ON COMPOUNDING: A DESCRIPTIVE ENGLISH-SPANISH CONTRASTIVE CORPUS-BASED ANALYSIS

LA COMPOSICIÓN: UN ANÁLISIS DESCRIPTIVO DE CORPUS INGLÉS–ESPAÑOL

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ABSTRACT

Compounding is a well-known word-formation process that consists of creating new words, like *private detective* and *sociedad cooperativa*, made up of at least two bases that already exist in the language, which may vary in their morphological structures. Since English and Spanish compound words differ in several syntactico-semantic aspects, the main objective of my work is to bring their similarities and differences to light by carrying out a contrastive analysis on a corpus of fifty English and fifty Spanish compounds consisting of just two morphologically simple bases, like *houseboat* and *obra maestra*, for instance, which have been personally compiled from different online media sources. After comparing and contrasting the syntactico-semantic behaviour of the English and Spanish compounds in my corpus, they will be looked up in two lexicographical sources —the *Collins English-Spanish Dictionary* and the *Spanish-English Larousse Dictionary*—so as to study their equivalence in the other language. Here, the diverse translational strategies used both in English and Spanish to encode the meaning compounds entail in the other language, when no compound word is available in them, will be examined to prove that, due to the Germanic and Romanic linguistic origin of English and Spanish, respectively, compounding is a more productive word-formation process in the former language than in the latter.

KEYWORDS

Word-formation processes; compounding; corpus-analysis.

RESUMEN

La composición es un proceso de formación de palabras que consiste en crear una nueva palabra, como *private detective* and *sociedad cooperativa*, mediante la unión de al menos dos bases con una estructura morfológica interna muy variada que ya existen en la lengua. Dado que las palabras compuestas inglesas y españolas difieren en varios aspectos sintáctico-semánticos, el objetivo principal de mi trabajo es exponer sus diferencias y semejanzas mediante el análisis de un corpus de 50 compuestos ingleses y 50 españoles creados a partir sólo de dos bases morfológicamente simples, como, por ejemplo, *houseboat* and *obra maestra*, compilados personalmente de diferentes medios de comunicación en-línea. Tras comparar y contrastar el comportamiento sintáctico-semántico de los compuestos ingleses y españoles que conforman mi corpus de ejemplos, los estudiaré en dos fuentes lexicográficas concretas —el *Diccionario Collins*

Inglés-Español y el *Diccionario Larousse Español-Inglés*— para poder analizar su equivalencia en la otra lengua. En este punto, se examinarán las diversas estrategias de traducción que se emplean en inglés y en español para codificar el significado que los compuestos denotan en la otra lengua, cuando en ella no existe una palabra compuesta para ello, con objeto de demostrar que, debido al origen lingüístico germánico y romance de las lenguas inglesa y española, respectivamente, la composición es un proceso de formación de palabras más productivo en inglés que en español.

PALABRAS CLAVE

Procesos de formación de palabras; composición; análisis de corpus.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The present work focuses on compounding, a word-formation process used both in English and Spanish which, as stated in Katamba (1993), among others, consists of combining two bases that already exist in the language to create a new lexical item. As can be seen in the following series of examples, the inner structure of compounds can be morphologically very varied in these two languages:

(1) Mailman → mail + man
(2) Bocacalle → boca + calle
(3) Socio-cultural → socio+ cultur-al
(4) Altibajo → alti + bajo
(5) Goalkeeper → goal + keep-er
(6) Abrelatas → abre + lata-s

Either they fuse together two or more simple bases, which may or may not be words in their own right, (1-4), or they join words that are themselves morphologically complex, having been previously created by some other word-formation process, (5-6).

I have selected this topic for my work for two main reasons: first, because it is a very attractive and creative word-formation process which offers the native speakers of English and Spanish many possibilities to form new words in the language, as shown in the previous series of examples; and second, because its frequency of occurrence and some of its syntactico-semantic properties are so different in the two languages at issue that compounding in English constitutes a very problematic grammatical area for the Spanish speaker of English.

For the aforementioned reasons, I pursue the following two general objectives in my work: first, to analyse the main differences and similarities between English and Spanish compounds, to proceed, in the second place, with the study of the alternative means that English and Spanish offer to encode the meaning which compounds have in the other language when they, as seen in (7a-7b) and (8a-8b), do not have any equivalent compound word:

(7a) Bloodline (7b) Linaje

(8a) Médico forense (8b) Coroner

In order to get these two aims, I will present in the first part of my work a review of the literature on English and Spanish compounds that will allow me, on the one hand, to identify, recognise and define them on the basis of their distinguishing features, and on the other, to highlight the most significant similarities and differences between them; and in the second part, of a more practical nature, I will present the most relevant findings derived, on the one hand, from the English-Spanish analysis that I have carried out on a corpus of 100 compounds (50 English compounds and 50 Spanish ones, detailed, respectively, in the two appendices that close my work), which I myself have compiled from different online media sources —mainly, newspapers and magazines—, and on the other, from the contrastive lexicographical analysis of them I have developed on the basis of the two following bilingual dictionaries: (i) the *English-Spanish Collins Dictionary*, where I have examined the Spanish equivalents of the English compounds in my corpus; (ii) and the *English-Spanish Larousse Dictionary*, which I have used to study the English counterparts of the Spanish compounds in my corpus.

My work is, thus, structured as follows: apart from this introductory section (section one), where the topic of my work, its objectives and the methodology that I have used to achieve them is explained, it contains a theoretical section (section two) that offers a review of the literature on English and Spanish compounds, a section devoted to describe the methodology and the results of the corpus-based analysis I have carried out (section three), a concluding section which highlights the most important issues dealt with in my study (section 4), the list of the references which I have used throughout the development and elaboration of my work (section five) and, finally, two closing appendices which offer a detailed list of the compound words that make up my corpus (Appendix I. English compounds and Appendix II. Spanish compounds).

Specifically, section two is divided in three parts: in the first one, after a very brief and general introduction that defines the word-formation process at issue in English and Spanish, a section exclusively devoted to the study of English compounds follows. In it English compounds are classified according to their (non)headedness, first, and afterwards, according to their lexical category. The first division will account for the differences among endocentric, exocentric and copulative compounds (cf. Katamba, 1993); and the second one, in turn, for the structural and syntactico-semantic

distinction among nominal, adjectival, verbal compounds and those ones containing a particle as one of their components (cf. Jespersen, 1949; Lees, 1960; Adams, 1973; Katamba, 1994). This section will end with a review of the main problems which the identification and recognition of English compounds entail (cf. Sapir, 1921; Bloomfield, 1933; Hatcher, 1951; Marchand, 1969; Adams, 1973; Bauer, 1983; Katamba, 1993): mainly, their graphic form, their syntactico-semantic similarities and differences with phrases which have exactly the same form as them, the problems associated with their presence in the lexicon, and finally, their distinction from other word-formation processes—mainly, reduplication, neo-classical compounds, and blending— which are usually considered in the literature to be borderline cases with compounding. The third and final section in the theoretical part of my work is devoted, in turn, to the study of compounding in Spanish. My starting point here will be the distinction between syntagmatic and orthographic compounds pointed out by Alvar Ezquerra (1993), to continue with a review of the different linguistic processes by means of which Spanish compounds are said to be formed: mainly, 'sinapsia', 'disyunción', 'contraposición' and 'aglutinación' (cf. Alvar Ezquerra, 1993; Hernando Cuadrado, 1996).

And finally, as stated before, the third section of my work, of a more practical nature, presents the major findings obtained in the English-Spanish contrastive analysis I have carried out on a corpus of 100 English and Spanish compounds, compiled by myself from different newspapers and magazines. The compounds in my corpus only consist of two morphologically independent simple bases, thus excluding: (i) those ones that, like *washing machine* and *malhumorado*, for instance, have a morphologically derived word as one or both of their components; (ii) the English compounds usually labelled as neoclassical compounds of the type of *biography* and *hydroelectricity*; (iii) and finally, the Spanish ones that, created by the process known as 'sinapsia', like *luna de miel*, *obra de arte* and *fin de semana*, among others, make use of a preposition to link their components. This section analyses, on the one hand, the productivity, the external form and structure, as well as the internal organization, which English and Spanish compounds exhibit so as to highlight the main similarities and differences that exist between them, and on the other, the diverse translational strategies used in English and Spanish to encode the meaning entailed by the compounds in the other language, when there is no equivalent compound available in them.

