Understanding Morphology for Mass Communication: A Pragmatic Approach to English Language Teaching

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Abstract: Mass Communication has become an essential phenomenon for global business transaction in recent times. Side by side, the English language has also become a global *lingua franca* for day -to-day use in all sorts of business transactions and socio-economic protocals of Mass Communication. The present paper is an humble effort to review the application of Morphology in English language and its implication in Mass Communication which *inter alia* requires focussed Vocabulary and Grammar in different global varieties of English language. The present article has also considered pidginized and creolized variety of English language in its application for Business communication that has become an integral part of global networking of Mass Communication through print media and Electronic media as well.

Keywords: Understanding, morphology, mass communication, pragmatic, approach, english language teaching.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching Mass Communication through the English language has become an essential global phenomenon in recent times. The English language has also become a global lingua franca for day -to-day use in the Business World. The present paper is an humble effort to review the application of Morphology in English language and its implication in Mass Communication which inter alia requires focussed Vocabulary and Grammar in different global varieties of English language. The present article has also considered pidginized and creolized variety of English language in its application for Business communication that has become an integral part of global networking of Mass Communication through Print Media and Electronic Media as well. Naturally the prime focus of this article is application of English language in Mass Communication.

Both **morphemes** and words are treated as physical properties that are demonstrable in teaching Mass Communication. For example, every word is physically (i.e. phonologically and orthographically) composed of smaller physical entities called **morphemes**.

This general interpretation is not acceptable with reference to zero suffixed plural morphemes and past morphemes. It is true that morphemes are also physically identifiable in many words but that does not mean that they are identifiable only by meaning in context as '**plural morpheme**' may remain hidden in some plural nouns like "deer" and "sheep".

We know that words have a number of 'emergent' properties or properties which are not derivable from their constituent morphemes. For example, words belong to grammatical classes like nouns and verbs. In contrast, morphemes do not require categorical status. The grammatical class of a word cannot be predicted from knowledge of its 'constituent' morphemes For example, the word 'breakable' (adjective and 'breakage' (noun) both contain the free morpheme 'break' which is a verb as a word, while the bound morphemes '-able' and '-age' have no class properties by themselves. This shows that the property of belonging to a grammatical class is not derived from morphemes as morphemes are never judged by this property (Bloomfield: 1933). From the above discussion we understand that morphemes are orthographically realizable as word forms or word particles.

There may be different types of English morphemes based on the ways they are realized or their functional capacity. The most prominent types of **morpheme** with reference to **application** in a sentence are:

A. Free Morphemes: Morphemes that are independent in their capacity and are self-sufficient as words in a sentence.

Examples: gold; silver; apple; tort; nation;

B. Bound Morphemes: Morphemes that are freemorpheme-dependent in their capacity and are never self-sufficient as words in a sentence.

Examples:

-en as in the word 'golden'/ silken; -s as in the word 'apples'/ torts;

-al as in the word 'national/rational';

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With reference to their inherent **properties**, **Morphemes** (orthographic words/word particles) may be divided as shown in the table below:

Table 1:

Morpheme Type	Examples
Lexeme (Semantically meaningful unit)	young; watch; girl; boy; man; nation;
Grammareme [#] (Functional/ grammatical unit)	and; but; so; -ed; -s;
Phoneme (phonological unit)	/tait/ (tight); /bim/ (beam)

[#]The word 'grammareme' is a blended word which has been coined by combining the words grammar + lexeme (through back clipping): See other Tables in he present article of IJMC.

English Affixes: Prefix Suffix and Infix

English words often include multiple **affixes**. As we stated earlier, in the majority of cases of complex and compound words (i.e. the free and bound morphemes in combination) that are realized as words can be identified as separate elements called **morphemes** in the phonological and orthographic representations.

This makes it easier to refer to the morphemes when talking about the rules which govern their occurrence.

English Affixes are building blocks of extensive English vocabulary and are basic elements of word formation. English affix can take the form of a prefix when it is used before a root word. Common prefixes include un-, dis- and ex-. English affix can be used as suffix when it is attached after the root word. Example: -ish; -ity; -ize and so on.

English affix can be used as infix when it is attached in between the prefix and the root and in between the root word and the suffix.

