

# ***Bollywood-loving countries and Bollywood-inspired films: English compound adjectives in Spanish translations***<sup>1</sup>

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## **1. Introduction**

English compound adjectives are a productive idiomatic resource used to express detailed characterisation of nouns and this is particularly so when the second item is either a present/ gerund participle (-ing) or a past participle (-ed), as illustrated in the two examples in the title of this paper. However, “compounding is not a process which all languages use. Some languages, e.g. French and Spanish have little or no compounding, while others, e.g. German and Dutch, make extensive use of compounding.” (Bybee 1985: 106). Due to the fact that compounding is not such a common word-formation process in a more analytic language such as Spanish, other types of forms need to be used in translations to express these meanings.

The corpus-based study reported on here makes use of empirical data from a parallel corpus of contemporary English texts and their corresponding Spanish translations: P-ACTRES.<sup>2</sup>

This paper describes the actual translation options found for English compound adjectives in Spanish. First, the translations were analysed to identify the translation techniques employed in each case

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<sup>2</sup> P-ACTRES is the Spanish Acronym for the English-Spanish Parallel Corpus compiled at the University of León, Spain. A free demo is available at: <http://actres.unileon.es/inicio.php?elementoID=12>

by translators. Next, all the translated instances were classified according to the grammatical resources used in Spanish to convey the meaning of English adjectival compounds. Finally, a more detailed analysis was carried out on the lexical information of each of the constituents of the English compound actually present in the Spanish translations.

The usefulness of this study is that it provides a description of authentic material of one cross-linguistic problematic area in English and Spanish contrast, i.e., the translation of English compound adjectives. The results found can be directly applied in fields such as translation – both translator training and professional translation practice – and foreign language teaching.

## **2. English compound adjectives**

One of the most productive word-formation processes in English is the combination of two or more lexemes into a single lexical unit. This is generally known as composition or compounding, as in the case of *brehtaking* or *well-known*, both examples found in our corpus. This process lies somewhere between morphology, lexicology and syntax and is therefore a controversial issue, especially when it comes to delimiting its boundaries. Grammarians claim that “compounds resemble derived words in some ways, and resemble phrasal combinations in other ways.” (Fabb 2001:78). Morphologically, compounds only differ from derived words in the nature of their constituents: two lexemes in compounds (BREATH + TAKING) versus one lexeme plus one bound morpheme in derivation (BREATH + ing). From a lexical perspective, “compounding resembles lexical expression in that the resulting unit is a word” (Bybee 1985: 106) and that is why compounds have their own separate entries in dictionaries. On the other hand, compounds are syntax-like in two ways: first, compounds may appear in layers following the patterns of phrases and clauses, e.g. [[‘fruit juice] carton’] vs. [‘the juice [of the fruit’]] -example from Bybee (1985: 106)-, and second, the members of compounds engage in semantic relationships similar to the ones existing in more complex syntactic constructions, but without any intervening grammar words: a breathtaking story is a story that takes your breath away. In other words, com-

pounds “lend themselves to a compact and integrated expression of information” (Biber et al. 1999: 533).

There are two clearly distinct views on the position of compounding in linguistics. The *syntactic view* claims that compounds are part of syntax and may be explained exclusively in syntactic terms. This is best described in terms of transformational syntax based on the assumption that one common deep structure may lead to various different surface structures: phrases, clauses or compounds. According to this broad view, the inventory of compounds is largely increased, especially in languages that are more analytic than English, such as Romance languages. For example, Vinagre (2000: 264) argues that “most Spanish compounds are formed by more than two words, e.g. *corredor de bolsa, desprendimiento de tierras, detector de explosivos*, etc.”. Other authors also redefine compounding as “the concatenation of words to form other words” (Spencer 1991: 309). This expands the boundaries of compounding to include many syntactic constructions with more than one word, which many authors would not consider to be compounds, following the *lexical view*.

The *lexical view*, in its turn, acknowledges that there are similarities between compounding and certain syntactic constructions, but they are just resemblances and compounds are primarily regarded from a formal perspective as one-word units. In this study we have followed the *lexical view* and we have used an exclusively formal criterion to select the English compounds to be analyzed: only single-word items including hyphenated words. However, the study of the Spanish translations of these compounds has shown that many functionally equivalent items are not compounds in the target language (TL), but more complex syntactic structures, such as phrases of various types.

Within lexicology, compounding shares some features with another related word-formation process: derivation. Both consist in joining morphemes. However, in the case of compounding the two constituents are lexemes, i.e., they have lexical meaning and belong to the open word classes (*the English-speaking world*), whereas derived words result from the combination of one lexeme and a grammatical morpheme, which has no lexical meaning and belongs to the closed word classes (*an ongoing process*). In both cases inflections can be

added, as shown in the previous examples: ENGLISH + SPEAK + ing; ON + GO + ing.

