis part of this thesis neologisms are classified according to the process which is believed to be either the first or the most important one.

2.3 Translating neologisms

Translating neologisms presents a challenge for the translator of fiction. Basically, there are two approaches to the translation of neologisms: (a) using specific translation procedures in order to render the meaning of neologism in the target language; (b) using a neologism formed by word-formation processes available in the target language (Bareš 15). The (a) group includes transcription (transference), calque (loan translation), approximation and paraphrase. Transcription is “the process of transferring a source language word to a target language text” (Newmark 81), e.g. the French word *coup d’etat* in English or *park* in Czech. Calques “involve employing the lexical-semantic pattern and a literal translation of components of the source language word” (Bareš 16, as translated by Lucie Malá), e.g. *cold war* → *studená válka*. Approximation of meaning can be achieved by using, for example, a superordinate term or a more general synonym. Paraphrases consist in using a more descriptive but longer expression.

The solutions in group (b) are limited by the word-formation possibilities in the target language.

2.4 Czech translation counterparts of English neologisms

Having opted for the solution of the (b) type, that is to create neologisms in the target language, the translator can either rely on the word-formation processes available in the target language, or may expand the possibilities by imitating the word-formation process in the source language.

Similarly to English the word-formation processes in Czech involve either a combination of existing morphemes, derivation and compounding, or shortening. The productivity of the individual types, however, is different from that of the English ones.

Derivation is represented to a larger extent than it is in English. Czech displays a great variety of affixes: mutational (those which alter the meaning, for example *ryba* → *rybář*), transpositional (that is class-changing, e.g. *tvrdý* → *tvrdost*) and modifying (that is augmentative, diminutive or expressive, e.g. *krátký* → *kratinký*). Unlike in English, conversion represents a marginal word-formation process in Czech, e.g. *vrchní* (Cvrček et al. 81-90). An example of neologisms formed by derivation can be found in the GST, e.g. *dosní*. None of the Czech neologisms were created by conversion.

Compounding, both in English and in Czech, is based on a combination of two autosemantic bases. There are two main differences between Czech and English compounds. First, the elements of the compound are frequently linked by a medial vowel

in Czech, e.g. *život-o-pis*. Second, the first element is inflected, e.g. *láskyplný*. The process of compounding is frequently combined with derivation, that is, an affix is added to a compound, e.g. *dřevorubec* (Grepl et al. 110). In the GST translation, the compounds with medial vowel are common, e.g. *vázoruka*.

There are only two word-formation processes of shortening represented in Czech: clipping, e.g. *matematika* → *matika*, and initialism, e.g. *dph* (an abbreviation pronounced as *dépéhá*) or *FAMU* (an acronym). Both these types of shortening “take common suffixes so that the word was integrated in Czech morphology” (Cvrček et al. 86, as translated by Lucie Malá), e.g. *dépéháčko*. Out of these processes, only clipping was used in creating neologism as Czech counterparts of the English neologisms, e.g. *Mik*.

The words created by the imitation of the English word-formation process involved can be described as occasional neologisms. Their communicative function is restricted and context-bound; they are typically expressive and stylistically marked (Martincová 131-142).

3 Material and Method

The material used was excerpted from the novel *The God of Small Things* by Arundhati Roy, an Indian English writing contemporary author, which was first published in 1997. The book was chosen because it not only abounds in neologisms, but they also play an important stylistic role.

It was expected that the occurrence of neologisms is connected in particular with certain characters. The chapters for excerption were selected so that it was possible to test this hypothesis. The first chapter was chosen as supposedly a neutral one, because it comprises both these character's and other's perspectives, the second chapter is not centred around these characters and in the sixth chapter these characters are central.

From each of the three chapters all the neologisms were excerpted. The Oxford English Dictionary (the online version available at <http://www.oed.com.ezproxy.is.cuni.cz>) was used to verify whether the expression was really a neologism. Only those words not found in the dictionary were included among the neologisms. For the purpose of this thesis only the hyphenated and solid neologisms were taken in account, with the exception of the dephrasal ones. This thesis does not involve the non-standard collocations and words with semantic shift among the neologisms. The total number of neologisms is 177, and their complete list can be found in the Appendix.

The neologisms were analysed from the point of view of the word-formation process involved, their syntactic function and their word class. Further subdivisions were established within individual classes, where relevant.

Since the present thesis aims also at exploring the ways neologisms are translated, the Czech translation counterparts of the 177 English neologisms were confronted with the Czech version *Bůh maličkostí* translated by Michaela Lausmannová. For the classification of the Czech counterparts either as neologisms or as a combination of already existing words the *Slovník spisovného jazyka českého* (the online version available at <http://ssjc.ujc.cas.cz>) was used.

The examples of neologisms commented on in the Analysis are numbered consecutively. The original spelling, including italics and capitalisation, is maintained in these examples. The neologisms displayed in these examples which are relevant to what is being illustrated by the particular example are underlined. The citations from the original text are marked as (Roy p.), those from the translation as (Royová p.).

The full set of 177 neologisms explored is attached as an Appendix (pp 39 - 46).

4 Analysis

This chapter is subdivided into three parts. The first part focuses on the word-formation processes involved in the creation of the neologisms in the source text. The results, mostly quantitative, are organised into subchapters by the word-formation processes as they were described in the theoretical part. The second part deals with the Czech counterparts of the English neologisms. This subchapter describes first the translation by neologisms and then other translation solutions employed. The final part of this chapter, the discussion, presents more general findings and interpretations of the results.

This thesis aims at exploring three hypotheses concerning neologisms in *The God of Small Things*. Firstly, that the predominant word-formation process employed in creating these neologisms in English is compounding. This hypothesis arose from the belief that the author's motivation for creating neologisms was mainly to describe things more accurately, to give a more detailed and specific description, for which she would need to combine more lexemes rather than shorten the already existing ones. Secondly, the Czech translation is expected to contain fewer neologisms than the original. Thirdly, it is supposed that the distribution of neologisms is not balanced throughout the book, and that their frequency will increase in those chapters, which offer the children's perspective.

4.1 Results: Word-formation in the original text

Neologisms in GST are mostly created by the process of compounding. The other processes, affixation and conversion, are represented to a much lesser extent, and some of the processes listed in the theoretical part of this thesis are not attested at all (see Table 1).

