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Modern English is not now ordered by gender, although we still have a few biological gendered words, such as; he, she, it. The main change over time is related to the singular and plural - s and -'s. The -s ending is used toseparatesingular from plural. The -'s that we now put on the end of words is used to signifypossession. Nowadays grammatical information is given to us by function words and word order (prepositions,auxiliaries), whereas grammatical information used to be given in the form of inflectional endings and modified Morphology refers to the study of the structure of words, and syntax is the study of the structure of sentences. English has gone from being a synthetical language to a analytical language. Synthetical language consisted of inflectional word choices to signal the relationships between words, to and analyticallanguage where wordorder and function words likeauxiliaries and prepositionsrepresent the grammatical relationships between words. The changes over time:Old English has an extremely complicated language, where each word was classed as a gender. As mentioned previously, the term 'gender' in this casedoesn't refer to the biological meanings that we relate gender to these days, but instead to the 'type' or 'kind' of word. The gendered nouns fell into one of three categories, masculine, feminine or neuter. Within these three categories, matters are further complicated when they are put into subgroups, or declensions, which had an effect on the endings the words took. Determiners (the) and adjectives (joyful) had to agree with their nouns in case, gender and number (singular/plural) to determine which word ending would be used in the context. Anextremely complicated system for anyone! The complexity of the language called for a change...thankgod for that! All languages are either synthetic or analytical. A synthetic languages shows grammatical relationships through inflectional changes in the words, whereas an analytical language represents the grammatical relationships through word order. English was once synthetic, but over time has become an analytical language. In Old English, gender was applicable to words as well as their case. case being either nominative (the subject), genetive (possessor), accusative (the direct object) or dative (the indirect object). To understand this concept it is important to know that when english uses gender, they are not implying that everything is either a boy, girl or neither, but simply refering to class, which is essential for conjugation in synthetic languages. English no longer uses grammatical genders, and only uses biological gender in the case of he, she and it. Other languages however still use grammatical gender, for example French. By Medieval times the difficult system of masuline, feminine and neuter was beginning to diminish, resulting partially from the success of -s as a plural ending. Determining word endings no longer totally relied on case and gender, but was instead normalising as -s became a popular choice for new words. This was the beginning ofEnglish shifting from a synthetic language toan analytical one. Verb conjugations like fly - flew and run - ran were much more common in Old English than they are in the Modern English we speak today. They were known as 'strong verbs', while verbs that hold the -ed ending were known as 'weak verbs'. The past tense ending -ed has now become the standard and come to replace the other, 'stronger' endings (bring - brang, ring - rung), just as the plural ending -s came to replace other, more difficultchoices. This is why 'strong verbs' are known today as 'irregular verbs', put simply, they are no longer the norm and are few and far between when compared with the 'weak' verbs. The standardising of both -s and -ed endings are great examples of the process of analogy. The process of analogy occurs when a particular ending or rule becomes so popular that it becomes the 'normal' choice and all new words will follow the same process when conjugated. For example, if you post a tweet on twitter, you have tweeted something. notice the -ed ending when used in the past tense? this is the process of analogy. In many languages, root morphemes may combine with different inflectional affixes (see Section 5.2 for discussion of root morphemes and Section 5.7 for discussion of inflectional affixes). The resulting set of words is called the roots inflectional paradigm or just paradigm for short. Verb paradigms are sometimes called conjugations, while noun and adjective paradigms are sometimes called declensions, especially in language learning courses. An example paradigm is given in Table 14.1 for the English verb move.Table 14.1. Inflectional paradigm formove in Englishmovepresent tense, except for third-person singular (I move)movesthird-person singular present (she moves)movedpast tense and past participle (I moved, I have moved)movingpresent participle (I am moving)Many other English verbs (check, end, sign, etc.) have this same basic pattern in their paradigms, so it can also