According to Matthews (1991: 84), “in compounding we are concerned with (1) the meanings of the lexemes and (2) the relationship between them.” The meaning of the English compounds will be approached here through their correspondence with the Spanish translational options found in the corpus. With respect to the relationship between the two lexemes, following traditional approaches, the compounds have been classified according to the part of speech of the two constituents.

After this general outline of the object of study, compounding, the next step is to delimit the type of compound that will be studied in this paper and the level of delicacy involved. This paper consists of an analysis of -ing and -ed adjectival compounds and their translations into Spanish. These units belong to the group known as synthetic or verbal compounds, since their second lexeme is derived from a verb.

In a synthetic compound, the crucial interpretive restriction is that the left-hand word (a noun, adverb or adjective) must be interpretable as a complement of the right-hand word [...]. In effect, synthetic compounds with *-ing* or *-er* are like reversed active verb phrases with equivalent components (play checkers > checker-playing), while synthetic compounds with passive *-en* are like reversed passive verb phrases (tested by experts > expert tested). (Fabb 2001: 75)

In this study, the -ing and -ed compounds will be analyzed according to the part of speech of each of the two elements. The left-hand parts are, as mentioned by Fabb (2001: 75), mainly nouns, adverbs and adjectives. However, the right-hand elements may be derived from verbs (*tension-filled*, *tongue-tied*) or from other word classes, such as nouns: *white-toothed*, *high-ceilinged*, where the second elements are clearly derived from the nouns ‘tooth’ and ‘ceiling’.

As far as semantics is concerned, this involves the meaning relationship existing between the two elements in the compound. “There are many possible semantic relations between the parts in a compound, as between the parts in a sentence, but unlike a sentence, in a compound, case, prepositions and structural position are not available

to clarify the semantic relation.” (Fabb 2001:66). There are degrees of *delicacy* in the analysis of these semantic relationships. A basic approach to the issue would imply a classification based exclusively on the part of speech of the elements in the compound, e.g., one of the most basic relationships is the one between a verb and a noun, i.e., an action and a patient: *the disease-causing mutations* could be paraphrased as 'the mutations that cause diseases'. More detailed semantic classifications provide an analysis of the type of roles taken by the elements in the compound: agent, patient, locative, etc. This study will focus on the classification of compounds according to the part of speech of their elements and on their meanings as seen in the corresponding Spanish translations.

Finally, it is important to note that “as languages change a compound can develop into a single lexeme.” (Matthews 1991: 93). When this happens, native speakers become less aware of the compound origin of the lexical item, for example *breakfast* or *welcome*. “Even though compounding may be productive in the sense that new compounds are freely created, the results of the compounding process are lexicalized, and they tend gradually to lose their semantic and phonological transparency.” (Bybee 1985: 106). The evolution from a compound into a lexeme is shown graphically in different spelling conventions: a first stage would be a phrase, i.e. two words written with a blank in between, e.g. *spindle shaped* (2 occurrences in the corpus); the second stage is represented by a hyphenated item, e.g. *middle-aged* (14), *blue-eyed* (3), *diamond-shaped* (1), and when the compound is written as one word, the highest degree of lexicalisation has been attained, e.g. *streamlined* (9), *landlocked* (6), *teenaged* (2), *sunburned* (2). It is often the case that there is a period of fluctuation between some of these spelling conventions, e.g. *foulmouthed* (1) vs. *foul-mouthed* (2); *newfangled* (1) vs. *new-fangled* (1). According to the general punctuation rules, “types of compounds that are commonly hyphenated include: [...] adjective compounds in -ed that are formed from noun phrases, e.g. *cold-blooded*, *brown-eyed* and adjective compounds in which the second base is a participle, e.g. *far-fetched*, *habit-forming*.” (Quirk et al. 1985: 1613).

### 3. Methodology

The empirical data used for the analysis in this paper were extracted from the English-Spanish parallel corpus P-ACTRES developed at the University of León (Spain).

The ACTRES project (<http://actres.unileon.es>) is a long-term, translation-oriented research enterprise aimed at exploiting cross-linguistic analyses between English and Spanish in order to investigate translated language and find applications mainly in the field of translation practice, translator training and translation quality assessment.

The P-ACTRES corpus (for more information see Izquierdo et al. 2008) contains original English texts and their corresponding Spanish translations. This corpus includes written material from a variety of different registers (fiction, non-fiction, newspapers, magazines and miscellanea) published in English from the year 2000 on, thus representing the contemporary stage of the English language, and the corresponding translations published in the European variety of Spanish. Today P-ACTRES comprises nearly 2.5 million words, approximately 1.2 million words per language. The texts included vary in length depending on the register. In the case of books, the corpus contains fragments of approximately 15,000 words. The exact length varies depending on the text, since chapter divisions were considered so that all fragments were complete textual pieces. In the case of newspaper and magazine articles, the texts included are complete units of around 1,000 words each for the former and around 3,000 words each for the latter. Miscellanea texts are always full texts of short length, mostly around 500 words long.