Word-formation process	Total	
	Σ	%
Compounding	134	75.7
Affixation	14	7.9
Conversion	6	3.4
Clipping	2	1.1
Other	21	11.9
Total	177	100.0

Table 1: Word-formation processes in the original text

4.1.1 Compounding

With 134 instances compounds constitute the largest group of neologisms in *The God of Small Things*. As noted in the theoretical part, word-formation processes can

combine. The neologisms where compounding was combined with suffixation were included in this group, for it seems that the process of compounding is the dominant one. There are 31 such examples (all of which can be found in the Appendix). They are all subordinative compounds whose first element is an adjective or a noun and the verbal head contains the suffix *-ing* or *-ed* (exx 1, 2). Most of these compounds function as modifiers (attributes).

- (1) A rushing, rolling, fishswimming sense. (Roy 30)
- (2) The sad priests dusted out their curly beards with goldringed fingers [...].
(Roy 6)

The word class distribution of compounds confirms the findings of Quirk et al (1567) and Huddleston and Pullum (1646). Most compounds are nouns and adjectives (Table 2). However, there are also examples of compound verbs and interjections. Six per cent of the compounds are of the dephrasal type.

Compound	Total	
	Σ	%
Noun	61	45.5
Adjective	47	35.1
Verb	9	6.7
Interjection	6	4.5
Dephrasal	11	8.2
Total	134	100.0

Table 2: Word class types of compounds

4.1.1.1 Noun compounds

All of the noun compounds are subordinative and endocentric. Most of these compounds are verbless (Table 3).

Noun compounds	Type	Total
Verbless	subject-object	33
	subject-complement	11
Total verbless		44
Verb-centred	verb-object	3
	subject-verb	3
	verb-adverbial	11
Total verb-centred		17
Total		61

Table 3: Noun compounds

The syntactic structure of the verbless noun compounds can typically be described as the ‘subject and object’ type (ex. 3) or ‘subject and complement’ type (ex. 4). The verb-centred noun compounds are much rarer. Within this group the ‘verb and adverbial’ type constitutes the majority of cases (ex. 5).

- (3) [...] her armfat swung like heavy washing in the wind. (Roy 62)
- (4) Greentrees and telephone poles flew past the windows. (Roy 87)
- (5) And Estha, [...], couldn’t feel the wetness of the rain, or the suddenshudder of the cold puppy [...]. (Roy 15)

The verbless noun compounds are frequently used to describe body parts by specifying where on the body the head of the compound is located, e.g. *armfat* (i.e. the fat located on the arms), *neckfat*, *neckmole*, *arm-freckles*, *back-freckles*. Another semantic field described by these compounds is sound. Such compounds represent a larger tendency of Roy’s to create neologisms in pairs as complements to one another, e.g. *softsounds* and *hardsounds*, or *river-sense* and *sea-sense*.

The verb-centred noun compounds are few, and moreover, they tend to occur in close proximity (ex. 6). This seems to be a manifestation of a more general tendency for neologisms to co-occur within a sentence or a paragraph in GST.

- (6) The singing stopped for [...] a furrywhirring and a sariflapping. (Roy 6)

4.1.1.2 Adjective compounds

Adjective compounds can be classified syntactically into verbless and verb-centred compounds. The verbless ones constitute the majority (Table 4).

Adjective compounds	Type	Total
Verbless		30
Verb-centred	verb-adverbial	16
	verb-object	1
Total verb-centred		17
Total		47

Table 4: Adjective compounds

Even though the verbless compounds are not usually further subdivided syntactically, distinct semantic groups can be suggested. They are frequently used to

describe colours, e.g. *bluegreyblue*, *crushed-strawberry-pink*. The neologism makes it possible to express specific shades of colour, for example, there are five different neologisms containing *green*: *cabbage-green*, *dustgreen*, *mossgreen*, *slushgreen*, *wetgreen*. Another group describes smells or feelings, e.g. *sourmetal smell*, *bottomless-bottomful feeling*.

Among the verb-centred adjective compounds a group with *shaped* as the second element stands out: *car-shaped*, *cat-shaped*, *crow-shaped*, *frog-shaped*, *chef-shaped*, *roo-shaped*. It is also interesting to note that some of these contain a personal noun as their first element: *Miss Mitten-shaped*, *Joe-shaped*. The use of personal nouns is not restricted to the compounds containing *shaped*, e.g. *Elvis Presley-puffed*.

The majority of adjective neologisms are subordinative, but there are some coordinative ones too, e.g. *jam-jelly question*, *Bombay-Cochin people*.

4.1.1.3 Verb compounds

There are only nine verb compounds. They function as the verb (predicate) either in finite or in non-finite (infinitive or participle) clauses (ex. 7). Alternatively, if the compounds have the form of a present participle, they can be used as premodifiers (ex. 8).

(7) Margaret Kochamma told her to Stoppit. So she Stoppited. (Roy 141)

(8) [...] Rahel closed her eyes and thought of the green river, of the quiet deep-swimming fish [...]. (Roy 148)

4.1.1.4 Interjection compounds

Interjections are “a category of words that do not combine with other words in integrated syntactic constructions, and have expressive rather than propositional meaning” (Huddleston and Pullum 1361). It is not possible to analyze them from the semantic or syntactic point of view. Even though these neologisms sometimes contain lexical words, these do not carry lexical meaning. They are onomatopoeic or imitative (ex. 9).

(9) The yam leaves on either side of the railway track began to nod in mass consent. Yesyesyesyesyes. (Roy 86)

4.1.1.5 Dephrasal compounds

There are 11 neologisms which can be characterized as dephrasal compounds. Most of these function as attributes (ex. 10), but they occur also in the function of an object (ex. 12) or adverbial (ex. 11). Their spelling varies, they are either solid (ex. 11), or hyphenated (ex. 12), or open (ex. 10).

- (10) It had been the *What Will Sophie Mol Think?* week. (Roy 36)
- (11) The singing stopped for a ‘*Whatisit? Whathappened?*’ [...]. (Roy 6)
- (12) [...] she had Pappachi’s nose waiting inside hers. An Imperial Entomologist’s *nose-within-a-nose*. (Roy 143)

Dephrasal compounds are either formed from whole clauses (exx 10, 11), or from shorter syntactic structures (ex. 12).

4.1.2 Affixation

The process of affixation is the second most productive in creating neologisms in Roy’s book, although there are only 14 such examples. From these there are seven created by prefixation and seven by suffixation.

