Seminar 17312
Introduction to Linguistics

Institute for English Philology
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Session 5
From phonology to morphology
Recap: Syllabification
Syllabification (!)

➢ **The Maximal Onset Principle:** as many consonants as possible in the onset, but nucleus has to be „the most clearly audible part of the syllable“ (Plag et al. 2009: 60);

➢ ”Where two syllables are two be divided, any consonants between them should be attached to the right-hand syllable“ (Roach 2009: 61);

➢ However: this happens "within the restrictions governing syllable onsets and codas“ (ibid.);

➢ Isolated syllables never end in: /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /æ/, /ʌ/, /ɒ/, /ʊ/ ! (Roach 2009: 61);

➢ **SONORITY SEQUENCING PRINCIPLE:** "sounds preceding the nucleus (i.e. onsets) must raise in sonority, and sounds ”following the nucleus (i.e.) must fall in sonority” (Plag et al. 2009: 61)

• sonority: "clear audibility”; measured in relation to other sounds (ibid., p. 60)

(44) Sonority scale

vowels > [w], [j] > [ɾ] > [l] > nasal > fricatives, > plosives

consonants affricates

(Plag et al. 2009: 61)
Syllabification

girl

pink

house

be
Syllabic consonants

• [l], [n], [m] and [r] can occupy the NUCLEUS POSITION
• in weak syllables without vowels

Syllabic /l/: one or more consonants followed by „—le”
✓ <bottle> [ˈbɒtl]
✓ <cattle> [ˈkætl]
✓ couple [ˈkʌpɪ]

Syllabic n: in the word-medial and word-final position
✓ <button> [ˈbʌtn]
✓ <happen> [ˈhæpən]

Syllabic /m/ and /ŋ/: in the process of assimilation
✓ <rhythm> [rɪð(ə)m]
✓ <cupboard> /kʌpbrɪd/ (rhotic dialects, e.g. AmE)

In syllables without vowels, consonants have to take over ‘vowel’ function → consonants that are most ‘vowel-like’ in quality (Roach 2009: 68-71).
Morphology: Types of morphemes
What is morphology?

MORPHOLOGY:

„[...] the study of the internal structure of words, the rules that govern it, as well as the ways of creating new words” (Plag et al 2009: 70).

„[...] examines how words are created, structured and changed” (Bieswanger & Becker 2017: 75); ”the grammar of words” (ibid., p. 76).
What is a word?

- **Ortographic words** (written language);
- **Phonological words** (spoken language);
- **Linguistic signs**: arbitrary combination of a sound image and a concept

(Bieswanger & Becker 2017: 76)
Word types and word tokens

Word types: "particular words"
Word tokens: "occurences of words"

The students borrowed a red book and a yellow book.

How many types and how many tokens?

(Bieswanger & Becker 2010: 77)
Morphemes

- *Morphe* (Greek) – form, shape
- Minimal units of grammatical structure (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 144)
- Traditional view: smallest *meaningful* units (ibid., 16-17; Kortmann 2005: 85; Bieswanger & Becker 2017: 80)
- can carry grammatical and lexical information (ibid.)
Phonemes and morphemes: difference

Recap:

**Phoneme** is the smallest linguistic unit capable of distinguishing between meaning (Mair 2012: 39).

**MORPHEME** is the minimal unit **CAPABLE OF EXPRESSING A MEANING** of its own (Mair 2012: 39-40).

Morphemes as **MEANINGFUL UNITS**. A word must consist of at least one morpheme (Plag et al 2009: 71).