There are two subtypes of infix:



Let us introduce the distinctive characteristics of Derivational affixes and Inflectional affixes that serve as key components of English word formation. Free morphemes may emerge as independent English words.

Examples: toe; teach; learn; and 'key'

 Most of the English words have foreign roots, foreign prefixes and foreign suffixes or roots and affixes.

Example: technai (Latin Root) + -logy (Latin Suffix) = technology

- b. Affixations are very important in English word formation. Affixes include prefix, suffix, and infix. See above for examples of English affixes.
- c. Inflectional Affixes in English are all suffixes, but Derivational Affixes come both as prefixes and suffixes. See the table below for illustration:

Table 2:	Illustrating	Inflectional	and Der	ivational	Affixes
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Inflectional Affixes (Suffixes)	Derivational Affixes (Prefixes + Suffixes)
⊠ derive (V.) + -tion (Suffix) = derivation (N.)	⊠ in- (prefix) +flect(R.)+ - ion(suffix = inflection (N.)
☑ derivation (Stem)+-al (Suffix)= derivational(Adj.)	inflection+-al (Suffix) = inflectional(Adj.)
⊠ position(N.) + -al (Suffix) = positional (Adj)	☑ pre-(Prefix)+position(N)=preposition (N.)
⊠ ration (N.) +-al(Suffix)= rational (Adj.)	⊠ re- (prefix)+vision= revision (N.)
	⊠ revision+- ary(Suffix)=revisionary (Adj.)

- d. Derivational affixes are attached to lexical words to create new lexical words. As lexical words, these new words are also subject to the same kind of treatment in the language as all lexical words, e.g., they make their grammatical paradigms like other words In their grammatical category, they can serve as stems for other derivational affixes, and so on.
- e. Derivational affixes modify the meanings of the stems but not in a regular and fixed way as do inflectional affixes. The effect a derivational affix will have on the meaning of the stem cannot be predicted with exceptional regularity, though subsets of stems may show partial regularities. For example:

Inflectional Affix

affect (V.) +-ed = affect (V. Tense Past) Regular Change in Meaning

Derivational Affix

affect (V.) +-ion = affection (N.) Irregular Change in Meaning

- f. In a complex word containing both derivational and inflectional affixes, derivational affixes are attached first, inflectional affixes last. Once an inflectional affix has been attached to a stem, no derivational affixes can be attached to it. For example see Table i. under Inflectional Suffixes above.
- g. Unlike inflectional affixes, Derivational Affixes often change the grammatical category of the stem to which they are attached. Thus the addition of a derivational suffix may turn a verb into a noun, a noun into an adjective, an adjective into a verb, and so on. This cannot happen with inflectional affixes. For example see Table 1 under Inflectional Suffixes above.

When we pay closer attention to the English derivational affixes, we find a few more characteristics worth mentioning. They are:

- h. As compared to **inflectional affixes**, the number of derivational affixes is quite large. For example see Table 1 under **Inflectional Suffixes** above.
- While a bound grammatical morpheme (or, loosely, an inflectional affix) ccurs with all the members of a grammatical class, or subclass, without exception, a bound lexical morpheme (loosely, a derivational affix) may occur with only a few members of a class and not with others. For example see Table 1 under Inflectional Suffixes above.
- j. As we need to point out, the occurrence of bound grammatical morphemes is determined by grammatical rules, which apply without exception, whereas the occurrence of bound lexical morphemes is not so determined.

For example, the bound grammatical morpheme **Plural** occurs with all the members of the Count subclass of the class of Common Nouns, but the bound lexical morpheme **-ish**, though it occurs

with adjectives, cannot ccur with all the adjectives.

k. An inflectional affix does not occur with all the members of a given class, it occurs only with specific members of that class and not with the members of any other class. Derivational affixes, on the other hand, can sometimes occur with members of more than one class. For example see Table i Inflectional Suffixes above.

In the context of the relationship between the word, and English language literacy, it remains a fact that in all literate language communities there exists a notion of 'word', even if the way its nature is apprehended is not the same. For example, there are languages in which the entire English utterance consisting of three words '*I have eaten*' may be expressed by a single 'word'. In Bengali, expressions like '*kheycho*' and '*kheyechi*' are apprehended as single words but their English equivalents require three words each: Have you eaten?/ I have eaten. Languages may differ in the amounts of meaning they pour into individual words, but that does not effect the fundamental nature of words.