II. ON COMPOUNDING IN ENGLISH AND SPANISH

1. Definition of compounds:

Compounding is a well-known word-formation process that, as stated in Katamba (1993: 291), among others, consists of creating a new word from at least two lexical bases that already exist in the language. As can be seen in the following series of examples, the inner structure of English and Spanish compounds can be very varied since in both languages compounds can be created by combining two or more simple bases, which may or may not be words in their own right, (9-12), or by joining together words that are themselves morphologically complex, having been previously created by some other word-formation process, (13-14):

(9) Policeman → police + man (10) Perropolicía → perro + policía

(11) Socio-economic → social + economic (12) Pelirrojo → pelo + rojo

(13) Book-seller → book + sell-er (14) Comelibros → come + libro-s

Notice that in (9-10), for example, the two members in the compound are simple free bases which, as such, can stand in isolation as words; the compounds in (11-12), however, have as their first component —*socio* and *peli*— a base that is bound since it cannot stand on its own as a word in the language; and finally, the compounds in (13-14) contain as their second component a word that is morphologically complex; both *seller* and *libros* are clear examples of the word-formation process known as affixation, which consists of attaching an affix to the base; in these cases the derivational agentive *–er* suffix to the English base *sell* and the inflectional plural *–s* suffix to the Spanish base *libro*.

2. Classification of English compounds:

English compounds are normally classified in the literature on the basis of the two following criteria: (i) their (non)-headedness; (ii) and, in case they have a head, their lexical category.

2.1. Headed and non-headed compounds: endocentric, exocentric and copulative compounds[1]

Depending on the presence or absence in them of a syntactico-semantic head, three kinds of compound words are usually distinguished in English (cf. Katamba, 1993): (i) endocentric; (ii) exocentric; and (iii) copulative compounds. Endocentric compounds of the type illustrated in (15-20) are those ones that contain a syntactico-semantic head which, due to the right-hand head (RHR) rule captured by Williams (1981: 248), appears generally as their second component:

(15) Bulldogs	(16) Easy chairs	(17) Bird watcher
(18) Over react	(19) Blue black	(20) Near-sighted

According to Katamba (1993: 304), one of the most interesting syntactic properties of English endocentric compounds is that they are subject to the property known as percolation, which states that the syntactic properties of the compound head —among others, their capacity to be somehow modified, to be pluralised if nominal, to show tense and agreement if verbal, etc.—are, as can be seen in the previous series of examples, inherited by the entire compound. From a semantic point of view, this component is also considered to be the head of the compound since its meaning refers somehow to the entity that this constituent denotes when used in isolation (cf. Katamba, 1994: 73). Specifically, the whole compound denotes one particular kind of the entity denoted by the head; namely, the one described through modification by the left element in these headed endocentric compounds. Taking into account the previous examples, it should be noticed, for instance, that a *bulldog* is a kind of dog; an *easy chair* is a kind of chair; a *bird watcher* is a person who observes wild birds; *to over react* means to react excessively; *blue black* makes reference to a very dark blue colour; and *near-sighted* denotes a quality that is ascribed to a person who is able to see things which are near more clearly than those that are at a distance.

Apart from endocentric compounds, in English there are many headless compounds, labelled exocentric, which, as illustrated in (21-23), do not have any

[1]The notion of headedness plays a key role in the work of generative morphologists like Williams (1981), Di Sciullo and Williams (1987) and Selkirk (1982), among others.

element functioning as their semantic head. Notice here that they do not refer to any kind of entity referred to by the head when outside the compound (cf. Katamba, 1993: 319). Therefore, a *greenhouse* in (21), for example, is not any kind of house, but a building used for growing plants with a roof and sides made of glass; *lazy-bones* in (22) does not refer to any set of bones, but to a person who is lazy; and finally, *blue-nose* in (23) does not denote any kind of nose, but a person who promotes a demanding moral code. For this reason, Katamba (1993: 320) remarks that exocentric compounds, in opposition to endocentric ones, whose meaning is said to be transparent, have an opaque meaning:

(21) Greenhouse (22) Lazy-bones (23) Blue-nose

The third type of compounds in English are called copulative compounds. Contrary to the two previous types, copulative compounds contain two conjoined heads, which are on the same semantic level and whose meaning is maintained in the global meaning of the compound, which, as a consequence, is described as transparent (cf. Katamba, 1993: 321). Notice here, for example, that a *girlfriend* in (24) makes reference to a female friend; *bittersweet* in (25) denotes that flavour that is at the same time both bitter and sweet; and *north-west* in (26) points out to the direction that is between the north and the west:

(24) Girlfriend (25) Bittersweet (26) North-west

2.2. Structural classification of English compounds:

Apart from the previous classification, English compounds are also usually classified in the literature according to the lexical category of their heads, which is inherited by the entire compound (cf. Jespersen, 1949; Lees, 1960; Adams, 1973; Katamba, 1994). Therefore, nominal, (27), adjectival, (28), verbal, (29), compounds, together with compounds containing a particle, (30), are generally distinguished:

(27) Bus stop (28) Green-eyed (29) Babysit (30) Overnight

2.2.1. Nominal compounds:

In English, the majority of compounds are said to be nouns which, as illustrated in the following examples, usually contain either an adjective, (31-33), or a noun, (34-36), as their first component and, obviously, a noun as their second member (cf. Katamba, 1994):

(31) Red tape (32) Easy chair (33) Blueprint

(34) Bathroom (35) Housewife (36) Fire-fighter

Since they make up a big and heterogeneous class, Jespersen (1949) classifies English nominal compounds from a semantic point of view, establishing five different general semantic categories —place, (37), time, (38), purpose, (39), instrument, (40), and resemblance, (41)—, on the basis of the meaning which the modifier component of the compound, generally located on its left, denotes:

(37) Garden party → "a party that takes place outside, in the garden"

(38) Night train → "a train which travels at night"

(39) Keyhole → "the hole in a lock where you insert a key"

(40) Handwriting → "to write with a pen or a pencil"

(41) Needle-fish → "a fish with needle-like teeth"

Jespersen (1949) acknowledges, however, on the one hand, that there are some nominal compounds of the type of *sunflower* in (42) which do not fit into any of these categories and, on the other, that some of them, like, for example, *car-ride* in (43), are highly ambiguous because they can entail more than one semantic interpretation; as can be deduced from the paraphrases given in both examples, it should be noticed that the semantic relationship established between the two members of the compound *sunflower* is one that denotes possession and that the ambiguity of *car-ride* comes from the fact that, without any context given, this nominal compound can be interpreted as entailing both a locative and an instrumental reading:

(42) Sunflower → a yellow flower with many long, narrow petals close together

(43) Car-ride → (i) to ride in a car;

→ (ii) to ride by means of a car.

Despite acknowledging that any classification of nominal compounds is going to be unsatisfactory (cf. Lees, 1960: 123-4) due the different interpretations that they may receive, Lees (1960) tries to improve Jespersen's classification with a syntactico-semantic categorization of English nominal compounds that distinguishes the following classes: subject-verb, verb-object, appositional, associative, instrumental, locative, resemblance, composition/form/content, adjective-noun and name compounds. Though they may present very varied forms, as illustrated in the following series of examples,

subject-verb compounds are defined, in general terms, as those ones that contain a nominal element functioning as the agentive subject of the action denoted by the verbal component in the compound:

(44) Bus stop → "the place where a bus stops"

(45) Blood pressure → "the measure of the pressure at which the blood flows through the body"

(46) Linking verb → "a verb that connects an entity with its qualities"

(47) Hangman → "a person who hangs criminals from a rope by their necks"

(48) Car mechanic → "a person whose job is repairing and maintaining cars"

As can be seen in the previous examples, the verb in this kind of compounds can occupy both the initial, (46-47), and the final, (44-45), position in the compound and presents a wide array of forms; it can be just the base of a verb, without any inflectional suffix attached to it, like *stop* and *hang*, respectively, in (44) and (47); a verbal nominalization of the type of *pressure* in (45), and, finally, an *–ing* verbal form such as *linking* in (46). Apart from these different forms, there are some subject-verb compounds of the type of *car mechanic* in (48) in which the relationship that holds between their two members is not agentive, due to the lack in them of an explicit dynamic verbal element denoting a particular action, but attributive since the verb *be* is somehow latent, and consequently understood, in them. Thus, they describe one element of the compound in terms of the other one; in this specific example, the job, that of repairing and maintaining cars, of a person.