The morpheme is placed between **BRACES** `<higher> {high} {-er}` 
{-er} expresses a greater degree or the comparative form of adjectives
Morphemes

Words consisting of one morpheme: **MONOMORPHEMIC** or **SIMPLEX WORDS**

Words that contain one or more morpheme: **POLYMORPHEMIC** or **COMPLEX WORDS** (Plag et al. 2009: 72; Bieswanger & Becker 2010: 80)

**Unique morphemes (cranberry morphemes):** morphemes that occur just in one word in a language (Plag et al. 2009: 73)

- cranberry
- sustain
- strawberry (COMPLEX WORDS) vs pertain (SIMPLEX WORDS)
- blackberry
- sustain
- blueberry
- obtain (ibid.)
Cranberry morphemes (unique morphemes)

Cranberry morphemes do not carry an independent meaning:

- {cran} only occurs in cranberry
- From a synchronic perspective, it does not have a lexical meaning, but it distinguishes cranberry from strawberry, blackberry, blueberry, etc.
- These kinds of morphemes are called UNIQUE MORPHEMES or CRANBERRY MORPHEMES (Plag et al 2009: 73; Bieswanger & Becker 2017: )
Morphemes

[...] morphemes must:

1. be identifiable from one word to another
2. contribute in some way to the meaning of the whole word (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 17)
Types of morphemes:

FREE MORPHEMEs: can stand on their own: {mother}

BOUND MORPHEMEs (affixes): morphemes that only appear in combination with other morphemes: {hood}

(Plag et al 2009: 76, Bieswanger & Becker 2017: 81)
Types of morphemes: free morphemes

- The ones which belong to lexical word classes (such as nouns, verbs, adjectives)
- The ones which belong to grammatical or functional word classes (pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, articles) (Kortmann 2005: 87)
Types of morphemes: bound morphemes

Two kinds of bound morphemes:

1. **Derivational/lexical** morphemes (lexical information): ”create new lexemes via affixation” (Kortmann 2005: 87; Bieswanger & Becker 2017: 82).

2. **Inflectional** morphemes (grammatical information): ”produce new word forms” (Kortmann 2005: 87)
Bound morphemes: affixes

AFFIX: ”Bound morpheme that is attached to a root or a base” (Plag et al. 2007: 224)

On the basis of the position of the bound morpheme to the modified word, bound affixes can be divided into:

**PREFIXES**: attach before the base (in English, participate in derivation): un-happy, dis-honest, dis-courage, ir-responsible

**SUFFIXES**: attach after the base (participate in derivation and inflection): cheer-ful, heart-less, girl-ish, white-ness, structur-al, blend-er (Plag et al. 2009: 77-78, Kortmann 2005: 87)

**INFIXES**: are inserted into be base. No infixes in English, but whole words can be inserted into a base: abso-bloody-lutely (Plag et al 2009: 78).
Derivational morphemes: examples

- Suffix {-er}: formation of agentive nouns from verbs (bake -> baker) or inhabitants of a place (London -> Londoner);
- Suffix {-ness} turns adjectives into abstract nouns: (Mair 2012: 41)
Inflectional forms of the same lexeme

do not have to be listed in the dictionary because they are “grammatically conditioned” (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 28)

*perform, performs*

*performed* PERFORM

*performing*

\[ \uparrow \]

word forms lexeme

(in italics) (in small capitals)

Inflectional variants of a lexeme

(ibid, p. 30)
Suppletive forms

BE: *am, is, are, were* → one lexeme consisting of several unrelated root morphemes

GO: *go, went* → grammatically conditioned

“[…] *go and went* are said to be distinct roots (and hence distinct morphemes) standing in a suppletive relationship as representatives, in different grammatical contexts, of one lexeme” (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 33)
Types of morphemes

Bieswanger & Becker (2017: 83)
Terms: base, stem, root

BASE:
serves ”as the basis to attaching other, usually bound, morphemes, such as –hood and –ment” (Plag et al 2009: 76); ”word or part of a word viewed as an input to a derivational process or inflectional process, in particular affication” (Carstairs & McCarthy 2002: 141). Bases can be simplex (do not contain any further morphemes) or complex (Plag et al 2009: 77); „any form to which an affix is attached to (…)” (Beiswanger & Becker 2017: 83).

STEM:
”[...] bases to which bound morphemes carrying grammatical meaning attach” (Plag et al. 2009: 76).