When we analyze the form national into the elements nation and **-al**, we have a feeling that we have now two elements, one of which **(nation) also occurs independently while the other (-al)** is a bound form and cannot occur independently. We have a similar kind of feeling about forms like **works**, **worked**, and **working** which we can respectively analyze into **work+ -s**, **work+ -ed** and **work+ -ing**. There is, however, a difference between suffix forms like **-al** on the one hand, and **-s**, **-ed**, and **-ing** on the other.

You can associate some kind of meaning with affixes like **-al** as we did above, but it is difficult to associate such meanings with affixes of the I atter set. For example, there is no specific way in which the meaning of the word 'run' in the sentence 'I ran' can be said to be different from the meaning of 'runs' in the sentence 'He runs'. It is the third person subject that requires the presence of the suffix **-s** in the verb in the latter sentence.

In other words, the suffix **-s**, here signifies the presence of a third person singular subject, in addition to signaling, in common with the word 'ran' of the former sentence, the presence of the simple present tense.

Affixes like **-s**, **-ed** and **-ing** derive their significance not from semantic meaning but from use, or from the functions they perform.

As we have stated earlier, the suffix **-ed** performs the function of signaling **past tense**, **-ing** that of signaling the continuous tense, and so on. In other words, such affixes perform **grammatical functions**. In this respect, they are rather like articles (**a**, **a**n, **the**) or auxiliaries (**am**, **is**, **was**, **can**, **may**,) which also have no dictionary-based lexical type meanings but **perform** certain types of Let us ask the following question:

> ⊠ Whether the affixes are meaningbearing affixes like -ic, -ical, or affixes with grammatical functions like -s, -ed – ing as the latter elements cannot occur independently?

Webster's definition quoted in the present article of IJMC expresses this fact by excluding from the definition of 'word' grammatical forms 'divisible into smaller units capable of independent use.'

In other words, word forms like **works**, **working**, **worked**, are included in the definition of words, because, though they are divisible into two smaller parts, the second parts are not capable of **independent** use. Only the first part is capable of **independent** use

We have observed that word - forms like **national**, **works**, **working** are indeed words as they are 'the smallest isolable meaningful elements' that are '(in) divisible into smaller units capable of independent use'.

We know that **morpheme** is free from the 'condition of **being used** independently' that the words must follow. It was this condition that has disqualified elements like **-al**, **-s**, **-ed**, and **-ing**, from being called **words**. Therefore, these forms are automatically included in the category of **morphemes**.

But so also are all independently occurring forms which are not made up of smaller independently occurring forms. This is because the definition of morpheme includes all 'smallest' elements, irrespective of whether they can occur independently or not.

With a morpheme defined in this way, words and morphemes necessarily enter into a particular kind of relationship. Let us define this relationship as that of 'composition': i.e. a word is 'composed' of one or more than one morpheme. Words like **nation**, **old**, **young**, **nice**, **play**, **run**, are called mono-morphemic (composed of one morpheme only) whereas dimorphic (composed of two morphemes only) words like **national**, **older**, **younger**, **nicest**, **played**, **running** are composed of two morphemes each. Of the two morphemes that make up each of the words in the second list, the first one is a free morpheme (capable of occurring independently), and the second one is a bound morpheme (incapable of occurring independently).

One can easily guess what the free morphemes are. As they also occur as mono-morphemic words (viz. **nation**, **old**, **young**, **nice**, **play**, **run**); the suffixes (-al -er, -est, -ed, -ing) are all bound morphemes in the list of words, mentioned above.

However, it is also possible for a word to be composed of two free morphemes, e.g., postman, blackboard, and goalkeeper.

In other words, by setting up the category of '**morpheme'** we are able to solve the problem the Bloomfield's definition of word as 'minimum free form' faced with compounds. You will recall that compound words were excluded from the category words by the Bloomfieldian definition as they were not minimum free forms: they were free but not minimum, as they consisted of smaller forms (like post, man, black, board, etc.).