Verb-object compounds are, in turn, defined as those ones that contain a nominal element functioning as the object of the action denoted by the other verbal element in the compound. As with subject-verb compounds, the verb in these compounds can also appear on the left, (49-50), and the right, (51-53), of the new lexical item and in many diverse forms. As illustrated in the following examples, it can be an *–ing* verbal form of the type of *chewing* and *making* in (49) and (51), respectively; the base form of a verb without any inflectional suffix attached to it, like *flash* in (50); a deverbal noun that ends in the derivational agentive *–er* suffix, like *maker* in (52); and, finally, any other type of verbal nominalization like, for instance, *slaughter* in (53):

(49) Chewing-gum → "a sweet that you chew, without swallowing, to get its flavour"

(50) Flashlight → "small light that usually gets its power from batteries and flashes"

(51) Hay-making → "the act of cutting grass and cutting it for hay"

(52) Shoe-maker → "a person or company that makes shoes"

(53) Manslaughter → "the crime of killing a person unintentionally"

In appositional compounds, however, the relationship that holds between the constituents in the compound, which are usually nominal, is to be considered coordinative since, as seen in the examples that follow, they combine the meaning of both components. Semantically quite varied, this coordinative relationship can indicate that the second member in the compound acts or functions as the first one, (54); that the first element in the compound is a particular instance of what the second element denotes, (55); and that the second element directly makes reference to the first one, (56):

(54) Houseboat → "a boat that acts as someone's house"

(55) Death penalty → "a punishment of which death is an important aspect"

(56) Killer shark → "the shark is a killer"

Associative compounds are described in Lees (1960) as those ones that cover any of the three following semantic relationships: (i) 'B is part of A', (57); (ii) 'B belongs to A', (58); (iii) and, 'B is typically associated with A', (59):

(57) Lambs wool → "the wool that is part of a sheep"

(58) Crow's nest → "a nest belongs to a crow"

(59) Devil's advocate → "an advocate who is normally associated with the devil"

As their name indicates, instrumental compounds comprise, in turn, those which contain as one of their constituents the instrument or cause involved in the action that their other member, a verb, denotes. As it happens with subject-verb and object-verb compounds, in instrumental compounds the verb, formally very varied, can occupy both positions in the compound. Notice that in (60-61), for instance, it is located on the left, whereas in (62-63) it is placed on the right:

(60) Burning glass → "lens used to produce heat by focusing sun's rays"

(61) Guide book → "a book of information for travellers"

(62) Action painting → "a style of painting"

(63) Fingerprint → "the mark made by pressing the tip of a finger on a surface"

Apart from the form which it presents in the previous examples — an *–ing* like *burning* and *painting* in (60) and (62), respectively, or the base of the verb without any inflectional affix like *guide* and *print* in (61) and (63)—, the verbal component in instrumental compounds can also be a nominalisation of the type of *treatment* in (64) and *pleasur*e in (65):

(64) Heat treatment → "a process in which metal is heated to alter its internal structure"

(65) Pleasure boat → "a motorboat that has all the conveniences for living there"

There are, however, some instrumental compounds, like *safety belt* and *water clock*, for example, in (66-67), which do not contain any explicit verbal component, since the verb *use* is understood in them, and are built around two nominal constituents:

(66) Safety belt → "a strap attached to a seat in a car or aeroplane used to prevent someone from getting injured"

(67) Water clock → "an instrument used to measure time by the flow of water"

Locative compounds denote, by means of a noun, the place in which the verbal action indicated by the other member in the compound occurs. As illustrated in the following series of examples, the inner structure of locative compounds is very similar to that of instrumental compounds: (i) a combination of a verb ending in *–ing* and a locative-noun, (68-69); (ii) the uninflected form a verb either preceding or following the locative noun, (70-71); (iii) a verbal nominalisation together with a noun, (72); (iv) and finally, the juxtaposition of a locative noun to another nominal component that can be either a deverbal noun ending in the derivational agentive *–er* suffix, (73), or a noun which, not presenting any distinguishing features, is difficult to classify, (74-75):

(68) Drawing paper → "a paper prepared for the use of drawers"

(69) Shop-lifting → "the act of taking goods from a shop without paying for them"

(70) Checkpoint → "a place where travellers are stopped for inspection"

(71) Bookmark → "a ribbon placed in a book to mark a page"

(72) Birth-place → "the place where a person was born"

(73) School-teacher → "a teacher in a school"

(74) Tea-room → "a small restaurant that serves light meals"

(75) Headline → "the title written over a story in a newspaper"

Resemblance compounds, usually formed by the combination of two nouns, are those which establish a connection between the two elements in the compound on the basis of some similarity relationship. Specifically, the second member of the compound is described in terms either of the form, some distinguishing features, some possession or the behaviour of the component located on the left of the compound. Thus, they can be paraphrased as follows: (i) 'B has the form of A', (76); (ii) 'B has some features that are characteristic of A', (77); (iii) 'B is like A's B', (78); (iv) and finally, 'B reminds of A', (79):

(76) Umbrella tree → "a tree whose leaves have the shape of an umbrella"

(77) Zebra crossing → "a path painted with stripes"

(78) Crocodile tears → "tears like crocodile's tears"

(79) Father-figure → "a figure admired like a father"

Composition, form, and content compounds make up a miscellaneous semantic class which comprises those nominal compounds in which the noun located on the right specifies the entity denoted by the noun placed on its left in terms of some concrete feature. As the following paraphrases show, the semantic relationships between both components are very diverse: (i) 'B consists of A', (80); (ii) 'B is made from A', (81); (iii) 'B has the form of A', (82); (iv) 'B has a distinguishing feature of A', (83); (v) and finally, 'B contains A', (84):

(80) Peanut butter → "butter made up of peanuts"

(81) Sand-castle → "a castle made from sand"

(82) Box camera → "a camera which has the form of a box"

(83) Fruit-cake → "a cake that is made up of fruit"

(84) Beer glass → "a glass that contains beer"

Adjective-noun compounds differ from all the abovementioned classes in that they contain an adjective that functions as a nominal premodifier as their first constituent. As illustrated below, the adjective in this particular class of nominal

compounds may be morphologically simple, like *small* in (85), or complex, having been derived, like *editorial* in (86), from a noun:

(85) Small talk → "a conversation about things that are not important"

(86) Editorial comment → "to express someone's opinion outside regular articles or stories"

Lees' (1960) classification of nominal compounds closes with the type he calls name compounds. As shown in (87), these ones differ from the other classes in that they have a nominal constituent on the left with a naming function:

(87) Pine tree → "a tree called pine"

2.2.2. Adjectival compounds:

English adjectival compounds also make up a very heterogeneous class from a structural point of view since, as seen in the following examples, the adjective from which the entire compound inherits its lexical category can appear, usually as the final constituent in the compound, in three different forms: (i) either as a past participle in combination with an initial noun, (88); (ii) as a present participle (*-ing* form) after an uninflected adjective, (89); (iii) and as a denominal *–ed* adjective also following an uninflected adjective, (90):

(88) Heartbroken (89) Good-looking (90) Soft-hearted

Due to their heterogeneity, English adjectival compounds can be classified, as stated in Adams (1973), into ten different syntactico-semantic categories: (i) adjunct-verb; (ii) subject-verb/complement; (iii) verb-object; (iv) appositional; (v) instrumental; (vi) locative; (vii) comparative; (viii) prepositional; (ix) derivational; (x) and, nominal attributive compound combinations. Adjunct-verb adjectival compounds are those ones that contain in their initial position an adverb which functions as an adjunct of the adjectival constituent that occupies the final position in the new lexical item and which, as shown in (91-93), can take three different forms:[2] (i) the uninflected form of the adjective, like *awake* in (91); (ii) the present participle form of a verb ending in the

[2]The term 'adjunct' refers to the semantic role ascribed to those adverbials, usually realised by adverb or prepositional phrases, which indicate the circumstances of an action or situation (cf. Adams, 1973; Katamba, 1993; Nordquist, 2016).

inflectional –*ing* suffix, like *suffering* in (92); (iii) and the past participle form of a verb, *dressed* in (93):

(91) Wide awake → "fully awake and unable to sleep"

(92) Long-suffering → "suffering for a long time without complaining"

(93) Well-dressed → "someone wearing attractive and stylish clothes"

Subject-verb/complement compounds contain, in turn, a noun as their left-hand constituent and an adjective as their right-hand component. As the paraphrases below show, the syntactico-semantic relationship between both constituents may be of two types: it can be described as agentive if, as in (94), the nominal constituent functions as the syntactic subject of the action denoted by the past participle form that the head in the compound adopts; or as illustrated in (95), if there is no action encoded, it has to be described as attributive; here the nominal constituent functions as the stative subject to which some property denoted by the final adjectival component in the sequence is ascribed:

(94) Man-made → "something produced or made by humans"

(95) Colour-fast → "a colour that will not change when washed or worn"

Verb-object compounds are, in turn, those that contain a nominal element on the left which functions as the object of the action denoted by the second element in the compound, which may take the following three forms: (i) that of an uninflected dynamic adjective, such as *destructive* in (96); (ii) that of a present participle, like *taking* in (97); (iii) and finally, that of a past participle of the type of *broken* in (98):

(96) Self-destructive → "someone who destroys oneself"

(97) Breath-taking → "something that leaves you breathless"

(98) Heart-broken → "something that makes people extremely sad"

Appositional adjectival compounds, like *bitter-sweet* in (99), which are not very frequent in English, present a coordinative relationship between the two adjectival elements in the compound. And instrumental and locative adjectival compounds are created by joining together a noun which denotes, respectively, either the instrument —*water* in (100)— or the place —*night* in (101)—by means of which or when the property denoted by the final adjectival component in the compound applies:

(99) Bitter-sweet → "tasting both bitter and sweet"

(100) Water-soluble → "a substance that can be dissolved using water"

(101) Night-blind → "the poor vision of the eyes at night"

Comparative compounds, in turn, exhibit a comparative relationship between the two constituents in the compound which describes the specific degree which the quality or property denoted by the gradable adjectival constituent that occupies the right-hand position presents. As can be seen in the following series of examples, the first constituent in the compound is going to be either nominal, (102-104), or an *–ing* present participle, (105):

(102) Crystal clear → "clear as crystal"

(103) Blood red → "red as blood"

(104) Life-long → "long as a person's life"

(105) Freezing cold → "cold enough to freeze"

The three final classes of adjectival compounds in Adams' (1973) classification are prepositional, derivational and nominal attributive compounds. The former comprise those compounds in which a preposition, though not formally present, is needed to link their two constituents, as shown in the paraphrase offered in (106). As their name indicates, derivational compounds are those ones that contain in final position a denominal adjective in *–ed*, of the type of *natured* in (107), premodified by an uninflected adjective. And finally, nominal attributive compounds are classified as adjectival compounds, despite the fact of having a noun, like *tale* in (108), as their head, because the most frequent syntactic function they have in English is that of nominal premodifiers, thus resembling attributive adjectives:[3]

(106) Accident-prone → "prone to accidents"

(107) Good-natured → "a pleasant face"

(108) Telltale → "a person who tells secrets"

2.2.3. Verbal compounds:

English verbal compounds are said to be created by means of three different morphological processes: (i) backformation from nominal or adjectival compounds,

[3]An attributive adjective is described in the literature as that one that generally comes before the noun it premodifies: *The **old** man went to the hospital*. A predicative adjective, in turn, is an adjective that follows a linking verb: *The man who went to the hospital is **old*** (cf. Adams, 1973; Katamba, 1993).

such as *chain-smoke* in (109), which, according to Adams (1973), probably derives from the nominal *chain-smoker*;[4] (ii) zero derivation from nominal compounds, like *snowball* in (110); (iii) and the linking together of two simple free bases, without any fixed lexical category, as illustrated in (111):

(109) Chain-smoke → "to smoke cigarettes one after another"

(110) Snowball → "to grow as fast as a snowball"

(111) Volume-expand → "to increase in volume"

Due to the three processes mentioned before, Marchand (1969: 100-107) considers verbal compounds to be "pseudo-compounds" since most of them come in the end from previous nominal or adjectival combinations, as previously stated (cf. Adams, 1973). As a consequence, due to their nominal or adjectival origin, verbal compounds are not subject to a similar syntactico-semantic classification as the nominal and adjectival sources they come from are.

2.2.4. Compounds containing particles:

As regards the English compounds that contain a particle, it should be pointed out, first of all, that the particles in them may appear both as their first, (112-115), and second, (116-119), constituent:

(112) Outhouse (113) Overcrowded (114) Outgrow (115) Upstairs

(116) Passer-by (117) Clued up (118) Build-up (119) Take away

As stated in Adams (1973), those compounds containing particles on the left are quite diverse in terms of their lexical category since, as illustrated before, they can be nouns, (112), adjectives, (113), verbs, (114), and even adverbs, (115). As expected, the nominal ones present a very varied inner structure in which the initial particle can combine with an uninflected and non-derived noun such as *life* in (120), a deverbal agentive noun that ends in the derivational *–er* suffix, like *onlooker* in (121), and a noun that has been created from a verb by means of the word-formation process known as

[4]Backformation is defined as the word-formation process that consists of forming a new word, for example, *edit*, by removing a part of the word that seems to be a morpheme (*-or*), but is not, from a word that already exists in the language (*editor*) (cf. Adams, 1973; Nordquist, 2017).

conversion or shifting, like, for instance, *look* in (122),[5]or by any other nominalization process, like *sight* from *see* in (123):

(120) After-life (121) Onlooker (122) Outlook (123) Foresight

The form that the adjective head exhibits in adjectival compounds with particles as their first component is also very varied. As shown below, it may be an uninflected and non-derived adjective, as *sensitive* in (124), a present or past participle, like *standing* and *mentioned*, respectively, in (125-126), and finally, an *–ed* denominal adjective of the type of *staffed* in (127):

(124) Oversensitive (125) Outstanding

(126) Above-mentioned (127) Understaffed

Finally, the initial particle in verbal compounds combines, as expected, with a verb that functions in them as the head, (128-129), and in adverb compounds, unexpectedly, however, with a noun, as seen in (130):

(128) Offset (129) Outface (130) Overseas

As regards the compounds which, in opposition to the previous ones, contain the particle on their right, it has to be noticed that the verbal ones are the most numerous in English since they include a huge number of English verbs; those known as prepositional and phrasal verbs (cf. Quirk *et al*., 1985; Huddleston and Pullum, 2002; Katamba, 1993). Apart from the different syntactic behaviour they show, both verbal classes also differ in their form:[6] whereas the particle in the former class is a preposition, like *about* and *after* in *complain about* and *look after* in (131-132), in the latter it is an adverb of the type of *away* and *down* in *throw away* and *break down* in (133-134):

(131) Complain about (132) Look after

(133) Throw away (134) Break down

[5]Conversion is defined as the word-formation process that assigns an existing word to a different lexical category. The most productive kind of conversion in English is from noun (*host*) to verb (*to host*) (cf. Adams, 1973; Bauer, 1983; Katamba, 1993).

[6]The main difference between phrasal and prepositional verbs is the position of objects. Phrasal verbs may take an object before or after the adverb; prepositional verbs, in turn, can only take an object after the preposition (cf. Quirk *et al*., 1985; Huddleston and Pullum, 2002).

Apart from the verbal kind, compounds with particles as their second constituent can also be, as remarked in Adams (1973), nominal and adjectival. As illustrated in the following series of examples, the noun in the first group can be, once again, morphologically very varied in its form; it can be a deverbal noun with the agentive derivational *–er* suffix, like *runner* in (135); an *–ing* present participle with a nominal function as *going* in (136); and a noun created from a verb by means of conversion, as *break* in (137):

(135) Runner-up (136) Going-over (137) Break-down

Although they are not quite productive in English, the adjectival compounds with a right-hand particle also exhibit some variety in their inner structure. Notice, in fact, that the particle can follow a past participle, like *cheesed off* in (138) and an adjective like *far* or *hard* in (139-140), respectively:

(138) Cheesed off (139) Far out (140) Hard up

2.3. Frequent problems in the identification of English compounds:

The first problem in the identification of compounds in English is their spelling since, as illustrated in the following series of examples, they can be spelt out as a single word where their components are completely fused together, (141), as separate words connected by a hyphen, (142), or just as different and separate words, (143):

(141) Breakfast (142) Ice-cream (143) Free trade

Although the spelling of compounds is said to be generally determined by the degree of unity that exists between their components, their written form, as pointed out in the literature (cf. Adams, 1973, among others), is not consistent throughout. Although, according to Adams (1973: 59), their spelling or graphic representation is "an unreliable criterion of compound status, since usage varies a good deal", there seems to be some correlation between the degree of closeness which the two elements in the compound exhibit in their written form and the pattern of accentuation the whole compound follows. Thus, compounds which are stressed on their second constituents are usually written as two independent bases, (144), whereas those which carry the stress on their first component tend to be written as one single word or a word with the bases hyphenated, (145-146):

(144) Helping hand [ˌhɛlpɪŋˈhænd]

(145) Sunburn [ˈsʌnˌbɜːn]

(146) Flea-bite [ˈfliːˌbaɪt]

In any case, the orthographic conventions postulated in the literature for the recognition of compounds are a poor guide to identify them in English.