Word class	Total	
	Σ	%
Adjective	3	21.4
Noun	9	64.3
Verb	2	14.3
Total	14	100.0

Table 5: The word-class distribution of neologisms created by affixation

Most of the neologisms with affixes are nouns. All of the prefixes used are, as it is usual for prefixes, class maintaining. Some of the prefixes are used more than once, e.g. *ex-daughter*, *ex-nun*. Among the suffixes used there are those changing class, changing subclass and also class maintaining ones, e.g. *die-able* (deverbal adjective), *divorceehood* (changing from a countable noun *divorcee* to an uncountable one), *omeletteer* (denominal noun). As in compounding, some neologisms are created by adding an affix to personal nouns, e.g. *Father Mulligan-less*. As already mentioned, Roy tends to create neologisms as semantic complements. It is, however, not always a pair of neologisms complementary to each other. Sometimes a complement to an already existing word is created (ex. 13).

- (13) [...] they are as old as Ammu was when she died. [...] Not old. Not young.
But a viable die-able age. (Roy 3)

4.1.3 Conversion

Neologisms which were created by conversion are scarce. Even though there are six tokens, they are in fact only of three types. Two of them function as an attribute (ex. 14) and one functions as an object. They are all deverbals.

- (14) When he was in this sort of mood, Chacko used his Reading Aloud voice.
(Roy 54)

An interesting neologism created by conversion is the deverbals noun *the Gret*, which is converted from a non-existent past participle of the verb *to greet*, which normally has fully regular past forms. This neologism, meaning “those who are greeted”, again resulted from the need of complementation to an existing word *Greeters*, “those who greet”. It was created by analogy to the relation between *the Meeters* and *the Met* (ex. 15).

- (15) Across the tall railing that separated Meeters from the Met, and Greeters
from the Gret [...]. (Roy 142)

4.1.4 Clipping

The process of clipping was used by Roy only twice. Both of these neologisms are shortened from the neologism *filmactor*. The first one was created by deleting the first part of the word (but not the whole first element of the compound), the second one resulted from deleting the second part of the word (ex. 16).

- (16) ‘He’s a filmactor,’ she explained to Margaret Kochamma and Sophie Mol,
making Adoor Basi sound like a Mactor who did occasionally Fil. (Roy 144)

4.1.5 Other types of word-formation

Two more processes were employed in creating neologisms in *GST*. The first of them is termed re-analysis. Usually it is not an intentional word-forming device, for it results from a misinterpretation of a word, when someone “fail[s] to perceive the original

morphological structure of a word and interpret[s] it as though it has been some other structure” (Bauer 2004, 89). In this book it is usually the children who interpret words differently, e.g. *Lay Ter* (originally *later*), or *a Nowl* (from *an owl*). Not only words but whole phrases can be thus re-analyzed, for example *Dus to dus to dus to dus to dus* (from *Dust to dust*). Some of the misunderstandings arise from English not being the mother tongue of the children (ex. 17). The spelling is therefore phonetic.

(17) Their Prer NUN sea ayshun was perfect. (Roy 154)

One more group of words (or phrases) was identified as neologisms in spite of their not being formed by any widely recognised word-formation process. I shall refer to this process as to ‘backward reading’. These neologisms result from a habit of the children to read backwards, e.g. *POTS* (the sign STOP read backwards). Most of these are full sentences or longer phrases, standing separately in the text. However, some are used in normal (not backward read) sentences (ex. 18).

(18) She told Baby Kochamma that she had seen Satan in their eyes. nataS in their seye. (Roy 60)

4.2 Results: Czech counterparts and translation strategies

In this subchapter the results of the research on the Czech translation of neologisms in *GST* will be presented. There are basically two approaches to translation of neologisms, which were already described in the theoretical part. These are (a) specific translation procedures rendering the meaning of neologisms in the target language; (b) neologisms formed by word-formation processes available in the target language. The result in the target language (in this case Czech), no matter which approach was used, can be either a neologism, i.e. a newly coined word in the target language, or it may be a collocation of already existing words. Among the translations, the neologisms constitute a minority, represented by 33.9 per cent of the translation counterparts (Table 6). Accordingly, this subchapter will be further divided into two parts. In the former one the translation by neologisms will be presented, arranged according to the correspondence of the word-formation processes in English and in Czech. The latter part will concentrate on translation solutions other than neologisms.

Czech counterparts	Total	
	Σ	%
Neologism	60	33.9
Other translation solution	117	66.1
Total	177	100.0

Table 6: Czech translation counterparts of the English neologisms

4.2.1 Czech translation by neologisms

The sixty Czech neologisms were formed most frequently by the standard word-formation processes based on a combination of already existing morphemes. However, even word-formation processes otherwise rarely found in Czech were attested, corresponding to the English originals. In Table 7 the dephrasal compounds were not subsumed under the process of compounding since this type of word-formation is rare in Czech. The other marginal word-formation processes comprise clipping, which is a standard, albeit minor, process in Czech, and two processes peculiar to Roy's novel: re-analysis and backward reading.

Czech word-formation process	Total	
	Σ	%
Affixation	7	11.7
Compounding	29	48.3
Dephrasal compounds	6	10.0
Clipping	2	3.3
Re-analysis	11	18.3
Backward reading	5	8.3
Total	60	100.0

Table 7: Czech word-formation processes employed in the translation of neologisms

The only category of word-formation which is not represented among the Czech neologisms is conversion. Out of the English neologisms formed by conversion only one was translated by a neologism, *pozdravovaných* (ex. 19). I have decided to classify the translation as affixation, which is the primary word-formation process involved here. Only after the adjective *pozdravovaný* was formed by a suffix from the verb did it undergo conversion to a noun. This type of conversion is used in Czech to form nouns denoting people. An alternative way of forming such nouns is affixation, e.g. *potkávač*, *pozdravovač* in example 19. Both word-formation processes are employed in example 19 in order to retain the balance of the English sentence. As a result, the Czech sentence contains more neologisms than the original one.

(19) [...] the tall iron railing that separated Meeters from the Met, and Greeters from the Gret, [...] (Roy 142)

[...] vysoké železné zábradlí, které oddělovalo potkávače od potkávavých a pozdravovače od pozdravovaných, [...] (Royová 144)

In most cases (49 out of 60) the word-formation processes involved in creating Czech neologisms mirrored those employed in the source text (highlighted in Table 8).

English w-f processes	Czech w-f processes						Total
	Affixation	Com-pounding	Dephrasal comp.	Clipping	Re-analysis	Backward reading	
Affixation	1	5					6
Compounding	5	24					29
Dephrasal comp.			6				6
Clipping				2			2
Re-analysis					11		11
Backward reading						5	5
Conversion	1						1
Total	7	29	6	2	11	5	60

Table 8: Correspondence of the word-formation processes between English and Czech

It was in the less common word-formation processes that full correspondence between Czech and English was observed. Two words were formed by clipping (ex. 20). The process is the same in both languages. In English, the source of the two clippings is also a neologism *filmactor*. The Czech counterpart *komik* is an approximation not fully corresponding to the original semantically, but making it possible to mirror the clipping process (*Mik*, *Ko*).