The English source texts and their corresponding translations into Spanish are aligned at sentence level and can be searched with the Corpus Work Bench browser (CWB)<sup>3</sup>. Table 1 shows the number of words in each subcorpus.

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<sup>3</sup> We are grateful to Knut Hofland and Marlén Izquierdo for their co-operation in the setting up of the P-ACTRES parallel corpus.

**Table 1:** Contents of the English-Spanish Parallel Corpus.

	<b>ENGLISH</b>	<b>SPANISH</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
<b>Books – fiction</b>	396,462	421,065	817,527
<b>Books – non-fiction</b>	494,358	553,067	1,047,425
<b>Newspapers</b>	115,502	137,202	252,704
<b>Magazines</b>	119,604	126,989	246,593
<b>Miscellanea</b>	40,178	49,026	89,204
<b>TOTAL</b>	1,166,104	1,287,349	<b>2,453,453</b>

The searching strategy used to extract the empirical data for this study, i.e. English compound adjectives ending in -ing and -ed, involved the use of the part-of-speech (POS) tagging system as well as the option available in the browser for choosing exclusively words ending in a particular set of characters. The searches focused on adjectives only, ending in the corresponding verbal suffixes of the present and past participles. To ensure the cases of irregular verbs were covered, individual searches were carried out for every single irregular verb. The output included many thousand words that were not relevant for our study because they were not compound adjectives but single adjectives, so a manual selection had to be carried out to select exclusively relevant data. The compounds were required to be written either in one word or hyphenated. All the cases present in the corpus were included whenever the first element belonged to a lexical word class, mainly noun, adjective or adverb. Compounds containing prepositions or other particles of the closed word classes were not considered. All in all, 1,154 instances of this type of compound adjective were found and all of these were analyzed along with their corresponding translations. There were 720 regular -ed compounds, 239 irregular -ed compounds and 195 -ing compounds. The vast majority of the cases correspond to past participle adjectival compounds, mostly formed on the basis of regular verbs. Gerund participle compounds were far less frequent in the corpus, with less than 17% of the total.

The whole sample was analysed in two different ways. First, all the instances were classified into groups according to the word class of the two elements making up the compound. And second, all the instances were analysed again according to the translational option taken to translate each particular case.

1. Intralinguistic stage: part-of-speech classification. Traditionally, the classification of compounds has been based on the word class of the two elements involved. In the case of compounds headed by a gerund participle (-ing form), a distinction is made between nouns + gerund-participle (*awe-inspiring*) and adjective/adverb + gerund-participle (*easy-going, hard-working*). In the case of past participles as head of the compounds, the distinction lies between active and passive uses. Few compounds present an active meaning of the past participles and they are all highly lexicalised: *plain-spoken, short-lived*. Most past participle compounds have a passive use and are classified into the same two groups as in the previous category according to the part of speech of the first element (Huddleston and Pullum 2002: 1658-1659). We have made minor adjustments to this general approach adding further categories, like distinguishing between adjectives and adverbs as the first elements, following Biber et al. (1999: 534), and in the case of -ed compounds, the part of speech of the second element in the compound has also been analyzed. Other classifications are based on semantic criteria, such as the difference between verb + object and verb + adverbial put forward by Quirk et al. (1985: 1576-1577); even though these authors refer to compounds derived from noun phrases in their section on punctuation, they do not acknowledge the existence of this type of compound in the section on word formation. We have disregarded the semantic roles of the components in English, since we approached this issue through the translations into Spanish.

## 2. Interlinguistic stage:

a. translational techniques: as a starting point we have drawn on the well-established classification of translational techniques first proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958). Molina and Hurtado Albir (2002) have recently revised this classification and other contributions to the subject (Nida and Taber (1969), Margot (1979), Vázquez Ayora (1977), Delisle (1993) Newmark (1988)). We have adopted and adapted some of the techniques included in this classification. The techniques identified in our study are the following: functional translation (adjectival categories functioning in a parallel way in the TL Spanish), transposition into syntactic categories other than adjectives), modulation (a shift in point of view in the TL), literal translation (usage of a



compound of the same characteristics in the TL), omission (the meaning of the compound is absent from the target text (TT)), elision (the compound is included in a larger chunk of text which is missing in the TT) and shift in meaning (the meaning of the compound has been wrongly translated);

b. translational options: each of these translation techniques has been associated with the various grammatical options available in Spanish to convey the meaning implied by the compound adjective in English; for example, functional translation may be actualized by single adjectives, two coordinated adjectives, adjective phrases (AdjPs), participle clauses, etc.; transposition includes changes into prepositional phrases (PPs), noun phrases (NPs), verb phrases (VPs), adverb phrases (AdvPs) or relative clauses;