With the setting up of the morpheme category, this problem no longer exists, as the smaller forms are now labelled as 'morphemes'. They can either occur as monomorphemic words, or can combine as free morphemes to form a compound.

Application Protocol of English Morphemes as Affixes

Among the **various** distinctions we made in the previous module, these will be particularly relevant to the present and the following units.

We shall therefore list and describe them in the context of **affixation** as a process of word formation in English:

A. Certain morphemes in English are such that they are realized at the- word level into independently occurring word forms, while others are realized, only in combination with other morphemes into merged forms where their separate identity may not always be- represented by phonological or orthographic means. In that case morphemes a re realized as **Affixes** in the course of English word formation.

- B. The free morphemes like **boy**, **book**, and **read** occur at the **word** level *as pre- existing and meaningful* free morphemes (i.e. independently occurring forms). The words, 'boyish', 'bookish' and 'reading' do enjoy the same status as English words.
- C. As opposed to grammatical morphemes, lexical morphemes are those morphemes which (individually or in combination with other lexical morphemes) are realized by lexical words at the word level. These include words belonging to the categories of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs that are considered as **Parts of Speech** in traditional School Grammar.
- D. Both grammatical and lexical morphemes can be free or bound. Articles, Pronouns and other Determiners¹ are examples of free grammatical morphemes as they are realized as freely occurring word forms.
- E. But morphemes like plural, present, past, continuous, past perfect, present perfect are not realized as free- occurring word forms but as modifications on other free-occurring lexical word forms. This is why they are called bound morphemes that are addable as **suffixes** in English. It is quite possible for some of these morphemes, if they occur in another language, to occur as free morphemes (Dey: 2013).
- F. Unlike lexical morphemes, grammatical morphemes are never considered for content meaning. Bur it would be wrong to conclude that they make no contribution to the meaning of the sentence. However, their contribution to meaning is made not by adding their own independent meaning to the aggregate but by modifying the meanings of the lexical words in the sentence in certain fixed ways.
- G. Bound lexical morphemes (-ish, al, -able, -ness) also make their contribution to meaning by modifying the meanings of the lexical morphemes with which they are combined, but

there is an important difference there from the way in which bound grammatical morphemes make their contribution to meaning.

- H. Bound grammatical morphemes, usually realized as **affixes** in the phonological forms, modify' the meanings of the lexical morphemes to which they are joined in fixed and regular ways, e.g., the addition of the bound morpheme Plural always adds the meaning 'more than one'
- I. Bound lexical morphemes, on the other hand, may modify' the meanings of different lexical morphemes in different ways. For example, the addition of the morpheme-suffix '--ize' to the noun symbol= adds the meaning 'to act as a ... of; its addition to the noun 'hospital' contributes the meaning 'to put in a hospital for treatment'. Added to the noun 'diesel', the same suffix '-ize' contributes the meaning 'to convert to diesel engine power' and so on. In other words, while the morphological effects on meaning of the bound grammatical morphemes are predictable, those of bound lexical morphemes are not predictable semantically.

We can present the information diagrammatically that emerges from the description made so far as follows:

English Morpheme and Allomorphs

In phonology, an allomorph is a variant form of a morpheme. You know that morpheme is the smallest unit of a language. A 'morph' (the root of the English word, 'morphology') is a morphological string (of phonemes) that cannot be broken down into smaller constituents that have a lexico-grammatical function. In some sense it corresponds to a word-form.

An **allomorph** is a morph that has a unique set of grammatical or lexical features. For example, the plural in English has three different morphs, making plural an allomorph, because there are alternatives. Other Examples:

Any of the phonological representations of a single morpheme: For **example**, the final /s/ and /z/ sounds of bets and beds are **allomorphs** of the English noun-plural morpheme.

While **orthography** registers the differences in written letters it fails to show the difference of utterances of the same '**morpheme**' in different

¹Better –known as Function Words or Functional Words.

phonological environments. As a matter of fact phonetic scripts can preserve the phonological differences of utterances. For example, the plural suffix is written as '-s' in the case of all the three words 'cats', 'dogs', and 'horses', but the suffix '-s' is pronounced as /s/ in 'cats'; in 'dogs', it is pronounced /z/; and in horses' it is pronounced /iz/.