(20) ‘He’s a filmactor,’ she explained [...], making Adoor Basi sound like a Mactor who did occasionally Fil. (Roy 144)

„Je to komik,“ vysvětlila [...], a v jejím podání Adúr Bási vyzněl jako Mik, který příležitostně dělá Ko. (Royová 146)

Re-analysis is another word-formation process with full correspondence in the translation. In both languages the re-analyzed words contain both morphemic (*to*, *pra*) and

non-morphemic elements (*dus*, *chsi* in ex. 21). In the same way as in clipping, the unit of translation correspondence has to be a segment larger than a word or sentence in order to maintain the meaningfulness of re-analysis. In example (22) the meaning of *nevertheless* was retained by the addition of the sentence *To věc nemění*, and the word-formation process (re-analysis of *nevertheless* into three elements) through *Ó, nicméně* re-analyzed into *O. Nic. Méně*.

- (21) *Earth to earth, ashes to ashes, dust to dust.* [...] Her funeral killed her. *Dus to dus to dus to dus to dus.* (Roy 7)
 [...] *neboť prach jsi a v prach se obrátíš.* [...] Zabil ji její pohřeb. *Pra chsi pra chsi pra chsi.* (Royová 18)
- (22) ‘Nevertheless, my dear,’ Chacko said in his Reading Aloud voice. ‘Never. The. Less.’ (Roy 55)
 „Ó, nicméně, má drahá,“ pravil Čákkó svým *předčítacím hlasem*. „To věc nemění. O. Nic. Méně.“ (Royová 64)

The specific process of backward reading, which characterises the main characters, poses no problem in translation. The words are simply reversed in Czech in the same way as in English (ex. 23). Problems could possibly arise where the words or phrases read backwards are palindromes (i.e. they read the same forwards and backwards). None of these, however, are neologisms in the original or the translation. Once again the translation chooses to retain the form rather than the meaning (ex. 24).

- (23) ‘NAIDNI YUB, NAIDNI EB,’ Estha said. (Roy 58)
 „ÍŽOBZ ÉKCIDNI ETJUPUK, ÍTČIDNI ETĎUB,“ četl Esuta. (Royová 67)
- (24) They showed Miss Mitten how it was possible to read both *Malayalam* and *Madam I’m Adam* backwards as well as forwards. (Roy 60)
 Ukázali slečně Mittenové, že *Jelenovi pivo nelej,* stejně jako anglické slovo pro malajálámštinu *Malayalam,* je možné číst popředu i pozadu. (Royová 68)

The formation of dephrasal compounds is a relatively unusual process in Czech. Those dephrasal compounds which become a part of the Czech lexicon become integrated also in the morphological system in being inflected for case and number (*vlezdoprdelka*, *akceschopný* (Cvrček et al. 116)). However, in Roy’s novel the translation imitates the

English original and the nominal status of the compound is signalled only syntactically. The Czech counterparts of these neologisms are parallel to those in English. For example, in (25) the phrasal compounds were considered neologisms in both languages because they form a single lexical unit, which is indicated also by the spelling. In English the nominal character of this unit is further signalled by the article.

- (25) The singing stopped for a ‘Whatisit? Whathappened?’ [...] (Roy 6)
Zpěv ustal, bylo slyšet „Coje? Coseděje?“ [...] (Royová 18)

Apart from the already mentioned case of conversion the number of neologisms formed by affixation and compounding remained the same in the Czech translation. These two processes are very productive in both languages and the translation showed that the neologisms created in English by compounding can be translated into neologisms formed by affixation (ex. 26) and vice versa (ex. 27).

- (26) Her husband lit a bent after-biscuit cigarette. (Roy 83)
Její manžel si zapálil ohnutou posušenkovanou cigaretu. (Royová 90)
- (27) [...] he looked back at his co-hecklers. (Roy 80)
[...] podíval se dozadu na své spolurejpalý. (Royová 87)

4.2.2 Czech counterparts other than neologisms

In the majority of cases the translation of English neologisms in Roy’s book relies on means other than word-formation processes. Four different types of solutions were identified: non-standard collocations, paraphrases and approximations, graphic solution, and zero counterparts. The description will proceed from those closest to neologisms, viz. non-standard collocations, down to the disappearance of neologisms in the translation.

The boundary between neologisms and non-standard collocations is rather fuzzy. Although non-standard collocations were not included among neologisms in this thesis on formal grounds, they share semantic characteristics with neologisms. This is reflected in the translation where they are frequently used as counterparts of English neologisms (23 per cent, ex. 28) as well as of non-standard collocations (the latter were not explored systematically, though, ex. 29).

- (28) The skyblue Plymouth with tailfins had a smile for Sophie Mol. A chromebumpered sharksmile. A Paradise Pickles carsmile. (Roy 153)
 Blankytně modrý plymouth s křídélky měl pro Sofii Mól úsměv.
 Chromonárazníkový žraločí úsměv. Automobilový úsměv Zavařeného ráje.
 (Royová 154)
- (29) Ammu [...] helped Rahel to put on her frothy Airport Frock. (Roy 136)
 Ammu [...] pomáhala Ráhel při oblékání letištních krasošatů. (Royová 139)

Approximation and paraphrases (described among the approaches to translating neologisms in the theoretical part of this thesis) were both applied in the translation of *The God of Small Things*. The paraphrase captures explicitly the lexical meaning conveyed by the neologism, but the stylistic effect is lost (ex. 30). The paraphrases may sometimes disrupt the links created by the recurrence of neologisms in the English text, e.g. *sourmetal smell* (Roy 31, 72) translated once as *nakyslý závan kovu* (Royová 41) and then as *nakyslý závan oceli* (Royová 80).

- (30) Estha saw how Baby Kochamma's neckmole licked its chops and throbbed with delicious anticipation. (Roy 147)
 Esuta viděl, jak se vystupující mateřské znaménko na krku Panenky Koččammy zálibně olizuje a pulzuje rozkošnickým očekáváním. (Royová 149-150)

Approximation the meaning of the translation is usually more general than that of the original. The creativity and specificity of the English neologism disappears (ex. 31). Occasionally, the English neologism fills the lexical gap which does not exist in Czech, where an existing word is available (ex. 32).