c. lexical selections: finally, the analysis revealed interesting patterns concerning the reflection in the TT of each of the lexemes that constitute the compound in the source text (ST); according to this criterion, several subcategories were identified: a) the most straightforward solution is to find that the two lexemes in the ST were somehow maintained in the TT (1+1): *fine-grained* > *de grano fino*; *high-powered* > *llenos de vigor*; b) sometimes the second constituent was not kept in the translation but its meaning was implicit (1+0): *state-owned* > *estatales*; *freckle-faced* into the single adjective *pecosa*, where only *freckle* and *state* have been maintained and the lexemes *owned* and *face* would be superfluous in Spanish; c) on other occasions, it was the first constituent that was not kept in the translation (0+1): *so-called* > *denominados*; *well-educated* into the single adjective *instruidos*; these selections are often highly idiomatic in Spanish and no information is actually lost in translation by omitting one of the two constituents of the English compound; d) the last possible selection involves the merging of the two lexemes in English into one single lexeme in Spanish covering the meaning of the whole compound (2 to 1): *eye-catching* into *vistosa*, *heartlifting* into *alentadora*, *man-made* into *artificial*.

## 4. Descriptive analysis

### 4.1. Intralinguistic analysis

#### 4.1.1. -ing compounds

The first stage of the analysis involved classifying all the instances of compounds in the corpus according to the grammatical category of each element. One notation for representing the possible combinations of word classes is put forward by Fabb (2001: 83): “XY%Z is to be interpreted as: [XY] is a compound of word class Z.” In our study, all the compounds are adjectives so the element Z will always be represented as ADJ and hyphens will be used to separate the two constituents of the compound. As far as X and Y are concerned, it was sometimes difficult to decide on the precise part of speech of one of the elements. This difficulty may be attributed to the extremely high productivity of conversion processes in English morphology, leading to many cases where the same word form may be used as a noun and a verb (*shape, paint*) or as an adjective and an adverb (*long, short*). The most feasible interpretation has been taken in each case according to the context.

In the case of -ing adjectival compounds, all -ing forms were considered verbal in nature and the classification obtained included the following categories: N-V%ADJ (*some **heartbreaking** stories*), ADJ-V%ADJ (*a **nice-looking** young man*), and ADV-V%ADJ (*a **far-reaching** debate*). Two additional minor categories included cases of quantifiers as the first element in the compound, Q-V%ADJ (*an **all-encompassing** worldview*) and constructions of more than two words where the last element was an -ing form: PHR/CL-V%ADJ (where PHR/CL stands for a modifying phrase or clause before the -ing form) ***up-and-coming** artists*. In a strict definition, constructions of more than two words are not considered to be compounds. There were very few cases of these modifying phrases or clauses in our corpus; however, we have included them in the study because of their similarities with two-word compounds: from a formal perspective, they end in -ing / -ed and are hyphenated, and from a functional perspective, they are used as adjectives. Furthermore, this inclusion gives us a broader view of -ing/ -ed adjectival compounding.

As far as -ing compounds are concerned, the grammatical classification of the elements forming the compounds yielded the results shown in Table 2 below:

**Table 2.** Grammatical patterns of -ing adjectival compounds in P-ACTRES.

Grammatical pattern	Number of cases
N-V%ADJ	90
ADV-V%ADJ	81
ADJ-V%ADJ	18
Q-V%ADJ	5
PHR/CL-V%ADJ	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>195</b>

It can be seen that the great majority of cases fall into one of two grammatical patterns, either nouns followed by an -ing form with 46.15% of the total (*a **brehtaking** testimony*) or adverbs followed by an -ing form with 41.53% of cases (***hard-working** people*). These two categories account for nearly 90% of all the -ing adjectival compounds. The remaining groups are minor combinations such as adjectives + -ing forms with 9.23% of cases (*a **tall, fit-looking** man*), quantifiers followed by -ing forms with 2.56% of cases (*an **all-encompassing** worldview*) and one single case (0.51%) of a three-word combination where the last element is an -ing form: ***up-and-coming** artists*.