Let us discuss why this is so. But this has nothing to do with syncretism² as these differences (and the parallel similarity in the orthographic shapes) occur within each grammatical category and not across categories.

Despite the phonological difference, each shape still realizes the same bound grammatical morpheme, the plural number bound morpheme.

To deal with this situation, where the same grammatical morpheme may be realized by two or more different phonological shapes, morphology has set up the concept of the **allomorph**. As mentioned above, any physical shape that realizes a morpheme (grammatical or lexical) is called a **morph**. If two or more morphs realize the same morpheme they are said to be **allomorphs** of that morpheme. Thus, **/s/ /z/** and **/iz/** are all **allomorphs** of the plural morpheme in the number paradigm of the English count noun. The allomorphs of a morpheme are mostly phonetically conditioned.

In other words the reason for the existence of the different phonological realizations of the same morpheme lies in the phonetic context of the given word. In our example, the reason why the plural morpheme is realized as the **voiceless suffix/s/** with **cat** is the voicelessness of */t/*, the immediately preceding sound. In dog, the immediately preceding sound /g/ is **voiced**, so the suffix too becomes the voiced counterpart of */s/*and becomes/z/. With the word, 'horse' ends in a sibilant or a hissing sound. The plural suffixes */s/* and */z/* are also sibilants and two sibilant sounds cannot be pronounced together in close succession.

Therefore, a vowel sound */i/* is inserted between them to make the suffix pronounceable. As */i/* is a voiced sound, the voiced suffix */z/* is the natural choice. Therefore the suffix */iz* is an allomorph of the morph **/s/.** As discussed above,/s/,/z/ and /iz/ are allomorphs not only of the plural morpheme but also of the Possessive morpheme. In fact, as we will see below, they are also the allomorphs of the Third Person Singular morpheme which combines with a verb when its subject is a third person singular subject.

Another good example of **allomorphs** can be give by referring to the indefinite article morpheme in English. This has two allomorphs:

'a' /ə/ and 'an', /ən/. Their phonetic conditioning is known to every English student: 'a' occurs before words beginning with a consonant, 'an' before words beginning with a vowel.

We know that a past tense **bound morpheme** in English is '-ed'. It occurs in several allomorphs depending on its specific phonological environment through assimilation of voicing of the **previous segment** or through insertion of a schwa after an alveolar stop:

i. As /ɪd/ in verbs whose stem ends with the alveolar stops /t/ or /d/ Examples:

'hunted' /hʌntɪd/;

'haunted' / ho:ntId/

'banded' /bændɪd/;

landed /'landid/

ii. As /t/ in verbs whose stem ends with **voiceless phonemes** other than /t/, Examples:

dished /dift/ ;

'fished' /fɪʃt/

iii. As /d/ in verbs whose stem ends with voiced phonemes other than /d/. Examples;

'budged' /bʌdʒd/

'buzzed' /bʌzd/

We have noticed that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the grammatical forms on the one hand and the phonological and orthographic words on the other in the case of **Eat** and **Sing**; no two grammatical words are realized by the same phonological or orthographic word.

In the case of **read**, there is a many-one relationship between the grammatical words and the

²i.e. the merging of different inflectional varieties of a word during the development of English language.

orthographic word, as all the three grammatical words (for now, we refer to them as the present tense form, the past tense form and the past participle form respectively) share the same orthographic form 'read'.

All the three words form the grammatical paradigm of an English lexical verb, which in the case of **Eat** and **Sing** have different orthographic realizations, have a common orthographic realization³ in this case. The relationship between the grammatical words and the phonological words is also many to one in the case of the past and past participle forms: both forms are realized as \red\, In the case of **Play**, the grammatical forms for past and past participle are in many-to-one relationship with both the phonological and the orthographic forms i.e. both grammatical forms correspond to a single orthographic and a single phonological word-shape ('**played'** and /**plaid**/ respectively).