- (31) And a smell. Sicksweet. Like old roses on a breeze. (Roy 32)
 A zápach. Nasládlý. Jako závan uvadajících růží. (Royová 42)
- (32) Oh the spitstains on the kangeroos! (Roy 140)
 A ty plivance na klokanech! (Royová 143)

The approximation can be motivated by achieving translation equivalence at a level higher than that of individual words. The word *dřevorubec*, which is formed by the same

process as the English *omeletteer* but is not a neologism, is used in ex. 33 because the English idiom *you can't make an omelette without breaking eggs* (Collins Cobuild Idioms Dictionary 324) is approximated by its Czech equivalent *když se kácí les, lítají třísky*.

- (33) The old omelette and eggs thing. [...] Pillai was essentially a political man. A professional omeletteer. (Roy 14)
Když se kácí les, lítají třísky. [...] Pillai byl politik každým coulem. Profesionální dřevorubec. (Royová 25)

In the original text, Roy herself frequently uses italics and capitalisation to mark neologisms and other words of special importance. The same marking is employed in the Czech translation both when the translation contains a neologism (ex. 21 above) and when a different type of counterpart was chosen. The marking does not appear to be consistent, for example the capitalisation corresponds to italics in Czech in ex. 22 above.

The omission of the neologism in the translation was detected only once. It was not only the neologism but also five full sentences surrounding it that disappeared in the translation (Roy 2, Royová 13).

4.3 Discussion

This subchapter will discuss some the pertinent general tendencies which seem to be applied in the use of neologisms in the GST.

Firstly, the neologisms are created in pairs, which are semantically related and somehow complement each other – I shall refer to them as to semantic complements. A pair of semantic complements consists either of two neologisms, e.g. *sea-sense*, *river-sense*, or of a neologism and an already existing word, e.g. *Man-less*, *Father Mulligan-less*. These semantic complements are also syntactically parallel in that they perform the same syntactic function in a sentence (ex. 34). They even tend to co-occur as various multiple sentence elements: premodification (ex. 35), postmodification (ex. 36), object (ex. 37), etc. (For the sake of clarity both the complements are underlined in the following examples, even though some of them are, as already explained, not neologisms.)

- (34) [...] like a seashell always has a sea-sense, the Ayemenem house still has a river-sense. (Roy 30)
(35) Not old. Not young. But a viable die-able age. (Roy 3)

(36) As though she had temporarily set aside the morality of motherhood and divorceehood. (Roy 44)

(37) She heard (on Sophie Mol’s behalf), the softsounds of the red mud and the hardsounds of the orange laterite that spoiled the shining coffin polish. (Roy 7)

The close relationship between the complements is reflected also in their proximity. In most cases they are found within one sentence or in two adjacent sentences. They never seem to be further from each other than within a paragraph.

As already mentioned, the semantic complements have a certain semantic relation between them. Roy creates these pairs on the basis of various relations.

The neologism can be an opposite of an existing word, e.g. *die-able* as opposed to *viable*.

Alternatively the neologism can be another member of the same lexical group, e.g. *divorceehood* describing a similar kind of state as *motherhood*.

Another motivation for the complement can be stylistic. For example the invention of false past participle *Gret* of the verb *to greet* is motivated by the relationship between *the Meeters* (those who meet) and *the Met* (those who are met). Thus in the text we find *the Greeters* (those who greet) and *the Gret* (those who are greeted).

Neologisms in the GST, especially those complementing an existing word, are created to fill a lexical gap in the language and their meaning can therefore be clearly understood and is perfectly logical: *divorceehood* is the state of being divorced, etc. Nevertheless, Roy also creates neologisms which are, even though they complement an existing word, nonsensical in their meaning. For example, the neologism *ex-daughter* (created as a complement to *ex-wife*) has in fact only a hypothetical meaning (someone who used to be one’s daughter).

Secondly, the neologisms are not evenly distributed through the selected chapters of the GST (Table 9). Most of them are used in Chapter 6, which is centred around the twins. They are directly connected with them and are used to differentiate their perception of the world from the one of the adults.

Chapter	Neologisms	Pages	Neologisms per page
Chapter 1	44	34	1.29
Chapter 2	52	53	0.98
Chapter 6	81	19	4.26

Table 9: The distribution of neologisms in the selected chapters

As the neologisms are meant to illustrate the children's perception of the world, a considerable number of them express specific sensory perceptions such as sounds, feelings, smells and colours, e.g. *sariflapping*, *bottomless-bottomful feeling*, *sourmetal smell*, *slushgreen*.

The neologisms are also used to illustrate the inner connection between the twins. The same words are used in relation to one and later to the other twin too (exx 38, 39).

(38) Ambassador Estha felt bluegreyblue eyes on him [...] (Roy 145)

(39) Rahel's mind was full of millstones with bluegreyblue eyes. (Roy 146)

Thirdly, some of the neologisms are connected with important things, people or events, and usually carry strongly negative emotional charge. For example the smell of death is *sicksweet*, or the man who abused Estha is *Orangedrink Lemondrink Man*. Also the feeling Estha experiences when confronted by this man is described as *bottomless-bottomful feeling*. The *sourmetal smell* is connected with the arrest of the children's friend, who is brutally beaten and then handcuffed (in their presence). The neologisms related to such negative experiences recur throughout the book (and therefore some of the examples used occur, or are used for the first time, in other chapters than the analysed chapters 1, 2 and 6).

Such neologisms become private symbols; they show how deeply the minds of the twins are affected by negative experiences. These incidents imprint into the language because the twins perceive the reality through it. Such negative memories are then always present in their minds and from time to time they are brought to the surface, where they are often represented only by the neologism. They may be raised by a number of seemingly irrelevant or innocent things, and only through the presence of the neologism can we feel the negative connotation. These neologisms appear not only in the passages of the children's perspective, but also in the memories of grown up Rahel (one of the twins), which shows that the negative experiences from the childhood stay with them for all of their life (ex 40). The neologism *sourmetal smell*, for instance, connects the every-day experience with bus-rails and the conductor's hands (ex. 40) to that related to death (ex. 41).