be useful to talk about that pattern as a kind of paradigm itself, separate from specific verb roots. This basic verb paradigm in English is given in Table 14.2.Table 14.2. Basic verb paradigm in EnglishROOTpresent tense, except for third-person singularROOT-sthird-person singular presentROOT-edpast tense and past participleROOT-ingpresent participleThis basic paradigm has a few cases of syncretism, which is when two or more distinct parts of a paradigm are pronounced identically. Most notably, this basic paradigm has syncretism in the past tense and past participle, which both have the suffix ed and no differences in the root. However, there are many other verb paradigms in English with different patterns. For example, some verbs do not have syncretism in the past tense and past participle forms, such as show, which has the paradigm in Table 14.3, where the past tense has the suffix ed, while the past participle has the suffix n.Table 14.3. Paradigm forshow in Englishshowpresent tense except for third-person singular (I show)showsthird-person singular present (she shows)showedpast tense (I showed)shownpast participle (I have shown)showingpresent participle (I am showing)In addition, many verbs undergo changes in pronunciation of the root in some parts of the paradigm, such as internal change (changing one or more phones in the root) or even suppletion (changing the entire root); see Section 5.3 for discussion. Some examples of paradigms of English verbs with internal changes and suppletion are given in Table 14.4, with internal changes highlighted in blue and suppletion highlighted in orange. Note that gone has an internal change, with the vowel of the root changing from [o] to [], thouh this is not apparent from the spelling.Table 14.4. Paradigms forring and go in Englishinternal changesuppletionringgopresent tense except for third-person singularringsgoesthird-person singular presentrangwentpast tenserunggonepast participleringinggoingpresent participleEnglish has many different verb paradigms, mostly with internal change. In addition to the ring-rang-rung pattern, there are patterns like fly-flew-flown, ride-rode-ridden, speed-sped-sped, speak-spoke-spoken, and think-thought-thought. There are even degenerate patterns like hit-hit-hit, put-put-put, and quit-quit-quit, which have a large amount on syncretism, resulting in only a single form where many other verbs have three different forms.Differences between paradigms can be a source of language change. Languages often shift to make their paradigms more consistent, either within a single paradigm or across multiple paradigms. They may copy existing patterns from elsewhere in the same paradigm or from a completely different paradigm. This kind of copying of paradigm patterns is part of a general type of language change called analogy. Analogy was introduced in Section 14.3 for sound change, but it is also a significant driving force in morphological change.Recall from Section 14.3 the following sound change from Old English to Middle English that explains why words like sword are pronounced with [s] rather than [sw]:[sw] > [s] / back vowelFor the verb swear, the root and most other forms have a front vowel, so these forms did not change [sw], which still remains in Modern English: swear, swears, and swearing. However, swear had the same paradigm as speak, so it had a back vowel in the past tense and past participle forms: swore andsworn, just like spoke and spoken.If the [sw] > [s] change had affected swore andsworn as expected, then we would now pronounce them with [s], just like we do for sword. However, by analogy with the rest of the swear paradigm, the [sw] was retained in all of swears forms, blocking the sound change from applying to swore andsworn, which keeps the paradigm more consistent.Analogy commonly results in a reduction in the total number of allomorphs a root has in its paradigm (see Section 5.4 for discussion of allomorphy). This type of analogy that reduces the number of allomorphs is called analogical levelling. Many verbs in English have undergone analogical levelling by changing from a paradigm with multiple root allomorphs to just one allomorph. For example help used to have three root allomorphs in Middle English (help, halp, holp), but these underwent analogical levelling in Modern English so that there is now only one root allomorph (help), by analogy with many other verbs, like float and hope, as shown in Table 14.5.Table 14.5. Analogical levelling in the paradigm for help in EnglishMiddle EnglishModern EnglishhelphelpfloathopehalphelpedfloatedhopedholpenhelpedfloatedhopedMore rarely, analogy can result in increasing the number of root allomorphs by analogical extension of some other paradigm. For example, the Old English verb hring ring had a paradigm with only one root allomorph (hring), but it shifted throughout Middle English and into Modern English to have three root allomorphs (ring, rang, rung), following the paradigm of verbs like begin and sing, as shown in Table 14.6.Table 14.6. Analogical extension in the paradigm for ringin EnglishOld