The second problem frequently commented on in the literature on English compounds is how to differentiate them syntactico-semantically from formally equivalent phrases. According to Bloomfield (1933: 228), phonology is a reliable indicator to differentiate between them since, for him, accent subordination is the hallmark of compounds. This means that one of the components in the compound, generally the first one, receives main or primary stress, whereas the other, being relatively less prominent, gets secondary stress, as shown in (147a-148a). In the phrases formally similar to them, however, both words receive primary stress, as illustrated in (147b-148b). Thus, *White house* and *blackbird* as compounds refer to the official home of the US president and to a particular species of birds, whereas the phrases *white house* and *black bird*, denote any house that is painted white and any black bird irrespective of its species:

(147a) White House [ˈwaɪt ˌhaʊs] (147b) White house [ˈwaɪt ˈhaʊs]

(148a) Blackbird [ˈblækˌbɜːd] (148b) Black bird [ˈblæk ˈbɜːd]

Despite being a useful criterion indeed, Marchand (1969: 20) remarks that accentuation does not help to differentiate all the existent compounds in English from their equivalent phrases. He states, specifically, that the first kind of compounds which are difficult to be phonologically distinguished from phrases are those that, like (149-151), do not show accent reduction and cannot, be consequently, stressed. They comprise, in particular, those compound words which contain a syllable that is pronounced with a centralised vowel (schwa) or with certain other vocalic sound, which considered to be reduced,[7] cannot be stressed:

(149) Apple pie [ˈæplˈpaɪ]

(150) Man made [ˈmænˈmeɪd]

(151) Easy-going [ˌiːzɪˈgəʊɪŋ]

[7]Reduced vowels occur practically exclusively in unstressed syllables. They are weakened forms characterised by features such as shortness, laxness and central position (cf. Rogers, 2000).

Accentuation is also a poor guide to distinguish compounds which have an adjective as their first constituent from phrases identical to them in form because both sequences of words may be stressed alike, (152a-153a). Therefore, in order to determine the compound status of these problematic lexical items, Adams (1973: 57) proposes two syntactic tests to be applied to the adjectival element which occupies initial position: (i) premodification by an intensifier adverb; (ii) and its function as a predicative adjective in a sentence where the second element in the sequence of words would act as the syntactic subject. As can be seen in the following pair of examples, if the results obtained after applying both tests derive in an ungrammatical pattern, the sequence of words will be a compound; thus, whereas *wet day* in (152a) is a free phrase, *small talk* in (153a) is a compound:

(152a) Wet day	(153a) Small talk
(152b) A very wet day	(153b) *A very small talk
(152c) The day is wet	(153c) *The talk is small

The place that compounds should occupy in the lexicon of the language constitutes another difficulty in the recognition of English compounds. Many compound words do not need to be listed in the dictionary because, as endocentric and copulative compounds they are, they have transparent meanings. Particularly, we can know the meaning of the whole from the meaning of its parts, (154-155); however, exocentric compounds need to be listed in the lexicon due to their opaque meanings, (156). That is, they are not subject to compositionality, which, according to Katamba (1993), holds the key in this respect:

(154) Climate change → "changes in the world's weather"

(155) Sleepwalk → "to walk while asleep"

(156) Blockhead → "not a kind of head, but an idiot"

And finally, it should be noticed that compounding has been confused and intermingled with certain other word-formation processes in the literature (cf. Sapir, 1921; Bauer, 1983; Hatcher, 1951); namely, (i) reduplication; (ii) derivation; (iii) and blending. Sapir (1921: 76), for instance, observes, on the one hand, that the formation of some English compounds is in part motivated by phonology and consequently, on the other, that there is a tendency to create compounds in English by joining together words, pre-existing in the language, that rhyme, as illustrated in the following series of

examples. However, since the rhyme that holds in them is not the same in all the cases, Sapir (1921: 76) distinguishes two kinds of rhyming compounds in English: (i) rhyme motivated compounds, which maintain in the second constituent of the compound all the final vocalic and consonant sounds of the first one, thus having complete rhyme, (157-159); (ii) and ablaut motivated compounds, which have a change in the internal vowel of the second component of the compound, similar to the one that takes place in the word-formation process known as replacement or ablaut, (160-162):[8]

(157) Helter-skelter (158) Namby-pamby (159) Hobnob

(160) Tip-top (161) Ping-pong (162) Dingle-dangle

Although these new lexical items are treated as compounds by Sapir (1921) because they contain two word-forming units, they should be considered borderline cases of compounding. Notice here that none of the bases like *skelter*, *pamby* and *nob* in the rhyming compounds in (157-159), for example, is a base in its own right, thus making them closer to the word-formation process known as reduplication.[9]

There is another particular group of compounds, named neo-classical compounds in the literature, which are also problematic because they contain as one of their constituents a Latin or Greek element which, being a base in their language of origin, does not exist in English as a base, but as an affix. Thus, they are at the borderline between compounding and affixation. Bauer (1983: 213-214) and Adams (1973), for instance, consider words like *biocrat* and *electrophile* clear examples of compounds, whereas Williams (1981: 258) and Siegel (1979), in turn, treat them as derived with a bound affix:[10]

(163) Electromagnetic (164) Hydroplane

And finally, blending, which is the process which creates new words, typical coinages that, like those illustrated in (165-166), have entered the language in the 20th century, by combining the beginning of one word with the end of another, is, as stated in Adams (1973: 149-50), also often confused with compounding. This is so because

[8]Replacement or ablaut is a process whereby a new word is created, for example, *feet*, by changing the internal vocalic sound in the original word from which it comes from, *foot* (cf. Katamba, 1994).

[9]Reduplication is a morphological process in which one word is partially or totally repeated (cf. Nordquist, 2017).

[10]Within the class of neo-classical compounds Hatcher (1951) distinguishes two semantic classes: (i) the 'name' group, which comprises those compounds which denote, like *Indo-European*, the origin of an entity; (ii) and the 'appellative' group, which includes, in turn, those compounds which describe an entity, like *politico-religious*, in some other terms.

blending also makes use of two words that already exist in the language to form a new one. However, since the words that are fused together in the blending process are cut, the new resulting words should not be considered compounds:

(165) Motel (*motor* and *hotel*) (166) Selectorate (*select* and *electorate*)

3. Classification of Spanish compounds:

Maybe because they are less frequent in Spanish than in English, the literature on Spanish compounds is less extensive than the one concerning their English counterparts. Furthermore, the analysis of Spanish compounds which it offers takes very different paths. Notice in this regard, for instance, the terminological dichotomy endocentric/exocentric compounds, also existent in Spanish, but with a complete different meaning from the one it has in English. As stated in the literature (cf. Liceras, Cuza, Senn, Spradlin and Mongeon, 1970), Spanish endocentric compounds are those nominal compounds created from two independent nouns, (167-168), and exocentric compounds, in turn, though also nominal, are those ones that contain a verbal head, like *come* in (169), as their first component:

(167) Perropolicía (168) Barco pirata (169) Comelibros

As deduced from the previous examples, a feature of Spanish nominal compounds, usually stated in the literature that makes them different from their English counterparts is their internal organization (cf. Katamba, 1993); in Spanish, as well as in some other Romance languages, like French and Italian, for example, the head of the compound is located on the left, whereas in English it appears on the right—*lengua* and *tongue* in (170a-170b) and *consejo* and *board* in (171a-171b)—, and the nominal premodifier, no matter its lexical category —*madre* and *mother* in (170a-170b) and *escolar* and *school* in (171a-171b)—, occupies its left position:[11]

(170a) Lengua madre (170b) Mother tongue

(171a) Consejo escolar (171b) School board

According to Alvar Ezquerra (1993), Spanish compounds are classified just in two different groups: (i) syntagmatic compounds; (ii) and orthographic compounds. The

[11]The French and Italian counterparts of both compounds are, respectively, *langue-mère/conseil scolaire* and *lingua madre/consiglio d'istituto*.