#### 4.1.2. -ed compounds

The case of -ed adjectival compounds is more complex and heterogeneous because the second element is not always of a verbal origin, but may be denominal or deadjectival, thus leading to a wider range of possible combinations. The full inventory found in the corpus is shown in Table 3:

**Table 3.** Grammatical patterns of -ed adjectival compounds in P-ACTRES.

Grammatical pattern	Number of cases
N-V%ADJ	274
ADJ-N%ADJ	239
ADV-V%ADJ	233
N-N%ADJ	131
Q-N%ADJ	30
ADJ-V%ADJ	24
PHR/CL-V%ADJ	11
V-N%ADJ	8
Q-V%ADJ	6
V-V%ADJ	2
N-ADJ%ADJ	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>959</b>

Table 3 shows that the second most frequent part-of-speech combination is one where the second element is derived not from a verb, but from a noun (24.9%): *fierce long-haired women, a light-hearted poem*). The most frequent combination found in the corpus was the one including a noun followed by a verb (28.5%): *Moslem-occupied Spain, a sun-baked afternoon*. The combination adverb + verb ranks third in frequency with 24.2% of instances: *a well-defined population, a fully-grown dragon*. These three combinations account for 75% of the total of -ed adjectival compounds found in our corpus. Another relatively common pattern is the combination of two nouns (13.6%): *dog-eared menus, unidentified rubber-leaved plants*. All the other categories occur in only 3% or less of cases, including quantifier + noun (*a many-gabled Edwardian pile, a five-pointed star*), adjective + verb (*a french-fried potato; a tiny, wrinkled, new-born bird*), phrasal or clausal constructions (*Johnny passed me a your-young-friend-is-a-bit-pissed look*), verb + noun (*cross-legged*), quantifier + verb (*half-closed eyes*), verb + verb (*charged-hydrated soft tissues*) and noun + adjective (*maybe he just hops bollock-naked into his flash car*).

## 4.2. Interlinguistic analysis

We have divided this section into three parts for each of the two different types of compounds (-ing and -ed adjectival compounds): a) the list of translation techniques found in the corpus; b) the translational options or Spanish formal resources employed in each technique, and c) the lexical selections reflecting the semantic content of each of the two lexemes in the English compounds.

### 4.2.1. -ing compounds

Table 4 shows the distribution of the 195 cases of translations of -ing adjectival compounds found in the P-ACTRES corpus according to the different translation techniques. It can be seen that transposition (into PPs, NPs, VPs and relative clauses (*potentially **life-saving** choices > decisiones **que** potencialmente **pueden salvarles la vida***) and functional translation (mainly single adjectives with a few cases of adjective phrases and past participle clauses (*a **breathtaking** testimony > un **imponente** testimonio*) are the two most frequently employed techniques by Spanish translators, with 48.7% and 37.4%, respectively.

**Table 4.** Translation techniques found in P-ACTRES for -ing adjectival compounds.

TRANSLATION TECHNIQUES	NUMBER OF CASES
Transposition	95
Functional translation	73
Omission	11
Literal translation	8
Modulation	4
Shift in meaning	3
Elision	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>195</b>

As for the options found in Spanish to translate -ing compound adjectives from English, probably the most striking fact is that only 4 cases out of 195 (accounting for merely 2.05% of all cases) corresponded to compound adjectives in Spanish. This indicates very clearly that com-

ound adjectives are not a common grammatical resource in Spanish, but other resources seem to be much more idiomatic and used more often in the corresponding translations. Figure 1 summarizes the results for the three main patterns of -ing compounds and shows the trends in the translations:

Figure 1: Spanish translations of -ing adjectival compounds

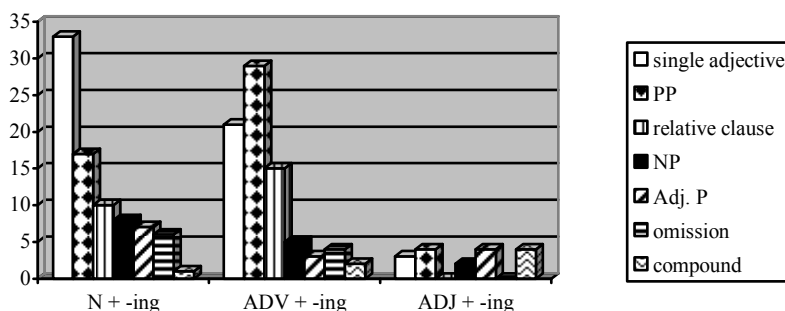


Figure 1 shows that there is a wide range of translational options available in Spanish for one single resource in English such as the -ing adjectival compound. Compounds are compact ways of packaging a lot of information into one single lexical item that often requires several words when expressed in another language. In the case of the three most common grammatical patterns (N + -ing, ADV + -ing, ADJ + -ing), it may be noted that each one presents its own specific distribution of translational options in Spanish.

The trend shows that the combination made up of nouns followed by -ing forms are mostly translated by single adjectives in Spanish, mainly adjectives that do not relate back to any of the two items in English but comprise the meaning of the two in a different lexical item (2 to 1): *heartbreaking stories* > *historias desgarradoras*, an *earthshattering decision* > *una decisión trascendental*. This translation strategy is also found in the other two groups shown in figure 1, although its frequency is not so salient as in the case of noun plus -ing. The transposition of the English adjectival compound into a PP headed by a variety of different prepositions, in particular the preposition *de*, is the second most frequent option for combinations including nouns (*the English-speaking world* > *el mundo de habla inglesa*).

