Further evidence for self-organization in English spelling

GEORGE HANSON (2018) makes two claims in his response to our article about self-organization in spelling (Berg & Aronoff 2017): our explanation is redundant, and the phenomena we address can be better captured in more traditional terms. In our article, we showed first that the relation between graphemic form and morphological function is isomorphic for some suffixes, for example, the adjectival suffix -ous: in today’s English, all and only adjectives with this morpheme are spelled with final <ous>, even though phonographically, more words could be spelled that way in American varieties (cf. nervous/service). We also demonstrated that this system evolved gradually in an unsupervised process of self-organization. Sampson does not contest our synchronic statement, but brings forth a variety of distinct accounts for our diachronic findings. Overall, he suggests that phonology and etymology are sufficient to explain why the spellings are the way they are: in British English, nervous and service have (and more importantly, had) distinct reduced vowels. The distinct spelling is thus explicable from phonology here. Other spellings, Sampson argues, follow a widespread convention preferring etymological spellings: service has an <i> in Latin, and <ous> stems from Latin -os-; that is why *<servous> is not the accepted form. No need for a distinct principle of self-organization, says Sampson, because all the data are accounted for already.

There are three misunderstandings in Sampson’s response. We take responsibility for the first, though not for the second and third. Let us start with the first. Synchronically, we showed that graphemic form and morphological function are isomorphic. We then ask how this situation arose historically, but the fact is that we looked at only half of the historical story. To show this, we need to step back a little and look at the relation between form and function. It is fine to talk about isomorphism as above—but it can be helpful to take the relation apart: we can distinguish between uniformity and uniqueness. Uniformity denotes the degree of consistency with which a function is represented in its form: is there more than one spelling for the suffix? Today, -ous is spelled (almost) uniformly <ous>, but in earlier stages of English, there were variants (e.g. <us>, <ouse>), so we can say that the spelling of this adjective suffix has become more uniform over the centuries. Uniqueness flips the perspective; it denotes the degree of consistency with which a form represents a function. Is there more than one interpretation for this string of graphemes? While <ous> is unique in representing this one adjectival suffix, other suffix spellings are not; <er> represents (among others) the agentive nominal suffix in <singer> and the comparative suffix in <longer>, but also a nonmorphological word ending in <hammer>. Both uniformity and uniqueness are independent of phonology: they deal with the relation between spelling and morphology. When we take phonology into account, it is as circumstantial evidence: the fact that a number of words in today’s American English could potentially be spelled with <ous> (e.g. service) is a further argument for the uniqueness.

1 There is one systematic exception: in cases where -ous derivations are themselves derived with -ity, -ous is spelled <os> as in generous – generosity.
Synchronically, we showed that -\textit{ous}/<ous> is both unique and uniform—but diachronically, we investigated only the uniformity of the suffix. We asked whether Latinate loans like \textit{status} were responsible for the decline of the <us>-variant of -\textit{ous} like <\textit{humerus}> (short answer: probably not)—that is a question of uniqueness. But we did not investigate the uniqueness of each spelling variant in each time period, simply because the investigation was extensive enough already. That does not mean the question is uninteresting. A superficial search in the Helsinki corpus (a selection of English texts produced before 1710) indeed shows a number of words whose endings are like variant spellings of the suffix -\textit{ous} (<\textit{ous}>, <\textit{ouse}>), but that did not contain the suffix, for example, <almous dedes> ‘alms’, <felouse> ‘fellows’, <alehous> ‘alehouse’, or <sparous> ‘sparrows’. It remains an open question how unique the respective spellings were at any given time.

We now have data that show a striking case of the emergence of uniqueness over time in the spelling of the nominal and adjectival suffixes -\textit{y}. Of the three suffixes that the letter <y> represents (adjectival -\textit{y} as in \textit{windy}, nominal -\textit{y} as in \textit{harmony}, and diminutive -\textit{y} as in \textit{granny}; Bauer et al. 2013), one is leaving the set: the diminutive suffix is increasingly often spelled <ie>. To show this, we use a list of 431 Oxford English Dictionary (OED) entries with the diminutive suffix -\textit{y} (suffix -\textit{y}\textsuperscript{6} in OED terminology\textsuperscript{2} and check each variant spelling in the Corpus of Historical American English (CoHA; http://corpus.byu.edu/coha/). The corpus contains over 400 million words from 1810 to 2000. We searched 331 words\textsuperscript{3} in both spelling variants in the corpus and calculated the ratio of <\textit{y}>-spellings for each word in each decade. Plotting the mean of these ratios over time results in the graph in Figure 1.

\begin{figure}[ht]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure1.png}
\caption{Percentage of diminutives with OED suffix -\textit{y}\textsuperscript{6} that are spelled with <\textit{y}> as opposed to <\textit{ie}> in the Corpus of Historical American English.}
\end{figure}

\textsuperscript{2} We would like to thank Oxford University Press for providing us with this list.