In the case of **cut** this situation obtains with regard to all the three grammatical forms. The phenomenon of the realization of distinct grammatical words by the same word-shape are known in linguistics as syncretism. Syncretism is the evidence that we need to make a distinction between the word as a grammatical unit and the word as a lexical phonological or orthographic unit. In English, syncretism occurs widely, and not with verbs alone. Here are some examples which will further clarify the notion of syncretism⁴:

Grammareme: Verb

Table 3: Understanding Application of English Grammar

Verb Present	Verb Past	Verb Past Participle
I sing a song.	I sang a song.	I have sung a song.
I dance Samba [#] .	I danced Samba.	1 have danced Samba.
I cut my finger.	I cut my finger.	I have cut my finger.

[#]Brazilian lively and rhythmical Dance Style.

Grammareme: Agreement of Noun and Verb in different Structures

The reverse case of a one-to-many relationship between the grammatical word and the phonological or orthographic word, though less common, is not entirely absent. For example, the grammatical word 'past participle' of 'dream' is realized either by 'dreamed'/dri:mt/ or by 'dreamt' /dremt/.

Table 4: Understanding Application of English Noun-Verb Agreement

Noun Singular	Noun Plural
A cow was killed by the tiger.	Three cows were killed by the tiger.
A deer was killed by the lion.	Three deer were killed by the lion.
The <i>man</i> <u>was</u> walking fast	All Men were walking fast
She <u>is</u> a working <i>woman</i> .	They <u>are</u> all working <i>women</i>

Table 5: Understanding Application of English Possessive Case

Possessive Case	Possessive Case
Singular Possessive	Plural Possessive
This is the man's <i>/mænz/</i> room.	This is the men's /menz/ room.
This is the boy's /boiz/school.	This is the boys' /boiz/school

In American English, the grammatical word 'past tense of 'dive' corresponds to two phonological and orthographic words each: /daivd/ 'dived' and /d/v/ 'dove'.

Also included in the category of grammatical words are classes of words like **articles**, **pronouns**, **auxiliaries**, conjunctions and prepositions.

These words are also sometimes called '**functional words**'. If at all listed in a dictionary they are defined in terms of the grammatical functions they perform rather than in terms of their meanings as they do not carry lexical meanings in the sense in which a **lexeme** does.

Therefore, they do not correspond to lexical words (Words that are semantically processed and compiled for the sake of meaningful communication).

As grammatical words, however, they are all capable of abstract characterization and also display syncretism.

For example, the two pronouns, second person singular and plural, correspond to the same phonological and orthographic word-shape 'you' and thus display syncretism. Similarly, four present tense auxiliary forms, and the four corresponding past tense forms - the first person plural, the second person singular and plural, and the third person plural - are ail

³The word, '**read**' is written as '**read**' in Verb Present, Verb Past as well as in Past Participle application.

⁴phenomenon of the realization of distinct grammaremes without any change in the surface structure of a word.

syncretized to single phonological/orthographic forms 'are' and 'were' respectively. It would be safe to say that a combination of phonemes may be '**realized'** as a morpheme, which is a pre-existing meaningful unit represented in written form. Therefore, when a combination of phonemes is realized as a morpheme, it automatically acquires meaning.

We must remember that not all combinations of phonemes are realized as **morphemes**: only those which acquire meaning are realized as **morphemes** (Phonemes that have acquired currency as orthographically available lexemes or grammaremes). Similarly not all combinations of morphemes are realized as words; only those morphemes which acquire the properties of a word, are realized as words.

Another reason for -postulating the relationship of realization between the levels of morpheme and word is that this enables us to account for those cases in which the morpheme, a meaningful element, has no phonological or orthographic⁵ manifestation (Carter: 1987).

To illustrate, in the following words we are able to associate distinct phonological and orthographic fragments with the two morphemes that make up each word:

The morphemic analysis of these words will yield the following morphemes:

Table 6: Analyzing English Morpho -Phonological Implication

Orthographic	Kill + -ed;	take + -en;	horse + -s
Phonological	/kill/+ /-d/;	/teik/+ /-n/;	/hɔːs/+ /iz/

However, this situation does not occur in the following forms:

Table 7: Analyzing English Morpho -Phonological Implication

Orthographic	took	Sung	sheep
Phonological	/tuk/	/s∧ŋ/	/ <i>f</i> i:p/

Here we do not have clearly identifiable orthographic and phonological segments lo represent

the morphemes, though we know that the same bound morphemes (past tense, past participle tense, plural number) are also present here.