EnglishModern EnglishhringeringbeginsinghringderangbegansanghringedrungbegunsungAnalogy can change the inflectional affixes in a paradigm instead of the root morpheme. For example, some nouns in Middle English could form their plural by adding n. This n is still retained in a few modern words like oxen and children, but it was replaced in Modern English with s for nearly all other nouns: eyen > eyes, schon > shoes, treen > trees, etc. This change was due to analogy with the plural patternwith s that other Middle English nouns followed: cloudes clouds, foxes, heedes heads, etc.Change in morphological structureThe morphological structure of individual words or expressions can also undergo change. One type of change to morphological structure is reanalysis or rebracketing, where an existing morphological boundary shifts across one or more phones. The result is that the word or expression still contains the same morphemes, but some of the phones have shifted from one morpheme to another.This happened in the history of the English word apron. Middle Englishnaperon was borrowed from Old French naperon tablecloth, and it continued asnapron into Early Middle English. Like many nouns, napron was frequently used with the indefinite article, as a napron. However, the definite article a has a second forman which is used before words that begin with a vowel, as in an apple. By reanalysis, the boundary between the article and the noun was shifted. This caused the [n] to be treated as part of the articlerather than the noun, that is,a napron was reanalyzed asan apron. As a result, when the noun was used by itself, it become apron. Interestingly, the reverse boundary shift happened fornewt, which was originally ewte, and by reanalysis,an ewte changed toa newte. See Figure 14.8 for a diagram of how reanalysis affected bothnapron and ewte.Figure 14.8. Reanalysis of (n)apron and (n)ewt.We still see the original [n] in(n)apron in related words likenapkin andnape, which did not undergo reanalysis. Similarly, we see the original lack of [n] in (n)ewt in the related word eft, which is used in the term red eft, the name for a juvenile eastern newt (Notophthalmus viridescens).Another way that the morphological structure of a word or expression can change is if new morphemes or a new structure is imposed upon it that it did not have before. This is called folk etymology or sometimes corruption, in which users of a language treat a word as having an etymology that it does not actually have, and this changes how they interpret its morphological structure. They may even invent completely new morphemes to build the folk etymology, and these morphemes could end up being used to create new words later. The folk etymology normally has some combination of matching phonology and semantics to the original word, though sometimes only the phonology matches.Folk etymology can be seen in the development of the English word woodchuck, which was a late 1600s borrowing from an Algonquian language. The exact source is not known, but a likely candidate is the word [tek] (ochek) fisher (Pekania pennanti, a relative of martens and wolverines) from Cree, which is a dialect continuum in the Algonquian family, spoken in Canada and the United States.Since [tek] contains phones used in English, it could have just been straightforwardly adapted into English with little change. However, its lack of transparent morphology lead to it being reinterpreted as a compound of wood and chuck throw, giving a possible etymology (an animal that throws wood around, perhaps) with a similar pronunciation: [wdtk] versus [tek]. Real woodchucks do not in fact do anything special with wood, let alone throw it, but the phonological similarity and vague semantics were enough to reinforce this folk etymology. Other examples of folk etymology in English are given in (1).(1)a.Old English angngl hangnail was originally a compound of ange tight; painful and ngl nail, but it was eventually reanalyzed through folk etymology as hangnail, through influence from both phonological and semantic similarity to hang, since hangnails are pieces of torn flesh that hang next to the nail.b.Spanish cucaracha cockroach was borrowed into English and reanalyzed as cockroach, a folk etymology influenced by phonological similarity to the existing words cock rooster; male chicken and roach fish in the genera Hesperoleucus or Rutilus, which both also refer to animals, though very different kinds, so there is only weak semantic similarity. A further change is that cockroach is now often clipped to justroach.c.Old French meisseron mushroom was borrowed into Middle English and reanalyzed as mushroom, a folk etymology influenced by phonological similarity to the existing words mush androom, with no notable semantic influence.Folk etymology likely begins at an individual level, often due to a misperception of the real word, when it is sometimes called an eggcorn (Liberman 2003). The term eggcorn itself is also an eggcorn, in this case, a common misinterpretation of acorn. Examples of eggcorns in English are given in (2), some of which are more commonly used and accepted than others.