ROOT:
”within a non-compound word, the morpheme that makes the most precise and concrete contribution to the word’s meaning, and is either the sole morpheme or else the only one that is not a prefix or a suffix” (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 145). Most roots are free in English (ibid.); „(…) single morphemes that cannot be morphologically analysed any further” (Bieswanger & Becker 2017: 83).
Stem, base, root: differences

**ROOT**: ”what remains when taking away all affixes [...]” (Kortmann 2005: 89);

**STEM**: ”what remains once all inflectional suffixes are taken away [...]”, a „minimal lexical unit” (ibid.);

**BASE**: ”what remains in each case if the derivational affixes are taken away [...]” (ibid.).

```
a. stem: removal-s
b. root: re-mov(e)-al-s
c. base: remov(e)-als
d. base: removal-s, remov(e)-als, re-mov(e)-als
```

(ibid.)
Morphological analysis of words

We need to take into account semantic and formal arguments in order to define the structure of words (Plag et al 2009: 82)
Free roots vs bound roots

a. read-able
   hear-ing
   en-large
   perform-ance
   white-ness
   dark-en
   seek-er

free root
+
bound morpheme
(affix)

b. leg-ible
   audi-ence
   magn-ify
   rend-ition
   clar-ity
   obfusc-ate
   applic-ant

bound root +
bound morpheme
(affix)

Carstairs-McCarthy (2002: 19)
Combining forms

"Bound morpheme, more root-like than affix-like, usually of Greek or Latin origin, that occurs only in compounds, usually with other combining forms. Examples are \textit{poly-} and \textit{-gamy} in \textit{polygamy} (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 145)

Other examples:

\textit{electroscopy} (2 bound roots)

\{\textit{electro-}\}: bound root, combining form (also in \textit{electrolysis})

\{\textit{-scopy}\}: bound root, combining form (also in \textit{microscopy})

\textit{auditorium}

\{\textit{audi-}\}: bound morpheme, combining form (also in \textit{audience})

\{\textit{-torium}\}: bound morpheme, combining form (also in \textit{sanatorium})

but:

\textit{microfilm}

\{\textit{micro-}\} bound root

\{\textit{film}\} free root

(Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 21)
Free roots

Words that have more than one root are called compounds

• two free roots: bookcase, motorbike
• two bound roots: electrolysis, microscopy (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 21)
Morphological processes

- **DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY**: "Area of morphology concerned with the way in which lexemes are related to one another (or in which one lexeme is derived from another) through processes such as affixation" (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 142);
- **INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY**: "Area of morphology concerned with changes in word shape (e.g. through affixation) that are determined by, or potentially affect, the grammatical context in which a word appears (ibid., p. 144);
- **COMPOUNDING**: the process of combining roots (free or bound) (ibid., p. 59).
Morphemes & allomorphs
Terms

**MORPHEME** is the mental representation, an abstraction over all the allomorphs of what we consider one morpheme (Kortmann 2009: 83); ”[…] an abstract category that exists in our minds” (Plag et al 2009: 83).

**MORPH** is the physical realisation of a morpheme.

**ALLOMORPH** is a contextually determined realisation of a morpheme (Kortmann 2005: 90); Allomorphes are different **MORPHS** representing the same **MORPHEME** (Plag et al 2009: 83)
Morphemes

Form = **MORPH**

Plag et al. (2009: 75)
Morphemes

Does this look familiar?

The morpheme *dream*

- form/morph: [drɪːm] <dream>
- meaning: ‘a series of images appearing the mind during sleep’

Saussure’s bilateral model of the sign

(Plag et al 2009: 74)
Similar relations

MORPHEME -> ALLOMORPH
PHONEME -> ALLOPHONE

But:
Phonemes: ”realisations of an abstract phonological category”
Allomorphes: ”realisations of an abstract morphological category”

(Plag et al 2009: 83)
Allomorphs

- "different morphs realising the same morpheme" (Plag et al 2009: 83);
- different "realisation variants" of a morpheme (Mair 2012: 41);
- "pronunciation variants" of a morpheme, "among which the choice is determined by context (phonological, grammatical or lexical)" (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 141): phonological conditioning, morphological conditioning, lexical conditioning (Plag et al 2009: 88).
Allomorphs: indefinite article (phonological conditioning)

Plag et al (2009: 84)
Allomorphs – plural and genetive {-s}

The {-s} marking plural or genitive in nouns or third-person singular of the present tense in verbs has three phonetic realisations: [s], [z], [ɪz/əz].