CONCLUSION

The characteristic features of Morphological structures of English language can easily be adapted in Media Science and mass Communication through the study that can distinguish the inflectional morphology of English from its derivational morphology with reference to their extensive application in morphology. In conclusion, let us have a pragmatic approach for complete understanding:

- Inflectional affixes (as pointed out by Hocket in1958) never change the grammatical category (part of speech) of the stem: a noun remains a noun, a verb a verb, an adjective an adjective even after an affix has been added to it. Pragmatic Examples:
- i. Oil (V.) + -ed = oiled (V. Past Tense)
- ii. Read (V.) + -s = reads (V.)
- iii. Steward (N._Male) +-ess = stewardess (N._Female)
- 2. Derivational affixes **may or may not change** the grammatical category of the stem: Examples:
- i. Friend (N.) + -ship = friendship (N.)
- ii. Modern (Adj.) + -ize modernize (V.)
- iii. Read (V.) + -able readable (Adj)
- iv. Nude (Adj.) + -ity nudity (N.)
- 3. Derivational prefixes in particular do not seem to affect the category of the stem.
- i. Dis- + obey (V.) disobey (V.)
- ii. Re-+ charge (V.) recharge (V.)
- iii. Mis-+ fortune (N.) misfortune (N.) Exception: en-+ circle (N.) encircle (V.)
- iv. Inflectional affixes in English are all suffixes; Derivational affixes may be prefixes or suffixes.
- v. Both derivational and inflectional morphemes may occur in the same word, but when that happens derivational morphemes are attached

⁵related to representations of speech or narrative through written scripts.

first and inflectional morphemes last, i.e. derivation creates the input to inflection but not vice versa.

- vi. Once an inflectional affix has been attached to a form, no other affixes can be added to it.
- vii. As a result, in a complex word the inflectional affixes mark the outer layer and the derivational affixes the inner layer. Note how the formation of the word **deindustrializing** illustrates this point (Katamba:1994):

 Table 8: Root and Affixes of English Word

 'Deindustrializing'

Root	industry
Derivational S 1	industr (i) + al
Derivational S 2	(industr (i) + al) +- ize
Derivational P 2	de + {(industr (i) + al) + ize}
Inflectional S 1	{de+ {(industr (i) + al) + ize}) +ing}

The addition of a bound lexical morpheme (i.e. a derivational affix) creates a new lexeme (i.e. a lexical word) which can independently convert to a grammatical word through the application of appropriate grammatical rules (Lyons:1977).

- viii. If both compounding and inflection take place, inflection follows compounding. If compounding, derivation and inflection all three occur, they follow the stated order, e.g., kickstarted =(kick +-start) + -ed; channel-hopping = (channel + hop) + -p- + -ing; footballers = {(foot +- ball) +-er) + -s.
- ix. Inflectional affixes modify the meanings of the stem in a regular and predictable way, e.g. the plural affix, the past affix, etc. The meaning change affected by derivational affixes is **unpredictable**.

⁶Process of combining two or more free morphemes as words and targeting a singular meaning through such word compounding. Needs a bit of redrafting.

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Let us reiterate the following morpho-phonological setting:

Table 9:

Orthographic	killed	Taken	horses
Phonological	/kild/	/teikn/	/hɔːsiz/

This morphemic analysis is based on the assumption that specific meanings or grammatical functions are associated with each of the forms. The meanings associated with the free morphemes kill, take and horse are specified in the dictionary', while the grammar of English assigns the past tense formation function, the past participle formation function and the plural noun formation function to the bound morphemes — ed, -en and -s respectively. Thus, each of the morphemes (the smallest meaningful elements) has a clearly identifiable phonological and orthographic representation. This makes it possible for us to say that the word killed is 'made up' of the morphemes **'kill + ed** or/**kill + /d**/, t the word taken is made up of the morphemes **take + en** or /**teik/ + /n/** and so on.

This approach to study morphological structure will boost up processing of Vocabulary and lexicogrammatical research towards application-oriented mass communication in general and growth of media Science and Electronic Media-enabled spurt in social media and global mass Communication in particular.

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