- (40) It drew her [i.e. Rahel] closer to the New York's deranged womb. Away from the other, more terrible thing that hunted her. *A sourmetal smell, like steel bus-rails, and the smell of the bus conductor's hands from holding them.* (Roy 72)
- (41) His arms had goosebumps where the handcuffs touched his skin. Cold handcuffs with a sourmetal smell. Like steel bus rails and the smell of the bus conductor's hands from holding them. (Roy 31)

The use of these symbolic neologisms is also a kind of foreshadowing because at the beginning of the book the reader is not familiar with the events from which these negative memories (and neologisms) result. The situations are only alluded to in a way which suggests something unpleasant, such as the general verb *did* connected with the *Orangedrink Lemondrink Man* in the ex. 42.

- (42) She remembers [...] what the Orangedrink Lemondrink Man did to Estha in Abhilash Talkies. (Roy 2)

It should be mentioned that it is not only the neologisms which function in this way. Sometimes it is a phrase which only at places turns into a neologism, e.g. the neologism *goose-bumpy* alternates with *goosebumps*, and represents the above mentioned memory of handcuffs on the hands of the children's friend (ex. 41).

There is a semantic subgroup of neologisms connected with the river and water in general, which could be included among the above mentioned symbolic neologisms, e.g. *deep-swimming*, *fish-swimming*, *river-sense*. This close connection with river may function as another kind of foreshadowing, because the two main events which destroy the lives of the children take place by or in the river: the drowning of the children's cousin and the inter-caste love affair of their mother.

5 Conclusions

The aim of this thesis was to explore the forms and functions of the neologisms in the GST and to either confirm or refute the three hypotheses, which were presented at the beginning of the analytical part of this thesis (p. 20).

The first part of the thesis (pp 10 – 18) provides the relevant theoretical background. It defines neologisms and describes the way they can be created. It focused on the English and Czech word-formation processes. Finally, it deals with the strategies of translating neologisms.

The second chapter (p. 19) specifies the material and methods used in this thesis.

The third chapter (pp 20 – 35) of the thesis is the analysis itself. This analytical part aims at describing the corpus of neologisms in detail. It comprises three parts, each of which explores one of the hypotheses.

The first part of the chapter Analysis presents the mainly quantitative results of the analysis of the corpus of neologisms. In this part the first of the three hypotheses is explored. It was expected that the majority of neologisms in the GST is created by the process of compounding because the author wants to convey a complex specific meaning, which is more likely to be achieved through a combination of already existing morphemes than through their shortening. Indeed, out of the total number of 177 neologisms, the majority, 75.7 per cent, is created by compounding (see Table 1). The hypothesis was confirmed.

The second section of the Analysis part deals with the Czech counterparts of the original neologisms. This subchapter also explores the second hypothesis, i.e. that the translation of the GST contains fewer neologisms than the original. This hypothesis is supported by the fact that out of the 177 neologisms excerpted from the original, only 33.9 per cent are translated into Czech as neologisms (see Table 6). However, some cases were detected where Czech neologisms are used as translations of words or collocations which are not neologisms in English. As the Czech neologisms which do not correspond to neologisms in the original were not systematically analyzed, it is impossible to either confirm or refute this hypothesis. The fact that the neologisms in the Czech translation in most cases do not correspond to the English neologisms does not prove that there are in total fewer neologisms in the Czech text than in the original.

The final part of the Analysis chapter presents some of the general tendencies which were deduced from the preceding results in relation to the whole book. The last of the

hypotheses is explored in this subchapter. The frequency of neologisms was expected to rise in those passages narrated through the perspective of the children. To prove this, neologisms were excerpted from three chapters: the first chapter, which is supposedly neutral (for it includes both the perspective of the children and of adults); the second chapter, offering mostly the perspective of the adults; and the sixth chapter, presented from the perspective of the children. The first two chapters contain approximately one neologism per page (the second one a little less than the first one), whereas the sixth chapter contains about four neologisms per page (see Table 9). Therefore, the hypothesis proved to be right.

Moreover, this part revealed the textual functions of the neologisms. They seem to function as symbols, which recur throughout the book and therefore interconnect the chapters, and also link small events to the major and important ones. They serve as means of capturing more accurately the way the children perceive the world.

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Appendix

Abbreviations used in the Appendix:

Comp. ...compounding

Comp. + suff. ... compounding combined with suffixation

Comp., dephrasal ... dephrasal compound

Conv. ... conversion

Prefix. ... prefixation

Suff. ... suffixation

N ... no, the translation is not a neologism

Y ... yes, the translation is a neologism

Original Text				Czech Translation			
Chapter	Page	Neologism	Word-formation process	Strana	Český překlad	Neologismus	Slovotvorný proces
1	1	dustgreen	comp.	13	Zaprášeně zelených	N	
1	1	mossgreen	comp.	13	mechově se zelenají	N	
1	2	leaf-strewn	comp.	13	(tato a následujících 5 vět chybí)	N	
1	2	Elvis Presley-puffed	comp. + suff.	14	s nadýchnutým účesem à la Elvis Presley	N	
1	2	oversmiling	prefix.	14	přemrštěně se usmívajících	N	
1	2	Orangedrink Lemondrink Man	comp.	14	Oranžáda Citronáda	N	
1	3	die-able	suff.	15	věk dobrý k životu i ke smrti	N	
1	4	satin-lined	comp. + suff.	16	vyloženou saténem	N	
1	4	brass handle-shined	comp. + suff.	16	s lesklými mosaznými držadly	N	
1	5	coffinwood	comp.	16	(voněla) dřevem rakve	N	
1	5	hymnbook-holding	comp.	17	svírající zpěvník	N	
1	6	sicksweet	comp.	17	nasládlá	N	

1	6	Whatisit	comp., deparasal	18	Coje	Y	comp., deparasal
1	6	Whathappened	comp., deparasal	18	Coseděje	Y	comp., deparasal
1	6	furrywhirring	comp. + suff.	18	měkké šustění	N	
1	6	sariflapping	comp. + suff.	18	víření sáří	N	
1	6	goldringed	comp. + suff.	18	zlatě okroužkovanými (prsty)	N	
1	7	softsounds	comp.	18	měkké údery	N	
1	7	hardsounds	comp.	18	tvrdé údery	N	
1	7	dullthudding	comp. + suff.	18	tupé údery	N	
1	7	Dus to dus to dus to dus to dus	re-analysis	18	Pra chsi pra chsi pra chsi	Y	re-analysis
1	10	greenmossing	comp.	21	zelenajíc mechem	N	
1	10	wetgreen	comp.	21	mokřezeleně	Y	comp.
1	10	thunderdarkness	comp.	21	bouřkové temnotě	N	
1	10	crushed-strawberry-pink	comp.	21	růžové (triko) barvy rozmačkaných jahod	N	
1	13	sea-secrets	comp.	24	tajemství moře	N	
1	13	Gulf-money	comp.	24	peníze z Perského zálivu	N	
1	14	omeletteer	suff.	25	dřevorubec	N	
1	15	suddenshudder	comp.	26	náhle sebou škublo	N	
1	16	stern-mouthed	comp. + suff.	27	s přísně sevřenými ústy	N	
1	18	Sitting Down	conv.	29	S pocitem, že se bude moci posadit	N	
1	23	force-bathed	comp.	33	podrobovala násilné očištění	N	
1	23	soapslippery	comp.	33	mýdlem kluzkou	N	
1	24	force-bathed	comp.	34	násilně koupanému	N	
1	27	sneeze-coming	comp. + suff.	37	(s grimasou) blížícího se kýchnutí	N	
1	29	paint-flaking	comp. + suff.	38	oprýskanou	N	
1	30	confident-ancestor	comp.	39	praotcovsky přesvědčivým	N	
1	30	sea-sense	comp.	40	přítomnost moře	N	