former kind includes those compounds whose constituents, as illustrated in (172-174), form an indivisible syntactico-semantic unit, but are not joined graphically; and the latter, by contrast, comprises those ones which, as illustrated in (175-177) have their components joined graphically:

(172) Cajero automático	(173) Cama nido	(174) Estrella de mar
(175) Limpiabotas	(176) Enhorabuena	(177) Telaraña

Hernando Cuadrado (1996) offers, in turn, a different classification of Spanish compounds, which bases itself on the different processes by means of which they are formed. Special attention deserves, thus, at this stage the following four processes: (i) 'sinapsia'; (ii) 'disyunción'; (iii) 'contraposición'; (iv) and 'aglutinación'. The first one, 'sinapsia', is usually described as a very common process used in scientific language which joins together the lexical items that form the compound, typically nominal, by means of a preposition. Although the most recurrent preposition in them is *de* (178-181), there are some others, like *a, sobre, con* and *en*, (182-185), which also serve this linking function in Spanish compounds:

(178) Azul de metileno	(179) Muerto de hambre
(180) Traje de luces	(181) Máquina de escribir
(182) Mando a distancia	(183) Hockey sobre hielo
(184) Café con leche	(185) Tres en raya

The compounds created through 'disyunción' are also typically nominal, having a noun as their head to the left and an adjective, (186-187) or a noun, (188-189) as the head modifier to the right. As shown in the following series of examples, this second kind of Spanish compounds are said to present a higher level of lexicalization than the previous type since in them there is not any preposition mediating between their components:

(186) Cajero automático	(187) Escalera mecánica
(188) Cartón piedra	(189) Pez espada

In opposition to the two previous processes, the one known as 'contraposición' links the constituents that make up the compound by means of a hyphen. The most frequent cases of Spanish compounds created by 'contraposición' contain either two

nouns, (190-191), or two adjectives, (192-193), thus creating, respectively, nominal and adjectival new lexical items:

(190) Café-teatro (191) Sofá-cama

(192) Franco-prusiano (193) Catalano-francés

Finally, the compounds that are created through the process known as 'aglutinación' are considered to be completely lexicalized since they present a total graphic union of their components. As illustrated in the following series of examples, the compounds formed by this process, though with a very formally varied structure, can be nominal, (194), adjectival, (195), and verbal, (196):

(194) Bajamar (195) Bienintencionado (196) Menospreciar

Notice at this point that this kind of nominal compounds can have as their components a noun, (197), an adjective, (198) and a verb, (199), joined together, as expected, with a noun or, contrary to expectation, they do not present any nominal trace, being the result of the combination of a verb with another verb, (200), or an adverb, (201):

(197) Telaraña (198) Aguardiente (199) Matamoscas

(200) Duermevela (201) Mandamás

The adjectival compounds created by 'aglutinación' always contain, in turn, an adjective which can be combined either with a noun, (202), another adjective, (203), or an adverb, (204); and finally, the verbal ones combine, in turn, a verb either with an adverb, (205), or with a noun, (206):

(202) Patitieso (203) Rojiblanco (204) Malaconsejado

(205) Malvivir (206) Maniatar

Though these are the most common patterns found in the Spanish compounds created by 'aglutinación', it should be noticed here, furthermore, that this process is also responsible for the creation of nominal compounds which, contrary to the previous ones, combine more than two lexical items of a very different nature; namely, (i) either two or three verbs linked together by the copulative conjunction *y*, (207-208); (ii) either an adverb, a personal pronoun and a verb, (209); a verbal form and an indefinite pronoun, (210); or two verbs, (211), fused together with an objective personal pronoun

mediating between them; (iii) and finally, a verb, an objective personal pronoun, a preposition and a final indefinite pronoun, (212):

(207) Chuflaibailas (208) Correveidile (209) Bienmesabe
(210) Sabelotodo (211) Hazmerreír (212) Metomentodo

Besides the four processes highlighted in Hernando Cuadrado (1996), Alvar Ezquerra (2006) focuses on the phenomenon known in the literature as 'parasíntesis en composición' for being also responsible for the creation of some compounds in Spanish of the type of *gordinflón* and *quinceañero* in (213-214):

(213) Gordinflón (214) Quinceañero

As can be seen in both examples, the two distinguishing features of this kind of Spanish compounds are that one of its lexical items is the result of the word-formation process known as derivation —*inflón* and *añero* from *inflar* and *año*, respectively— and, curiously enough, the whole compound without the affix in that component does not exist in the language as a base: **gordinflar* and **quinceaño*.

III. CORPUS ANALYSIS

In order to compare and contrast the use and productivity of the word-formation process known as compounding in English and Spanish, I have carried out a corpus-based analysis in two different steps. First, I have manually compiled a corpus of fifty compound words in each of the two languages at issue to analyse the external form and structure, as well as their internal organisation, which compounds exhibit in English and Spanish, so as to highlight the main similarities and differences that exist between them. It should be pointed out here that the compounds that make up my corpus, extracted from different online media sources—mainly, newspapers and magazines— and exhaustively detailed in the two appendices that close this work, only consist of two morphologically independent simple bases, thus excluding: (i) those ones that, like *washing machine* and *malhumorado*, for instance, have a morphologically derived word as one or both of their components; (ii) the English compounds usually labelled as neoclassical compounds of the type of *biography* and *hydroelectricity*; (iii) and finally, the Spanish ones that, created by the process known as 'sinapsia', like *luna de miel*, *obra de arte* and *fin de semana*, among others, make use of a preposition to link their components.

And in the second place, I have looked up in two bilingual lexicographical sources—(i) the *English-Spanish Collins Dictionary* for English compounds; (ii) and the *Spanish-English Larousse Dictionary* for Spanish compounds— the equivalence these English and Spanish compounds have in the other language so as to draw conclusions mainly related to the productivity of compounding in these two languages and the different translational strategies available in each of them to encode the meaning that compounds entail in the other language.

As regards English compounds, the first interesting result that derives from the corpus analysis I have developed clearly demonstrates that compounding, as stated in the theoretical part of this work, is a very productive word-formation process in this

Germanic language. It should be noticed at this point that I have not had any problem to gather the 50 English compounds that conform my corpus. In fact, I have had to limit the list of examples selected from a wider set of compounds that were easily compiled from the online media sources I have taken into consideration. As a Romance language, however, Spanish is not so prone to compounding as English. This fact has also been confirmed in my corpus analysis, since I have had serious difficulties to gather together the 50 Spanish compounds that make up my corpus.

In relation to their spelling, English and Spanish compounds seem to behave alike since in the two languages they present the same three different orthographic forms: their components can be spelt out together as one single word, (215-216), or they can be separated by means either of a blank space, (217-218), or a hyphen, (219-220):

(215) Homeland (*BBC*) (216) Nochebuena (*Vanity Fair*)

(217) Bad humour (*BBC*) (218) Huella dactilar (*El Mundo*)

(219) Team-mate (*Sky Sport*) (220) Coche-bomba (*La Vanguardia*)

In spite of presenting these three different orthographic forms, each one exhibits in the two languages a different frequency of occurrence. In both languages the most recurrent compounds are those ones written as if they were two independent words separated by a blank space; they represent, in fact, the 50% of the total English corpus and the 76% of the total Spanish corpus—25 examples out of the 50 English compounds studied and 38, out of the 50 Spanish ones—. Both percentages diminish considerably, however, if the components of the compound are separated, by means of a hyphen: only 9 examples out of the 50 ones studied have been attested in the English corpus, thus constituting the 18% of this corpus, and only 3 instances out of the 50 ones analysed have been found, in turn, in the Spanish corpus; a figure that represents the 6% of the total number of examples analysed. Finally, somehow in the middle between these two orthographic forms the compounds spelt out as one single word should be located: in particular, the 32% of the English corpus —specifically, in 16 examples out of the 50 ones under study— and the 18% of the Spanish one —in 9 instances out of the 50 compound words compiled— contain this kind of compounds.