The compounds formed by adverbs + -ing are mostly translated by means of PPs in Spanish, headed mainly by the preposition *de*: *fast-growing colonizing species* > *especies colonizadoras de crecimiento rápido*. This choice in the translation is not surprising, since PPs are generally associated with adverbial functions. Relative clauses and single adjectives rank second and third, respectively, in the translation of these compounds: *the longest-running Bollywood film* > *la película de Bollywood que más tiempo se mantuvo en cartel*; *the fast-moving "multiple-passenger" lanes* > *los carriles rápidos para vehículos con múltiples pasajeros*. The main difference found between -ing compounds initialized by nouns and by adverbs is that, apparently, translators tend to associate the former more directly with single adjectives in Spanish, and the latter with PPs.

With respect to -ing compounds beginning with adjectives, the translational options found in the corpus are the same as the ones already present in the previous patterns, except for relative clauses, which are not used. However, this pattern is relatively infrequent and the low number of cases does not enable us to arrive at more consistent conclusions.

As far as the lexical selections are concerned, the majority of the resources employed in Spanish (110 cases out of 176) reflect the lexical information contained in the two constituents of the English compound in their translations, that is the option represented above as 1+1: *IBM's data-processing bureau* > *la oficina de procesamiento de datos*. The second most common selection (53 cases) was the representation 2 to 1, where one single lexeme in Spanish comprises the meanings of the two English lexemes: *eye-catching* > *irresistible*. There are a number of cases where the meaning of one of the lexemes is not present in the translation: seven cases where the second lexeme is omitted (1+0: *Barton's record-breaking dive* > *el récord de inmersión de Barton*), and six cases where it is the first element that is omitted (0+1: *the long-suffering Mundy* > *el sufrido Mundy*). The remaining 19 compounds were not tagged for the lexical selection because they were cases of modulation, omission, elision and shift in meaning.

#### 4.2.2. -ed compounds

English -ed adjectival compounds are a more heterogeneous and larger group. As can be seen in Table 5, unlike -ing compounds, function-

al translation (*a sharp-edged spar of wood > una **afilada** tabla de madera*) is here the most frequent technique employed (47%), followed by transposition (35.8%) (*a short-sleeved sweater > un suéter **de manga corta***). These two techniques account for over 80% of cases. Each of the remaining techniques identified accounts for 7% or less of the cases.

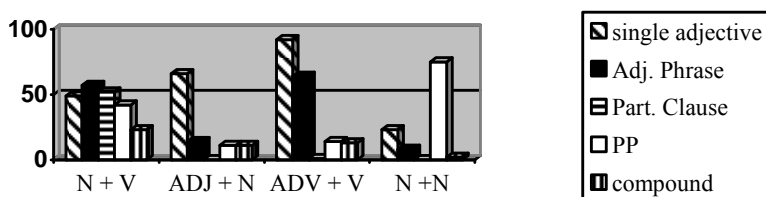
**Table 5.** Translation techniques found in P-ACTRES for -ed adjectival compounds.

<b>TRANSLATION TECHNIQUES</b>	<b>NUMBER OF CASES</b>
Functional translation	452
Transposition	344
Literal translation	71
Omission	43
Elision	25
Modulation	18
Shift in meaning	6
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>959</b>

Figure 2 below shows the most frequent translational options identified for -ed adjectival compounds in the Spanish translations of P-ACTRES. A quick look at the figure reveals that the noun + verb pattern presents a wide range of common translational options with similar frequency rates: AdjPs, participle clauses, single adjectives and PPs. In contrast, the other three major patterns show a clear preference for one or two of these resources: single adjective for the pattern adjective + noun, single adjective and AdjP for the pattern adverb + verb, and PP for the pattern noun + noun.