1	30	river-sense	comp.	40	přítomnost řeky	N	
1	30	fishswimming	comp. + suff.	40	ryboplovoucí (přítomnost)	Y	comp.
1	31	jam-jelly	comp.	40	džem-želé	Y	comp.
1	31	sourmetal	comp.	41	s nakyslým závanem kovu	N	
1	32	sicksweet	comp.	42	nasládlý	N	
1	33	purple-robed	comp. + suff.	42	v kardinálských róbách	N	
2	35	oldfood	comp.	45	vůně z kuchyně	N	
2	36	What Will Sophie Mol Think?	comp., deparasal	46	Co si pomyslí Sofie Mól?	N	
2	36	Prer NUN sea ayshun	re-analysis	46	A rty kulatý	N	
2	36	Rej-Oice in the Lo-Ord Or-Orlways	re-analysis	46	Rrra-dost máš v Páá-nu, po všech-ny tčáá-ssy	Y	re-analysis
2	44	divorceehood	suff.	53	rozvedeného stavu	N	
2	44	mother-walk	comp.	53	chůze matky	N	
2	45	ex-nun	prefix.	54	bývalá jeptiška	N	
2	45	Father Mulligan-less	suff.	54	bez otce Mulligana	N	
2	48	vase-hand	comp.	57	vázoruku	Y	comp.
2	53	re-dreams	prefix.	62	dosní	N	
2	54	Reading Aloud	conv.	63	předčítací hlas	N	
2	54	church-feeling	comp.	63	kostelní atmosféru	N	
2	55	dinner-plate	comp.	64	s očima obrovskými jako talíře	N	
2	55	Reading Aloud	conv.	64	předčítacím hlasem	N	
2	55	Never. The. Less.	re-analysis	64	O. Nic. Méně.	Y	re-analysis
2	56	slushgreen	comp.	65	kýčovitě zelených	N	
2	58	fallingoff	comp.	67	(zvuky) jako by chtěl spadnout	N	
2	58	POTS	backward reading	67	POTS	Y	backward reading
2	58	NAIDNI YUB, NAIDNI EB	backward reading	67	ÍŽOBZ ÉKCIDNI ETJPUK, ÍTČIDNI ETĎUB	Y	backward reading

2	60	ehT serutnevda fo eisuS lerriuqS. enO gnirps gnirom eisuS lerriuqS ekow pu.	backward reading	68	Ydohřp ykrevev Ykzrz. Ohondej ohinraj anár es Akrevev Akzrz aliduborp.	Y	backward reading
2	60	nataS in their seye	backward reading	68	Anatas v jejich hcičo	Y	backward reading
2	62	armfat	comp.	71	tuk na pažích	N	
2	63	chef-shaped	comp. + suff.	71	šéfkuchařský	N	
2	66	pickle-factory-running	comp.	74	vlastníci ... konzerváren	N	
2	71	car-shaped	comp. + suff.	79	auto-zvířete	Y	comp.
2	72	sourmetal	comp.	80	nakyslý závan oceli	N	
2	72	redbrown	comp.	80	červeno-hnědé	N	
2	79	steelshrill	comp.	86	ocelově pronikavý hvizd (policejních píšťal)	N	
2	79	neckfat	comp.	86	(záhyby) tuku na krku	N	
2	80	co-hecklers	prefix.	87	spolurejpaly	Y	comp.
2	82	chinskin	comp.	89	kůže na bradě	N	
2	82	frog-shaped	comp. + suff.	89	žaboflek	Y	comp.
2	82	Miss Mitten-shaped	comp. + suff.	89	slečnomittenoflek	Y	comp.
2	82	cat-shaped	comp. + suff.	89	(mají) tvar ... koček	N	
2	82	Miss Mitten-shaped	comp. + suff.	89	slečnomittenofleky	Y	comp.
2	82	frog-shaped	comp. + suff.	89	žabofleky	Y	comp.
2	82	crow-shaped	comp. + suff.	89	rozjeté vrány	N	
2	83	after-biscuit	comp.	90	posušenkovou (cigaretu)	Y	affix
2	84	spit-bubble	comp.	90	slinovou bublinu	N	
2	84	spit-bubbles	comp.	90	slinové bubliny	N	
2	84	spit-bubbles	comp.	90	slinové bubliny	N	
2	84	spit-bubbles	comp.	90	slinové bubliny	N	
2	84	spit-bubbles	comp.	91	slinové bubliny	N	

2	84	babylegs	comp.	91	miminěcí nohy	Y	affix
2	85	spit-bubble	comp.	91	slinová bublina	N	
2	85	angry-coloured	comp. + suff.	92	zlostně (se) zabarvil	N	
2	86	frog-stained	comp. + suff.	92	žábami potřísněné	N	
2	86	Yesyesyesyesyes	comp.	92	Anoanoanoanoano	Y	comp.
2	87	carbreeze	comp.	93	autem profukoval větrík	N	
2	87	greentrees	comp.	93	zelené stromy	N	
2	87	daymoon	comp.	93	denního měsíce	N	
2	87	beer-drinking	comp. + suff.	93	pivní břicho	N	
6	136	What Will Sophie Mol Think?	comp., deparasal	139	Co si pomyslí Sofie Mól?	Y	comp., deparasal
6	138	terrycotton	comp.	140	froté (podpažních jamek)	N	
6	138	Bombay-Cochin	comp.	141	Bombaj-Kóčín	N	
6	139	flatfeet	comp.	142	ploché nohy	N	
6	139	emocleW ot eht ecipS tsaoC fo aidnI	backward reading	142	Ékcidni ížeřbop íneřok	Y	backward reading
6	140	co-Ambassador	prefix.	142	spoluvelvyslanci	Y	comp.
6	140	bottomless-bottomful	comp.	142	bezedným přeplněným (pocitem)	N	
6	140	Orangedrink Lemondrink Man	comp.	142	Oranžáda Citronáda	N	
6	140	neckmole	comp.	142	znaménkem na krku	N	
6	140	Bombay-Cochin	comp.	143	Bombaj-Kóčín	N	
6	140	mixy-grinders	comp.	143	kuchyňskými roboty	N	
6	140	birdshit	comp.	143	výkaly ptáků	N	
6	140	spitstains	comp.	143	plivance	N	
6	141	redreamed	prefix.	143	dosní	Y	affix
6	141	thimble-drinker	comp.	143	Náprstková pijačka	N	
6	141	coffin-cartwheeler	comp.	143	Rakevní hvězdometka	Y	comp.
6	141	lef, lef, lefrightlef	comp.	143	leváá, leváá, levapravaleva	Y	comp.