[s] is present after all voiceless consonants (<cats>, <baths>), except [s], [ʃ], [tʃ].

[z] is present after all vowels and voiced consonants (<boys>, <girls>), except [z], [ʒ], [dʒ].

[ɪz] is found after sibilants [s], [ʃ], [tʃ], [z], [ʒ], [dʒ] (<roses>, <judges>, <races>).

Different allomorphs stand in **COMPLEMENTARY DISTRIBUTION**.

(Mair 2012:41-42, Plag et al 2009: 86)
Morpheme \{PLURAL\}: phonological conditioning

Plag et al (2009: 86)
Allomorphs of the suffix <-ed>: phonological conditioning

[ɪd]: when a preceding sound is [t] or [d]:
 wanted /wɔntɪd/
 otherwise:
[t]: when a preceding sound is voiceless:
 walked /wɔːkt/

[d]: after a vowel or a voiced consonant:
 played /pleɪd/   dragged   dragged /drægd/

(Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 27; 125)
Irregular plural forms: lexical conditioning

Plag et al (2009: 86)

tooth – teeth [uː] – [iː]
goose – geese [uː] – [iː]
mouse – mice [aʊ] – [aɪ]

VOWEL ALTERNATION/VOWEL CHANGE (within a stem)

(ibid., p. 75)
Irregular plural forms: lexical conditioning

Plag et al (2009: 87)
Irregular plural forms: morphological conditioning

```
conclude  [kənˈkluːd]
conclusion  [kənˈkluːʒ-ən]
conclusive  [kənˈkluːs-ɪv]
```

Morpheme {CONCLUDE}:
[kənˈkluːd]
[kənˈkluːʒ] when the suffix [ən] is attached
[kənˈkluːs] when the suffix [ɪv] is attached (Plag et al 2009: 88)
Phonological, lexical and morphological conditioning of allophones: summary

Phonological conditioning of allophones: „[…] the distribution of allomorphs is governed by the sound structure” (Plag et al. 2009: 83) that ”follows or precedes a given morpheme” (ibid., p. 86).

Lexical conditioning: the shape of morpheme ”depends on the individual word” (ibid. p. 86-87).

Morphological conditioning: the shape of a morpheme depends on the other adjacent morpheme (ibid., p. 88)
Morphological processes
Morphological processes

Bieswanger & Becker (2017: 86)
Inflection

- **NOUNS**
  - {-s} plural
  - {-s} genitive

- **VERBS**
  - {-s} 3. person singular
  - {-ed} past
  - {-ing} present participle
  - {-ed} past participle

- **ADJECTIVES**
  - {-er} comparative
  - {-est} superlative

(Kortmann 2005: 117)
### Inflectional suffixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affix</th>
<th>function</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-s</td>
<td>creates the plural form of nouns</td>
<td><em>cats, days</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>’s</td>
<td>creates the genitive form of nouns</td>
<td><em>Peter’s, John’s</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ed</td>
<td>creates the past tense form of verbs</td>
<td><em>played, stopped, cared</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-s</td>
<td>creates the third person singular present tense form of verbs</td>
<td><em>(he/she/it) plays, stops, cares</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>creates the progressive form of verbs</td>
<td><em>(is/are) playing, going, writing</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er</td>
<td>creates the comparative form of adjectives</td>
<td><em>warmer, colder</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-est</td>
<td>creates the superlative form of adjectives</td>
<td><em>warmest, coldest</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plag et al (2009: 90)
Inflectional forms of the same lexeme

do not have to be listed in the dictionary because they are “grammatically conditioned” (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 28)

*perform, performs
performed
performing

word forms (in italics)
lexeme (in small capitals)