As regards the inner structure of the English and Spanish compounds examined, some interesting conclusions can also be drawn for both languages. In English, to start with, nominal compounds, (221-228), are by far the most recurrent ones in the corpus; they have been attested, in fact, in 40 examples out of the 50 ones analysed, a figure that

represents almost the 80% of the total. As can be seen in the following series of examples, however, the internal structure of English nominal compounds is quite varied: apart from the juxtaposition of two nouns, (221-224), which has been the most frequent pattern found, attested in 22 out of the 40 nominal compounds in the corpus (the 55% of the corpus of English nominal compounds under study), some other combinations have been found, though with a lower frequency of occurrence: adjective + noun, (225-226), verb + preposition, (227), and preposition + verb, (228), respectively, in the 40%, 2,5% and 2,5% of the corpus of English nominal compounds:

(221) Housework (*BBC*) (222) Healthcare (*BBC*)
(223) High season (*The Independent*) (224) Police force (*BBC*)
(225) Free market (*ABC*) (226) Public health (*BBC*)
(227) Shootout (*ABC*) (228) Outline (*BBC*)

The remaining 20% of the total corpus contains adjectival, (229), adverb, (230), and verbal, (231), compounds. The former kind constitutes, specifically, the 14% of the total corpus and each of the two remaining classes represents the 2% and 4% of the corpus, respectively, thus making the other 6%:

(229) World-famous (*The Independent*)
(230) Somewhere (*BBC*)
(231) Undergo (*BBC*)

Although in Spanish nominal compounds are also the most frequent kind of compounds analysed, having been attested in almost the 94% of the total corpus, their internal structure is somehow different to the one found in English. Notice here that the most recurrent internal pattern which they exhibit is that one that combines a noun and an adjective, (232-233), representing, in fact, the 64% of the corpus. Though at some considerable distance, this pattern is followed by other nominal compounds which join together either an adjective and a noun, (234-235), or less frequently two nouns, (236). The former structure has been attested in the 14% of the corpus of Spanish nominal compounds and the latter, in turn, in the remaining 10% of the nominal corpus:

(232) Comando terrorista (*ABC*) (233) Arma blanca (*El Periódico Med.*)
(234) Alta costura (*Vanity Fair*) (235) Libre competencia (*ABC*)
(236) Café-teatro (*El Diario*)

With a lower frequency of occurrence, two other kinds of nominal compounds have been attested in my corpus; on the one hand, those that combine a verb and a noun, (237-238), found in the 4% of the corpus; and on the other, those that fuse together an adverb and a verbal noun, (239), representing, in turn, the 2% of the corpus:

(237) Cumpleaños (*La Verdad*)
(238) Matasuegras (*Vanity Fair*)
(239) Bienvenida (*Clarín*)

The remaining 6% of the total Spanish corpus contains adjectival compounds of the type of *rojiblanco* and *blanquiazul* in (240-241), which are created by an initial shortened version of an adjective ending in *–i* juxtaposed to a second adjective:

(240) Rojiblanco (*Mundo Deportivo*)
(241) Blanquiazul (*Mundo Deportivo*)

As regards the conclusions that can be drawn after analysing the English equivalents provided in the *Spanish-English Larousse Dictionary* for the Spanish compounds that make up my corpus of examples and the Spanish counterparts provided for the English compounds in the *English-Spanish Collins Dictionary*, some important findings deserve special attention. The first one shows that, as expected, almost all the Spanish compounds studied find their equivalent in an English compound. This fact has been attested in 45 out of the 50 Spanish compounds studied, a figure that represents almost the 90% of the total corpus:

(242) Colegio privado (*El Diario*) > Private school
(243) Ley antidopaje (*Sport*) > Anti-doping law

Only in 5 instances the Spanish compound at issue does not have an equivalent compound in English: either it appears translated as a single word that has been created by means of the process known as affixation or derivation, as seen in (244-245), or by means of two independent words joined by means of the conjunction *and* (246-247):

(244) Médico forense (*ABC*) > Coroner
(245) Séptimo Arte (*Hola*) > Cinema
(246) Blanquiazul (*Mundo Deportivo*) > Blue and white
(247) Agridulce (*Hola*) > Sweet and sour

Despite being compounds in the two languages analysed, there are some features that should be highlighted in their comparison. Although the Spanish nominal compounds with two nouns juxtaposed tend to have exactly the same written form when transferred into English, as seen in (248-249), some of them may have a different orthographic representation in English, (250-251). For example, the Spanish compound *coche-bomba* in (250), formed by two independent words joined by a hyphen becomes two independent words in English —*car bomb*—; and the Spanish *videoclip*, (251), a single compound word with its constituents fused together, is transferred into English as two different words connected by a hyphen —*video-clip*—:

(248) Actor clave (*La Nación*) > Key player
(249) Pez-loro (*ABC*) > Parrot-fish
(250) Coche-bomba (*La Vanguardia*) > Car bomb
(251) Videoclip (*La Verdad*) > Video clip

The translation of *coche-bomba* into English as *car bomb* is, moreover, an interesting example to highlight here because it presents, contrary to expectation, the same organization of its head and modifier as its Spanish counterpart, thus differing from the prototypical pattern of English compounds. Notice here that the head, *car*, appears as the first element in the compound and its modifier, *bomb*, to its right.

As regards the English compounds in my corpus and their equivalence in Spanish, it should be noticed, in the first place, on the other hand, that many of them do not have a compound equivalent in Spanish since they are rendered in this language either by means of two independent words joined by a preposition, as illustrated in (252-254), or through a single word, as shown in (255-257):

(252) Honeymoon (*BBC*) > Luna de miel
(253) Security Department (*BBC*) > Departamento de seguridad
(254) Weatherman (*ABC*) > Hombre del tiempo
(255) Football (*Sky Sport*) > Fútbol
(256) Gunfire (*BBC*) > Tiroteo
(257) Pain pill (*BBC*) > Analgésico

The former phenomenon, referred to in the theoretical part of this work as ‘sinapsia’, has been attested in 8 Spanish translations of the English compounds in my corpus, a figure that represents the 16% of the total, and the latter, in turn, in 9 cases (18%).

Finally, in relation to the English compounds that have an equivalent compound in Spanish (the remaining 66% of the corpus), several issues should be brought to light. First, that they vary a great deal in their form. Notice here that a structural similarity between them has been attested only in 7 out of 50 examples, a figure that represents the 14% of the total corpus:

(258) Well-educated (*The Guardian*) > Bien educado
(259) Well-dressed (*The Guardian)* > Bien vestido

A frequent pattern that may be observed in 17 examples out of the 50 compounds (34% of the total corpus) studied concerns the translation of those English compounds whose Spanish equivalents only differ in the position of their head and their modifier, (260-261):

(260a) Middle class (*BBC*) (260b) Clase media
(261a) Public health (*BBC*) (261b) Salud pública

A common pattern that has been observed in Spanish (specifically, in 5 out of the 50 English compounds; a 10% of the corpus) concerns the translation of those English nominal compounds created by the juxtaposition of two nouns. As illustrated in (262-265), their Spanish counterparts contain as their head an initial nominal constituent which corresponds to the second noun in the English compound and a final adjectival component as postmodifier that matches the first English noun:

(262) Tax receipt (*The Independent*) > Comprobante fiscal
(263) Nightclub (*ABC*) > Club nocturno
(264) Suicide attack (*ABC*) > Ataque suicida
(265) Age-group (*CBS Cleveland*) > Grupo etario

The remaining 4 examples include those English compounds whose equivalent forms in Spanish are made up by a prepositional phrase headed either by the preposition *de*, (266), or by the preposition *a*, (267):

(266a) Full-length (*Cosmopolitan*) (266b) De cuerpo entero
(267a) Full-time (*The Guardian*) (267b) A tiempo completo

V. CONCLUSIONS

Compounding in English and Spanish has been defined in my work, following Katamba (1993), among others, as the word-formation process that consists, as illustrated in (268-273), of joining together two roots, morphologically quite varied, in order to create new words:

(268) Workman	(269) Ill-judged	(270) Housekeep
(271) Cubrecama	(272) Sordomudo	(273) Motosierra

As has been manifest in the theoretical section of my work, the literature on English and Spanish compounds offer very different analyses of them. English compounds, for example, are usually classified according to two criteria: (i) their (non)-headedness; (ii) and their lexical category. The first classification accounts for the differences among endocentric, exocentric and copulative compounds; and the second one, in turn, for the distinction between nominal, adjectival, verbal compounds and those ones containing a particle as one of their components. Spanish compounds, in turn, tend to be classified in terms of their written orthographic form —the distinction between syntagmatic and orthographic compounds proposed by Alvar Ezquerra (1993)— or on the basis of the diverse linguistic processes which are responsible for their creation: according to Hernando Cuadrado (1996), namely, 'sinapsia', 'disyunción', 'contraposición', and 'aglutinación', and, as pointed out by Alvar Ezquerra (1993), also, 'parasíntesis'.