Figure 2: Central translational options of -ed adjectival compounds

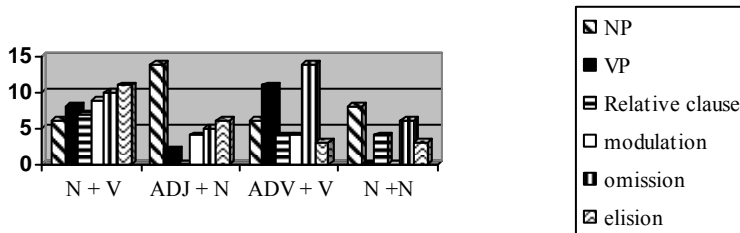


It can be seen that compounding is not a particularly productive resource in Spanish for translating English compounds. Where they are most used is in translating the pattern noun + verb with 8.3% of cases (*a self-propelled multi-wheeled transporter* > *un transporte autopropulsado multieje*). By far the preferred option seems to be the single adjective in Spanish, especially in the case of compounds formed by adverb + verb with 39.4% of cases of the pattern (*far-fetched* > *inverosímil*) and adjective + noun with 27.6% of cases in this pattern (*a dim-witted child* > *un niño tonto*). Adjective phrases are especially common for translating noun + verb compounds with 20.8% of cases (*Agger's self-satisfied tone* > *El tono satisfecho consigo mismo de Agger*) and adverb + verb compounds with 27.4% of cases (*the well-dressed couple* > *la pareja elegantemente vestida*). The pattern formed by noun + noun indicates a clear trend towards the use of PPs in Spanish translations with 57.2% of the total translations: *tin-roofed wooden huts* > *cabañas de madera con techos de hojalata*. Finally, the use of participle clauses in Spanish appears to be restricted to translating the pattern noun + verb (19.9% of the total) and is almost non-existent in the other patterns. Participle clauses are actually the second most frequent option in the noun + verb pattern: *NIH-funded research* > *proyectos financiados por el NIH*.

Figure 3 illustrates the number of cases of all the other translational options found in the corpus for -ed adjectival compounds but which are less common than the ones described above. The pattern noun + verb again shows the most even distribution among a large range of grammatical resources, all of which have similar frequencies. The first two resources involve the omission and elision of the compound, and the third option is modulation (3.2%): *a landlocked coun-*

try > *un país sin salida al mar*. The pattern adjective + noun is translated by a NP in Spanish in 14 cases (5.8% of the total): *hot-tempered* > *temperamento ardiente*. Omission accounts for 6% and VP for 4.7% of cases in the adverb + verb pattern: *our so-called leaders* > *nuestros Ø dirigentes*; *the principal problems have to do with deep-seated impediments* > *los principales problemas están profundamente arraigados*. Finally, compounds formed by noun + noun present a few cases of NPs, omission, relative clauses and elision. An example of the translation into a relative clause (3%) is: *goblet-shaped* > *que tienen forma de copa*.

Figure 3: Peripheral translational options of -ed adjectival compounds



As far as the lexical selections are concerned, these were present in a total of 867 cases of the translations of -ed compounds, out of the total 959 cases of -ed compounds. By far the most frequent selection was again 1+1 (reflecting the lexical information contained in the two constituents of the English compound), 532 cases, which corresponds to 61.3% of the total: *short-sleeved* > *de manga corta*. Next comes the merging of the lexical information into one single lexical item in Spanish, mostly a single adjective, 18.1% of the total: *light-headed* > *mareado*. The third most common lexical selection involves the omission of the second lexical component in English (1 + 0), 12.3% of the total: *sharp-edged* > *afilada*. Finally, the least employed selection seems to be the omission of the semantic content of the first element of the English compound (0+1), with 8.1% of the total: *so-called* > *denominadas*.

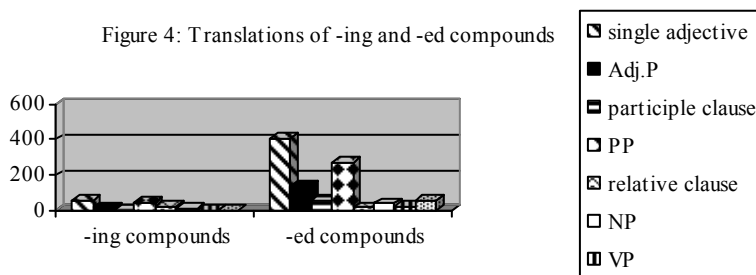
## 5. Results and discussion

After this analysis, we will now proceed to the general comparison of the data corresponding to the -ed compounds and the -ing compounds. As regards the translation techniques employed, the data show that functional translation and transposition occur more often than the other techniques in both -ing and -ed compounds but their order is reversed: -ing compounds appear to be translated more frequently by transposition, whereas -ed compounds are more often translated into adjectival categories. Consequently, Spanish translators seem to associate -ed compounds with adjectival categories more readily than -ing compounds.

With respect to the translational options identified, a wide range of possibilities exists but compounds are not among the most common resources available in Spanish in either of the two types of English compounds; however, the data show that Spanish translators are more prone to use them for the translation of -ed compounds rather than -ing compounds. The great majority of the occurrences found in the Spanish translations are not hyphenated (over 90%) and they exemplify all the categories described in Val Álvaro (1999): ADJ-ADJ%ADJ (*cargados-hidratados*), N-ADJ%ADJ either with a linking vowel in between the two constituents and no hyphen: *pelirrojo* (from *pelo rojo*), or without a linking vowel: *autodidacta*. This author includes compounds where the first element is an adverb and the second element is a past participle in the group of verbal compounds, not adjectival compounds. However, there were three cases in our corpus of this type of compound with clear adjectival functions and for which no infinitive verb form exists in Spanish - *bienintencionado* - \**bienintencionar*, *malhablada* - \**malhablar*. In similar cases, the infinitive seems to have been derived from the adjectival compound, e.g. *malograda* > *malograr*. This can be explained in terms of back-formation.