6	141	colourov	comp., deparasal	144	(missing - the song is different, does not correspond fully)	N	
6	141	Gin-nnn-ger	re-analysis	144	zrz-zrzavých	Y	re-analysis
6	141	leftleft	comp.	144	leválevá	Y	comp.
6	141	Stoppit	comp.	144	Nechtoho	Y	comp.
6	141	Stoppited	comp.	144	Tohonechala	Y	comp.
6	141	crisp-knickered	comp. + suff.	144	voňavě okalhotkovaná	Y	affix
6	142	Gret	conv.	144	pozdravovaných	Y	affix
6	142	Reading Aloud	conv.	144	předčítacím hlasem	N	
6	143	back-freckles	comp.	145	zádovými pihami	N	
6	143	arm-freckles	comp.	145	pažovými pihami	N	
6	143	Joe-shaped	comp. + suff.	145	v podobě Joea	N	
6	143	Hello wall	re-analysis	145	Ahoj, vši	N	
6	143	ex-daughter	prefix.	145	bývalá dcera	N	
6	143	easy-to-understand	comp., deparasal	145	(tomu smíchu) se dalo dobře rozumět	N	
6	143	Orangedrink Lemondrink Man's	comp.	145	Oranžády Citronády	N	
6	143	bluegreyblue	comp.	145	modrošedomodré	Y	comp.
6	143	nose-within-a-nose	comp., deparasal	146	uvnitř-nosu-nos	Y	comp., deparasal
6	143	moth-lover's	comp.	146	(nos) milovníka můry	N	
6	143	Hell-oh	re-analysis	146	Ahój	N	
6	143	hawkeyed	comp. + suff.	146	(sledovala) ostřížím zrakem	N	
6	144	filmactor	comp.	146	komik	N	
6	144	Mactor	clipping	146	Mik	Y	shortening
6	144	Fil	clipping	146	Ko	Y	shortening
6	145	Reading Aloud	conv.	147	předčítací hlas	N	
6	145	finethankyou	comp., deparasal	147	Děkujudobře	Y	comp., deparasal

6	145	bluegreyblue	comp.	147	modrošedomodré	Y	comp.
6	145	How do YOU do?	comp., deparasal	147	Hau du JŮ dů?	N	transcription
6	145	Far More Angry Than Necessary	comp., deparasal	148	(pocit) daleko hněvivější, než by bylo zapotřebí	N	
6	145	goose-bumpy	comp.	148	husí kůži vzbuzujícím	N	
6	146	Lay. Ter.	re-analysis	148	Po. Tom.	Y	re-analysis
6	146	deep-sounding	comp. + suff.	148	temně znějící	N	
6	146	kind-schoolteacher	comp.	148	laskavoučitelským (hlasem)	Y	comp.
6	146	Lay Ter	re-analysis	148	po tom	Y	re-analysis
6	146	deep-sounding	comp. + suff.	148	temně znějícího	N	
6	146	a Nowl	re-analysis	148	sovy	N	
6	146	bluegreyblue	comp.	149	modrošedomodrýma	Y	comp.
6	147	Sophiekins	suff.	149	dceroSofie	Y	comp.
6	147	Sophiekins	suff.	149	dceroSofie	Y	comp.
6	147	Sophiekins	suff.	149	DceraSofie	Y	comp.
6	147	bluegreyblue	comp.	149	modrošedomodré	Y	comp.
6	147	dirty-curtained	comp. + suff.	149	špinavě ozávěsovaném	Y	affix
6	147	Lay Ter	re-analysis	149	po tom	Y	re-analysis
6	147	neckmole	comp.	149	vystupující mateřské znaménko na krku	N	
6	147	der-green	comp.	150	mňam-zelené	Y	comp.
6	147	der-blueblack	comp.	150	mňam-modročerné	Y	comp.
6	147	der-mustardyellow	comp.	150	mňam-hořčicově žluté	Y	comp.
6	148	deep-swimming	comp. + suff.	150	vlnění ryb v hloubce	N	
6	148	neckmole	comp.	150	znaménka na krku	N	
6	148	Is. That. Clear?	re-analysis	150	Je. To. Jasný?	Y	re-analysis
6	149	Yes. It's. Clear.	re-analysis	151	Je. To. Jasný.	Y	re-analysis

6	150	Hotwheather	comp.	152	horko	N	
6	150	porketmunny	comp.	152	kapesním	Y	affix
6	151	firstcousins	comp.	153	sestřenice z prvního kolena	N	
6	152	roo-shaped	comp. + suff.	154	klokaní (siluety)	N	
6	153	chromebumpered	comp.	154	chromonárazníkový	Y	comp.
6	153	sharksmile	comp.	154	žraločí úsměv	N	
6	153	carsmile	comp.	154	automobilový úsměv	N	
6	153	dearohdear	comp., deparasal	155	Propánapropána	Y	comp., deparasal
6	153	back-freckles	comp.	155	zádovými pihami	N	
6	153	arm-freckles	comp.	155	pažovými pihami	N	
6	154	Thang God	re-analysis	155	Dígy Bohu	Y	re-analysis
6	154	RejOice in the Lo-Ord Or-Orlways	re-analysis	156	Rrra-dost máš v Páá-nu, po všech-ny tčáá-ssy	Y	re-analysis
6	154	Prer NUN sea ayshun	re-analysis	156	A rty kulatý	N	
6	154	cabbage-green	comp.	156	kapustově zeleného	N	