(2)a.chomping at the bit < champing at the bitb.cold slaw < coleslawc.hone in < home ind.for all intensive purposes < for all intents and purposese.wet your appetite < whet your appetiteMany eggcorns are only obvious in spelling, because the replacement is pronounced the same as the original, as in the English examples given in (3).(3)a.deep-seeded < deep-seatedb.free reign < free reinc.of < -ve (as in could of, should of, etc.)d.peak my interest < pique my intereste.tow the line < toe the lineImportantly, folk etymology and eggcorns are fundamentally the same process, just with different levels of acceptance: eggcorns are used by individuals, while folk etymologies are used by an entire language community. A person is not less intelligent or less competent at English for using cold slaw or could of instead of coleslaw and couldve. Indeed, they are demonstrating the very same creative insight into English that speakers used centuries ago for words like woodchuck and hangnail. As with any case of variation, their version of the language may be mocked now, but it could eventually become the accepted version used by everyone, transitioning from an eggcorn into a folk etymology.A similar concept is a mondegreen (Wright 1954), which is like an eggcorn in that it is also an idiosyncratic misperception by individual language users. The difference between an eggcorn and a mondegreen is their different effects on the meaning. With an eggcorn, the fundamental meaning is still the same: eggcorn still refers to an acorn, cold slaw still refers to coleslaw, etc. But with a mondegreen, there is a change to the semantics as well as the pronunciation.The original example of a mondegreen (and the name of the phenomenon) comes from a 1954 article by Sylvia Wright. In her article, Wright discusses her own childhood misunderstanding of the lyrics of The Bonny Earl of Murray (a.k.a. The Bonnie Earl O Moray), an old Scottish ballad that appeared in a collection of songs, poems, and ballads published by Thomas Percy in 1765. The first stanza of the original as published by Percy (1765: 211) is on the left in Table 14.7, with a modernized version on the right.Table 14.7. First stanza of The Bonny Earl of MurrayYe highlands, and ye lawlands,Oh ! whair hae ye been ?They hae slaine the Earl of Murray,And hae layd him on the green.You highlands, and you lowlands,Oh, where have you been?They have slain the Earl of Murray,And have laid him on the green.Wright misheard the final line as and Lady Mondegreen, imaging that Lady Mondegreen was perhaps the Earl of Murrays wife, and both had been killed. This changes not only the pronunciation and morphology, but also the meaning. Wrights mondegreen includes someone who did not even exist in the original!Mondegreens are often the result of mishearing lyrics from a song or poem. Perhaps one of the most famous mondegreens is scuse me while I kiss this guy as a mishearing of scuse me while I kiss the sky from the 1967 song Purple Haze by the Jimi Hendrix Experience. Jimi Hendrix can be heard singing the relevant lyric starting at 0:45 in the video linked here: . Note that the mondegreen changes the meaning of the lyric to something that is more physically plausible (kissing a guy versus kissing the sky), which is why it so easily arises.Just as an eggcorn may become frequent enough for everyone to adopt it as part of the language as a folk etymology (as happened with woodchuck), a mondegreen may become so common that the standard version of the song changes to match the new misheard lyrics. For example, in the first published version of The Twelve Days of Christmas (from a childrens book of unknown authorship from around 1780), the fourth present given to the singer was four colly birds, where colly is an older word for black related to coal. However, by the 1909 version arranged by Frederic Austin, colly had become an obsolete word, and the lyric had shifted to the mondegreen four calling birds, no longer referencing the birds colour at all. Unlike with an eggcorn becoming a folk etymology, there is no special name for a mondegreen like this that becomes standardized.Folk etymology can also result in back formation, which is a special type of neologism that creates a new morpheme from the false morphological structure, in which the new morpheme is used beyond the original word it was created for. The new morpheme could be a free morpheme or a bound morpheme, depending on the situation.For example, English borrowed the word emotion from French, but because there are many English nouns having the structure of verb plus the suffix (t)ion, emotion was incorrectly analyzed as having the same structure: emoteion. This resulted in the creation of the new free morpheme emote in English. Many other verbs were created in English the same way: donate, resurrect, secrete, etc.Back formation can also create new bound morphemes, like the English suffix holic (or oholic or aholic), which is back-formed by treating the word alcoholic as if it had the structure alco-holic or alc-oholic, even though