As can be seen in Figure 4, the number of -ed adjectival compounds is far larger than that of -ing compounds. Both types tend to be translated by means of single adjectives or PPs mainly as these resources rank first and second in the two groups. As for the third most frequent translational option, we find relative clauses in the case of -ing compounds and adjective phrases in the case of -ed compounds. Another interesting piece of evidence is the fact that participle clauses

appear as a significant resource only in the case of -ed compounds. This result is not surprising since the -ed form of compounds prompts the use of participle clauses whereas -ing compounds do not have the same effect.



The third stage of this comparison between -ing and -ed compounds involves the classification of the instances according to the lexical selection of the translations with respect to the two elements of the English compound. Depending on which semantic content of the source element was maintained, four categories have been established. In both types of compounds the predominant pattern (slightly over 60% of the total) was 1+1, i.e., the lexical content of the two English constituents was maintained explicitly in the Spanish translation. The distribution of the other lexical selections varies somewhat between the two groups. Merging (2 to 1, i.e., one single lexical item in Spanish for representing both elements of the English compound) is the second most frequent option, but with very different percentages of occurrence: 30% in -ing compounds versus 18% in -ed compounds. The last two categories correspond to patterns where the lexical meaning of one of the constituents in the English compound is not made explicit in the Spanish translation: 1+0 and 0+1. This partial omission is completely justifiable on the grounds of redundancy avoidance and/or idiomaticity in Spanish. For example: *their well-deserved ease* is translated into *su merecido descanso* omitting the lexical content of ‘well’, so we have a case of 0+1, which is totally natural in Spanish and implicitly conveys the meaning left out. Similarly, there are examples where it is the second and not the first element that is omitted (1+0): *space-based surveillance* > *vigilancia espacial*.

**Table 6.** Lexical selections for -ing and -ed compounds in P-ACTRES.

<b>Lexical selection</b>	<b>-ing compounds</b>		<b>-ed compounds</b>	
1+1	110	62.5%	532	61.3%
2 to 1	53	30.1%	157	18.1%
1+0	7	3.9%	107	12.3%
0+1	6	3.4%	71	8.1%
<b>Total</b>	<b>176</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>867</b>	<b>100%</b>

This descriptive analysis has shown the manifold perspectives of a highly productive grammatical resource in English, -ing and -ed adjectival compounds, and the way Spanish translators tackle this issue and search for accurate and acceptable solutions in the target language.

## 6. Conclusions

In this paper we have presented a detailed analysis of the translations into Spanish of English adjectival compounds where the second element is either an -ing form or an -ed form. The empirical data for the study (1,154 cases of compounds and their translations) have all been extracted from the P-ACTRES corpus of contemporary English texts and their Spanish translations. The aim of the study was to identify and analyse the inventory of translational options available in Spanish to translate this typical grammatical structure in English.

The actual description is divided into two parts: an intralinguistic study of the English compounds divides them into groups according to the grammatical nature of their constituents; secondly, an interlinguistic analysis has focused on the translations into Spanish. With respect to the translations, the analysis has been three-fold: a) the translation techniques employed - the most frequent ones being transposition into other grammatical categories and functional translation into an adjectival category in the TL; b) the translational options found – the most common of which were single adjectives and PPs in Spanish, and c) the lexical selections – the most important being 1+1,

i.e. the maintenance in Spanish of the lexical content of the two elements in the English compound.

The study has revealed not too many significant differences between -ing and -ed compounds with respect to the translational behaviour affecting each type; however the differences found between the patterns within each group are indeed highly significant and justify the need for the previous intralinguistic analysis, namely the classification of the constituents of the compound according to their parts of speech. In other words, no significant trends in the translations have been discovered between -ing and -ed compounds as a whole, but clear trends appear when it comes to analysing the different patterns in each group, e.g. N-V%ADJ compounds when ending in -ing tend to be translated by single adjectives, whereas when they end in -ed, adjective phrases, participle clauses and single adjectives occur with almost equal frequency. On the other hand ADV-N%ADJ compounds ending in -ing are mostly translated by PPs whereas when they end in -ed, the preference seems to be for single adjectives and adjective phrases.

The results of this descriptive analysis contribute to a better understanding of English compounding in general and the Spanish translation of English compounds in particular. The large number of details concerning adjectival compounds identified in this study, especially with respect to their translations, is useful in raising the awareness of future translators when they encounter these compounds in their texts. Consequently these data are applicable in cross-linguistic studies, including Teaching English as a Foreign Language and translator training.

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