Inflectional variants of a lexeme
(ibid, p. 30)
Suppletive forms

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# Inflection vs. derivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>inflection</th>
<th>derivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Only suffixes (in English)</td>
<td>Both suffixes and prefixes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creates <strong>WORD-FORMS or grammatical words</strong></td>
<td>Creates <strong>new LEXEMES</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(e.g. bake – bakes - baked)</em></td>
<td><em>(e.g. bake - baker- bakery)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical function</td>
<td>Primarily ‘lexical’/‘content’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEVER</strong> changes <strong>WORD-CLASS</strong></td>
<td><strong>CHANGE WORD-CLASS</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can be attached to almost every word of a given class</td>
<td>can be attached to certain words of a given class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have the same meaning in all words they attach to</td>
<td>do not always have the same meaning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plag et al (2009: 89-93)
Derivation

- combination of at least one free morpheme and at least one bound morpheme resulting in a new lexeme
- through **AFFIXATION**: process of attaching affixes: prefixes & suffixes = **PREFIXATION & SUFFIXATION**
- Most prefixes preserve word/class: both *happy* and *unhappy* are adjectives
- Most suffixes change word class:
  - *happy* – *happiness* (adjective -> noun)
  - *forget* – *forgetful* (verb -> adjective)
  - *fiction* – *fictional* (noun -> adjective)

...but not all of them:
- *green* – *greenish* (adjective – adjective)
- *devil* – *devilry* (noun – noun)

- Derivation creates a **new lexeme**
- Result of derivation is a **derivative** (Plag et al 2009: 93-95)
## Inflectional vs derivational suffixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>example</th>
<th>word meaning</th>
<th>affix meaning/function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>computerise</td>
<td>‘put into a computer’</td>
<td>‘put into X’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hospitalise</td>
<td>‘put into a hospital’</td>
<td>‘put into X’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modernise</td>
<td>‘make (more) modern’</td>
<td>‘make (more) X’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regularise</td>
<td>‘make (more) regular’</td>
<td>‘make (more) X’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brotherise</td>
<td>‘provide with a brother’</td>
<td>‘provide with X’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gutterise</td>
<td>‘provide with a gutter’</td>
<td>‘provide with X’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cars</td>
<td>‘more than one car’</td>
<td>‘more than one’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tables</td>
<td>‘more than one table’</td>
<td>‘more than one’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shoes</td>
<td>‘more than one shoe’</td>
<td>‘more than one’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cottages</td>
<td>‘more than one cottage’</td>
<td>‘more than one’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plag et al (2009: 91)
Word-formation processes

Kortmann (2005: 95)
Compounding

Compounding is a combination of at least two (or more) free morphemes resulting in a new lexeme. It has been a mainstay of the English word-formation system since Old English times. The most common type is **NOUN+NOUN COMPOUNDS**: apple pie

Result of compounding is a **compound**, in which pie is **the head**, modified by apple.

Other types:

- **adjective + noun**  *blackboard, medical student*
- **adjective + adjective**  *blue-green*
- **noun + adjective**  *power-hungry*
- **verb + noun**  *pickpocket*
- **verb + verb**  *to stir-fry, to kick-start*

(Mair 2012: 45)
Compounding

**ATTENTION!** Spelling is not a reliable indicator of compound status in English. Words can be spelled as **TWO WORDS:** apple pie
or **HYPHENATED:** blue-green
or as **ONE WORD:** blackboard
Sometimes all orthographic variants are possible: breadbin, bread bin, bread-bin

The **MEANING OF COMPOUNDS** is motivated by, but not always predictable from, the meanings of the individual morphemes.