it has no such structure (it is actually structured as the Arabic loanword alcohol plus the adjective suffix -ic). This invented morpheme -holic is treated as meaning addict, and it can be used fairly productively to create new words, like chocoholic chocolate addict, shopaholic shopping addict, sugarholic sugar addict, workaholic work addict, etc.A word that uses a back-formed bound morpheme like holic looks a lot like a blend; that is, we might think of shopaholic as being a blend of shopand alcoholic, rather than being shop plus the back-formed suffix holic. However, blending usually results in only a single neologism, while a morpheme created through back formation could be used to create many new words. Language is flexible though, and it could be difficult in some cases to draw a clear boundary between blending and back formation. Other examples of back formation in English are given in (4).(4)a.Some verbs like babysitand edit were back-formed from nouns (babysitterand editor) that are similar to other nouns that are built from a verb plus the suffix er or or, likebaker and sailor.b.Some singular nouns like bicepand pea were back-formed from nouns (bicepsand pease) that were originally already singular, but they seemed like regular plurals ending in s, so they were misinterpreted as plurals, requiring new singulars to be created.c.The prefix cyber was back-formed from the wordcybernetics and can now be used quite productively to derive new words having to do online activities, like cyberbullying, cybercafe, cyberspace, etc.Change in morphosyntaxMorphology and syntax are intimately related, especially in the realm of grammatical functions, like verb tense and noun case (see Section 5.7 for many others). Because of the tight connection between morphology and syntax, they often seem to behave as two aspects of the same underlying concept, called morphosyntax. Diachronic changes that affect both the morphology and the syntax of a language, as well as changes to just the syntax, are discussed in Section 14.5. Check your understanding ReferencesAnonymous. circa 1780. Mirth without mischief. Comtaining [sic] The twelve days of Christmas; The play of the gaping-wide mouthed wadling frog; Love and hatred; The art of talking with the fingers; and Nimble Neds alphabet and figures. London: J. Davenport and C. Sheppard.Austin, Frederic (arr.) 1909. The twelve days of Christmas (traditional song). London: Novello & Co.Klafehn, Terry. 2003. Emergent properties of Japanese verbal inflection. PhD dissertation, University of Hawaii.Liberman, Mark. 2003. Egg corns, folk etymology, malapropism, mondegreen, ???. 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Non-Pama-Nyungan Languages Northeast Caucasian Languages Nostratic Number Numerals Oceanic Languages Papuan Languages Penutian Languages Philosophy of Language Phonetics Phonetics, Acoustic Phonetics, Articulatory Phonological Research, Psycholinguistic Methodology in Phonology Phonology, Computational Phonology, Early Child Pidgins Polarity Policy and Planning, Language Politeness in Language Polysemy Positive Discourse Analysis Possessives, Acquisition of Pragmatics, Acquisition of Pragmatics, Cognitive Pragmatics, Computational Pragmatics, Cross-Cultural Pragmatics, Developmental Pragmatics, Experimental Pragmatics, Game Theory in Pragmatics, Historical Pragmatics, Institutional Pragmatics, Second Language Pragmatics, Teaching Prague Linguistic Circle, The Presupposition Pronouns Psycholinguistics Quechuan and Aymaran Languages Questions Reading, Second-Language Reciprocals Reduplication Reflexives and Reflexivity Register and Register Variation Relevance Theory Representation and Processing of Multi-Word Expressions in... Salish Languages Sapir, Edward Saussure, Ferdinand de Second Language Acquisition, Anaphora Resolution in Semantic Maps Semantic Roles Semantic-Pragmatic Change Semantics, Cognitive Sentence Processing in Monolingual and Bilingual Speakers Sign Language Linguistics Slang Sociolinguistics Sociolinguistics, Variationist Sociopragmatics Sonority Sound Change South American Indian Languages Specific Language Impairment Speech, Deceptive Speech Perception Speech Production Speech Synthesis Suppletion Switch-Reference Syllables Syncretism Synonymy Syntactic Change Syntactic Knowledge, Childrens Acquisition of Tense, Aspect, and Mood Text Mining Tone Tone Sandhi Topic Transcription Transitivity and Voice Translanguaging Translation Trubetzkoy, Nikolai Tucanoan Languages Tupian Languages Typology Usage-Based Linguistics Uto-Aztecan Languages Valency Theory Verbs, Serial Vocabulary, Second Language Voice and Voice Quality Vowel Harmony Whitney, William Dwight Word Classes Word Formation in Japanese Word Recognition, Spoken Word Recognition, Visual Word Stress Writing, Second Language Writing Systems Yiddish Zapotecan Languages Down

Morphological changes examples. Morphological changes in english. Elucidate the morphological and syntactic changes in the english language of modern times. What is morphological changes.

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