\textsuperscript{3} One hundred words were excluded because (a) they end with <\textit{ey}>, so the <\textit{ie}> variant is graphotactically impossible (e.g. <\textit{nursey}>, *<\textit{nurseie}>); (b) the entry is a plural form (e.g. \textit{panties}); or (c) they are homographic to other forms in the list (e.g. \textit{rummy} ‘card game’ vs. \textit{rummy} ‘odd person’).
The proportion of types that are spelled with <y> is steadily declining. More and more diminutives are spelled with <ie> instead; this is part of a trend that spans two centuries.

Not only does the general trend for the set of diminutives point toward <ie>, but newly coined diminutives also appear in the <ie>-spelling more and more often. We show this using the OED data on the first recorded usage. For each of the 183 words in the list of diminutives that first appear (a) in singular form and (b) in 1780 or later (before that, there are too few new words to draw reliable conclusions), we noted the year of the first recording and whether this first recorded form ends with <y> or <ie>. In the following graph, the ratio of newly coined words with <y> (as a proportion of all newly appearing diminutives with <y> and <ie>) is plotted in twenty-year bins.

![Graph showing percentage of newly appearing diminutives with ÖED suffix -y that are spelled with <y> as opposed to <ie>.

From 1800 on, the newly recorded diminutives also show a trend toward <ie>, from more than 80% with <y> in 1800–1820 to less than 50% in the second half of the twentieth century. The lower level before 1800 can be explained by the fact that most new words at that time are Scots loans, as Sampson rightly points out; by 1800, however, the majority of words in each time span are formed in English, where the <y> spelling predominates throughout the nineteenth century. Both sets of data—the way diminutives are dominantly spelled and the way they are spelled when they first appear—support our hypothesis that the uniqueness of <y> is increasing by ‘outsourcing’ the diminutive suffix to the form <ie>.

But even if we limited the scope and investigated only uniformity diachronically—that is, without the arguments we just provided that the uniqueness is increasing for <y>—would that invalidate our point? Most certainly not. We take the fact that spelling was standardized without external influence as an argument for the self-organization of the writing system. This claim is of course controversial and far from self-evident. It taps into the age-old discussion of who is responsible for the standardization of English: printers or scholars? The long-established view was that it was the former: ‘the printer
with his professional sense of the importance of the mechanical side of his art, always strives for complete consistency and regularity’ (Krapp 1909:172). But then Brengelman (1980) famously argued the case for sixteenth- and seventeenth-century scholars:

There is no evidence whatever of any printing house taking a serious interest in the regularization of English spelling. … There is abundant evidence, on the other hand, that linguistic scholars knew each other’s work well, that schoolmasters followed their recommendations, and that the spelling practice that emerged late in the [seventeenth] century was the result of this collaboration. (Brengelman 1980:333f.)

Unfortunately, though, the data are not as clear as Brengelman suggests. Take one of the major ‘improvements brought about by seventeenth-century scholars’, namely ‘the rationalization of the use of final e’ (Brengelman 1980:347): silent final <e> had become a marker for vowel quality, distinguishing the phonological vowels in, for example, mad and made. That in turn meant that final <e> stopped being used after double consonants (as in sixteenth-century spellings like <sunne>, <badde>). We can track this second transition in a diachronic corpus, and we do just that in a small study for seven monosyllabic words (tell, cut, mad, skin, back, son, cross) in the large corpus Early English Books Online (EEBO; ~25,000 texts in phase one, ~500 million words). Figure 3 shows the amount of <CCE>-spellings for each of these words over time.4

![Figure 3](image)

The final stage of standardization happens very quickly around 1640–1660, but many of the words show a downward trend for <CCE>-variants as early as 1550. That is earlier than the first scholars who, Brengelman (1980) suggests, brought about the change (Levens 1570, Mulcaster 1582, Coote 1596). The structure of the data in Fig. 3 also speaks for a self-organizing system: each word has its own trajectory; this can be seen as

4 Interestingly, the arguments for the scholars often take on a teleological flavor. For example, Carney (1994:467) notes that ‘standardization … was too well-designed to be a simple settling down of printing-house practices’. Darwin long ago taught us to doubt evidence from alleged design. In this case, a lack of ‘serious interest’ in spelling on the part of the printers is precisely what one would expect of a system that was self-organizing rather than deliberately planned.