**REMEMBER!** Word stress in compounds is usually on the **MODIFIER:** bláckbird, gréenhouse

(Plag et al 2009: 99-101)
Compounding

a. *a bláckboard*
   ‘a board for writing on with chalk’
   *a blúebell*
   ‘a plant which has blue flowers in the shape of a bell’
   *a rédcoat*
   ‘a British soldier in the 18th and 19th centuries’

b. *a black bóard*
   ‘a board which is black in colour’
   *a blue bél*
   ‘a bell which is blue in colour’
   *a red cáot*
   ‘a coat which is red in colour’

a. are nominal compounds
b. syntactic constructs

(Plag et al 2009: 100)
Compounds

- contain two constituents: left-hand constituent and right-hand constituent
- each of these constituents can be complex in itself: *wildlife sanctuary*
- compounds have one element that is semantically and grammatically more important, which is called the HEAD, which is usually the right-hand element. The left-hand element is the MODIFIER

*law firm* ’a kind of a firm’

*law firms*—inflectional suffix is attached to the right-hand element

*law (N) firm (N)*  - word class of the whole compound (N) (Plag et al. 2009: 100-102)
Types of compounds

Distinguished on the basis of word-classes of their heads:

- **NOMINAL**: glasshouse
- **ADJECTIVAL**: colour-blind
- **VERBAL**: deep-fry

(Plag et al 2009: 103)
Types of compounds

- Noun: morning paper, fast-food, playground, overweight
- Adjective: colour-blind, dark-blue, —
- Verb: to housekeep, to deep-fry, to crash-land

Plag et al (2009: 104)
Semantic types of compounds

- **Endocentric compounds** (modifier-head compounds): ’A+B denotes a special kind of B’: small talk, medical student, blackboard (Kortmann 2005: ; Mair 2012: 45);

- **Exocentric compounds**: ’A+B denotes a special kind of an unexpressed semantic head’, a metonymic character; none of the components refers to the referent directly: pickpocket, redhead, paperback, egghead (Mair 2012: 46);

- **Copulative compounds** (a sum of two qualities): stir-fry, bitter-sweet, sleep-walk
  (Kortmann 2005: 101; Mair 2012: 45);

- **Appositional compounds**: ’A + B provide the same descriptions for the same referent’: actor-manager, writer-director, actor-director (Kortmann 2005: 101).
**Conversion**

**CONVERSION** (zero-derivation, zero-affixation, syntactic homonymy) is the creation of a new word without any formal or external change to the base.

The most common types are **NOUN-TO-VERB, VERB-TO-NOUN, ADJECTIVE-TO-NOUN** and **ADJECTIVE-TO-VERB CONVERSION**.

**NOUN TO VERB** bottle > to bottle

**VERB TO NOUN** to coach > a coach

**ADJECTIVE TO NOUN** heavy > a heavy

Other types include: **ADVERB TO VERB**: down > to down

**PREPOSITION TO VERB**: up > to up: The kept upping the price.

**ADJECTIVE TO VERB**: narrow > to narrow

**PREPOSITION TO NOUN**: up > up ups and downs

Derivatives have usually more complex meaning than their base and relay on base for their meaning.

This process is **extremely productive** in present-day English due to few infectional endings.

(Plag et al 2009: 105; Mair 2012: 47-48)
Conversion

Some borderline examples (they do not fully meet the criteria of conversion):

to object (verb) /əbˈdʒekt/ object (noun) /ˈɒbdʒɪkt/
to import (verb) /ɪmˈpɔːt/ import (noun) /ˈɪmpɔːt/
to record (verb) /rɪˈkɔːd/ record (noun) /ˈrekɔːd/

Different pronunciation and word stress for nouns and verbs!

(Mair 2012: 48)
Shortening

- Deleting linguistic material

- **CLIPPINGS** involve the removal of the beginning or end of a longer word:
  
  - doctor -> doc
  - laboratory -> lab
  - omnibus -> bus

- **Names** - *truncation* Patricia -> Pat

- **BLENDS** represent the phonetic merger of two words:
  
  - breakfast + lunch -> brunch
  - smoke + fog -> smog

- **ABBREVIATIONS**:
  
  - **ACRONYMNS** combine the initial letters of multi-word combinations and *can be pronounced as regular words*: North Atlantic Treaty Organisation -> NATO
  
  If initial letters *are pronounced separately*, these abbreviations are called **INITIALISMS/ALPHABETISMS**
  
    - *e.g.* United Kingdom -> UK
    - *e.g.* television – TV
    - *e.g.* British National Corpus -> BNC


Word formation: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_Z6eHsXT2Jc
References