Apart from the different classifications to which they are subject, the literature on English compounds pays especial attention to the problems which their identification and recognition frequently entail: mainly, their spelling, their syntactico-semantic distinction from phrases with exactly the same form as them, their presence/absence in the lexicon of the language and, finally, their differentiation from other word-formation

processes which are, somehow, close to compounding and, consequently, difficult to distinguish: mainly, reduplication, neo-classical compounds and blending.

On the other hand, in the section devoted to present the main results obtained from the English-Spanish contrastive analysis which I have carried out on my corpus of examples, comprising 50 English and 50 Spanish compounds created by the combination of just two morphologically independent simple bases, some interesting remarks concerning the differences between them have been highlighted.

The first one concerns the productivity which compounding, as a word-formation process, has in English and Spanish. Whereas I have had to limit the number of English compounds in my corpus to the number of fifty, because the original amount of examples, easily compiled, was much larger, I have had serious difficulties in gathering together the 50 Spanish compounds that conform my corpus. This first finding, which clearly suggests that compounding is a more productive and recurrent word-formation process in English than in Spanish, probably due to its Germanic linguistic origin, has also been supported in the lexicographical contrastive analysis which I have carried out on the Spanish and English compounds under study. Notice here that, whereas almost all the Spanish compounds examined find their equivalent in an English compound (90% of the total Spanish corpus), a huge number of the English compounds analysed do not have in Spanish an equivalent compound term, but either two independent words joined by a preposition (16% of the total English corpus), as illustrated in (274-275), or a single word (18% of the total English corpus), as shown in (276-277):

(274) Police car (*The Independent*) > Coche de policía
(275) Immigration Law (*BBC*) > Ley de inmigración
(276) Gas pipeline (*ABC*) > Gasoducto
(277) Bloodline (*BBC*) > Linaje

The second conclusion which deserves attention here concerns the orthographic form compounds present in both languages. Though English and Spanish compounds can be spelt out together as one single word, or be built around two components separated by means either of a blank space or a hyphen, in both languages the most recurrent compounds are those ones written as if they were two independent words separated by a blank space; in English they represent, in fact, the 48% of the total corpus, and in Spanish this is undoubtedly the preferred written form which compounds

adopt, having being attested in the 76% of the total corpus. This means that whereas in English the orthographic form which compounds present is somehow balanced (the 18% and the 34% of the corpus contain, respectively, compounds written as two words separated by means of a hyphen or as one single word), in Spanish the least preferred option is that one which connects the components in the compound by means of a hyphen, having been attested in only a 6% of the corpus.

Finally, as regards the inner structure of the English and Spanish compounds examined, it should be noticed that the nominal category is the preferred one in both languages; in English nominal compounds represent almost the 80% of the total corpus and in Spanish, in turn, the 94% of the total corpus. Their inner structure is, however, different in both languages: while in English most of the nominal compounds analysed present the juxtaposition of two nouns, (the 55% of the corpus of English nominal compounds under study), in Spanish the most recurrent combination is that one that links a noun and an adjective (the 68,1% of the corpus).

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APPENDIX I. ENGLISH COMPOUNDS

1. Police car (*The Independent*) **N+N**
2. Weatherman (*ABC*) **N+N**
3. Honeymoon (*BBC*) **N+N**
4. Security department (*BBC*) **N+N**
5. Team-mate (*Sky Sport*) **N+N**
6. Blockbuster (*Sky Sport*) **N+N**
7. Immigration law (*BBC*) **N+N**
8. Motor race (*Sky Sport*) **N+N**
9. Healthcare (*BBC*) **N+N**
10. Car bomb (*BBC*) **N+N**
11. Homeland (*BBC*) **N+N**
12. Gas pipeline (*ABC*) **N+N**
13. Housework (*BBC*) **N+N**
14. Bloodline (*BBC*) **N+N**
15. Pain pill (*BBC*) **N+N**
16. Football (*Sky Sport*) **N+N**
17. Gunfire (*BBC*) **N+N**
18. Police force (*BBC*) **N+N**
19. Nightclub (*ABC*) **N+N**
20. Suicide attack (*ABC*) **N+N**
21. Suicide bomber (*ABC*) **N+N**
22. Age-group (*CBS Cleveland*) **N+N**
23. Tax receipt (*The Independent*) **A+N**
24. Public health (*BBC*) **A+N**
25. High point (*BBC*) **A+N**
26. Terrorist attack (*ABC*) **A+N**
27. Islamic state (*ABC*) **A+N**
28. Private detective (*ABC*) **A+N**
29. Free market (*ABC*) **A+N**
30. Bad humour (*ABC*) **A+N**
31. Human race (*BBC*) **A+N**
32. Prime Minister (*The Independent*) **A+N**
33. High season (*The Independent*) **A+N**
34. Middle class (*BBC*) **A+N**
35. White house (*BBC*) **A+N**
36. Fair share (*BBC*) **A+N**
37. Midfielder (*Sky Sport*) **A+N**
38. Prime time (*BBC*) **A+N**
39. Outline (*BBC*) **P+V**
40. Shootout (*ABC*) **P+V**
41. World-famous (*The Independent*) **N+A**
42. Somewhere (*BBC*) **N+ADV**
43. Full-time (*The Guardian*) **A+N**
44. Full-length (*Cosmopolitan*) **A+N**
45. Cold-blooded (*The Guardian*) **A+PP**
46. Right-wing (*BBC*) **A+N**
47. Overhaul (*BBC*) **P+V**
48. Undergo (*BBC*) **P+V**
49. Well-dressed (*The Guardian*) **ADV+PP**
50. Well-educated (*The Guardian*) **ADV+PP**

APPENDIX II. SPANISH COMPOUNDS

1. Coche-bomba (*La Vanguardia*) **N+N**
2. Hombre lobo (*Le miau Noir*) **N+N**
3. Videoclip (*La Verdad*) **N+N**
4. Café-teatro (*El Diario*) **N+N**
5. Pez-loro (*ABC*) **N+N**
6. Ley antidopaje (*Sport*) **N+A**
7. Colegio público (*El Correo*) **N+A**
8. Comité escolar (*El Correo*) **N+A**
9. Huella dactilar (*El Mundo*) **N+A**
10. Barra libre (*Vanity Fair*) **N+A**
11. Nochebuena (*Vanity Fair*) **N+A**
12. Nochevieja (*Vanity Fair*) **N+A**
13. Año nuevo (*Revista Love*) **N+A**
14. Comando terrorista (*ABC*) **N+A**
15. Actor clave (*La Nación*) **N+A**
16. Alfombra roja (*Revista Cuore*) **N+A**
17. País vecino (*Le miau noir*) **N+A**
18. Compañía aérea (*Intereconomía*) **N+A**
19. Fuerza bruta (*La Razón*) **N+A**
20. Seguridad ciudadana (*ABC*) **N+A**
21. Terrorista suicida (*ABC*) **N+A**
22. Arma blanca (*El Periódico Med.*) **N+A**
23. Persona armada (*ABC*) **N+A**
24. Médico forense (*ABC*) **N+A**
25. Estado Islámico (*La Vanguardia*) **N+A**
26. Colegio privado (*El Diario*) **N+A**
27. Comunidad educativa (*El Diario*) **N+A**
28. Violencia física (*El Diario*) **N+A**
29. Trabajador independiente (*El Diario*) **N+A**
30. Sociedad cooperativa (*El Diario*) **N+A**
31. Violencia machista (*El Diario*) **N+A**
32. Cuerpo técnico (*Sport*) **N+A**
33. Dirección técnica (*Sport*) **N+A**
34. Vía rápida (*Sport*) **N+A**
35. Asistencia médica (*Sport*) **N+A**
36. Energía renovable (*El Periódico*) **N+A**
37. Comisión disciplinaria (*Sport*) **N+A**
38. Doble nacionalidad (*Sport*) **A+N**
39. Media punta (*Mundo Deportivo*) **A+N**
40. Libre competencia (*ABC*) **A+N**
41. Séptimo arte (*Hola*) **A+N**
42. Primera dama (*Hola*) **A+N**
43. Buena nueva (*ABC*) **A+N**
44. Alta costura (*Vanity Fair*) **A+N**
45. Bienvenida (*Clarín*) **ADV+PP**
46. Cumpleaños (*La Verdad*) **V+N**
47. Matasuegras (*Vanity Fair*) **V+N**
48. Rojiblanco (*Mundo Deportivo*) **A+A**
49. Agridulce (*Hola*) **A+A**
50. Blanquiazul (*Mundo Deportivo*) **A+A**