5 For each of the ten words, we searched for potential forms with and without <CCE> (e.g. <sinne>, <finne> vs. <sin>, <fin>, <sim>, <finn>. We then computed the average ratio of <CCE>-tokens compared to all tokens in ten-year spans.
a graphemic instance of lexical diffusion (cf. e.g. Labov 1994). If printers had actually followed the scholars’ advice, the movement should have been a lot more uniform.

But if the standardization of English can be traced neither to printers nor to scholars, how did it come about? The alternative is simple: it was both the scholars and the printers, but neither in the way envisaged by Krapp (1909) or Brengelman (1980). Printers standardized English, but not intentionally. They experimented with different spellings, but only within bounds. Their interest was commercial; they tried to anticipate the way people would like to read and set type accordingly.6 This is the textbook definition of self-organization: the emergence of order on a global scale by actions on a local scale (cf. e.g. de Boer 2005).7 Where does that leave the scholars? Theirs is the function of a positive feedback loop, as Cummings (1988:8) suggests: the scholars, ‘figuratively speaking, were describing the mean toward which the orthographic system was regressing’.

Sampson’s second misunderstanding is conceptually related to the first one. Sampson argues that the concept of self-regulation is redundant because the data can be explained by the ‘convention’ of keeping the spelling of Latin words intact. Variants like <publick> were abandoned in favor of other variants closer to the Latin original like <public>. Throughout his response, he seems to conceptualize this convention as a kind of constant in the history of English. But this convention, too, is clearly something that has evolved, and the <ick>-spellings of -ic are a particularly persistent reminder of that fact, as we show in our original article. It is the result of self-organization (Sampson himself acknowledges the possibility in one of the final sentences). The fact that many readers could read Latin and Greek certainly contributed to the appeal of the respective forms, but again, it took quite some time until words like public were standardized. This history indicates that conventions are linguistic abstractions over patterns of usage—and it is these patterns that are immediately relevant to the language community.

Finally, Sampson’s third misunderstanding is a metatheoretical one. He asserts that ‘[d]ata cannot constitute evidence for a novel theory, if they are already convincingly accounted for independently of that theory’ (p. e43). Following such advice would doom progress in any area of inquiry. A new account is judged by whether it provides us with a greater understanding of a wider range of phenomena than we possessed beforehand, not by whether other accounts of some of the phenomena already exist. In our article, we showed how morphological uniformity and uniqueness help us to make greater sense of English spelling, both synchronically and diachronically. We never denied the importance of other factors or the value of other explanations, including those that Sampson suggests.

One hallmark of written English over the last millennium has been the wholesale importation of words from other languages written in the Roman alphabet, spelling and all, words like spaghetti from Italian, triage from French, schloss from German, and laddie from Scots, among many thousands from many languages. This long-standing practice has wrought havoc with the systematicity of English spelling. In some cases, though, including those that we have discussed, it has led to change, as in the shift of diminutive <y> to <ie> under the influence of Scots that we have demonstrated here. But this change, like many others, makes sense only in the light of the polar organiza-

---

6 See e.g. Scragg (1974:74): ‘[S]uccessful printers from Caxton onwards have been primarily businessmen, and their only concern as regards spelling has been to provide their public with what is most acceptable’. See also Tyrkkö (2013:157): ‘The principle aim of the printer was to produce an attractive book that customers would purchase rather than waste time doggedly following the spelling of the manuscript when few authors and fewer customers had any interest in spelling’.

7 This is what Keller (1994:61ff.) terms ‘invisible hand phenomena’.
tional drives toward uniqueness and uniformity that we introduced as the centerpieces of our article.

REFERENCES


MULCASTER, RICHARD. 1582. The first part of the elementarie. London: Vautroullier.


[kristian.berg@uni-oldenburg.de] [Received 6 July 2017; revision invited 6 July 2017; revision received 14 July 2017; accepted 17 July 2017]

[mark.aronoff@stonybrook.edu]