

Spelling Progress Bulletin October 1963

Dedicated to finding the causes of difficulties in learning reading and spelling,
"A closed mind gathers no knowledge; an open mind is the key to wisdom".

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1. Late News

Your Editor visited Sir James Pitman in San Francisco where he was seeing potential users of the Pitman Initial Teaching Alphabet in the business field. He left from there for British Columbia and a tour of the provinces of Canada to visit with the Educational Boards who are considering using the I.T.A. in the schools. Then at the end of October he is giving a talk at the Conference at the Educational Records Bureau in New York. On November first he has to hurry back to London for the opening of Parliament, as he is a member.

The Pitman I.T.A. is spreading to this side of the Atlantic! So far we know of four projects that have already been started in the U.S.A. In Minneapolis, in 10 nursery schools and kindergartens with 300 pupils a project sponsored by the Minnesota National Laboratories under the direction of Jack Lown, is being started as this is written. M. Robert Dykstra, Univ. of Minnesota Elementary Education Professor, will serve as consultant. Classes are expected to start the first week in November.

In September, at Lehigh University, the Reading and Study Clinic under the direction of Dr. Albert J. Mazurkiewicz started reaching 600 first graders in the Bethlehem Area School District. The Clinic will now be called the Initial Teaching Alphabet Studies Center. These pupils started studying with the new Pitman I.T.A. Series specially prepared for use in U.S.A. by Dr. Mazurkiewicz and Dr. Harold J. Tanyzer of Hofstra College. The Alphabet Book, the Teacher's Manual, and Book One, *Ready for Reading*, were introduced in September, and the Workbook and Readers Two and Three were available on October first. These books use an eclectic approach that is strongly grounded in linguistics, since in I.T.A. the letter is the most reliable clue to pronunciation and hence word recognition. Look and Say is not eliminated, but is only used as one of several means of impressing the learning of frequently used words. A more thoro report on this project is planned for a future issue.

The Greater Cleveland Research Council and a kindergarten in Chicago have also started but time was too short to get details.

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NEW COMMITTEE being formed. Before a phonetic spelling of English can be adopted, certain steps need to be taken in order to assure that words will be spelt the same thruout the English-speaking world. To allow each country to spell words phonetically according to their own dialect would create a dozen different spelling systems. This of course, would be intollerable. So some standard of spelling and hence some agreed standard of pronunciation must first be established. This standard would be an idealized pronunciation based upon certain rules. So far the following have expressed an interest in the committee: John Bormuth, Godfrey Dewey, Gertrude Hildreth, Mario Pei, Sir James Pitman, George W. Stevenson, George L. Trager, Claude M. Wise. Others will be welcomed.

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2. The Teaching of English to Cantonese in Hong Kong, by Claude M. Wise, Ph.D.

It has seemed to me best to tell the Hong Kong story simply and for the most part untechnically, directing it mainly toward those who are interested in teaching English abroad but have not yet done so. Accordingly, I shall offer, first, a kind of expository narrative second, some three illustrative instances of phonemic contrast between English and the Cantonese dialect of Chinese, and third, a single instance of syntactic contrast between the two.

In 1956, my wife and I first visited the British Crown colony of Hong Kong. Its island city of Victoria, and its mainland city of Kowloon and New Territories, a 25 mile wide fringe of mountainous country-side, contained about 1¾ million people. In the academic year 1959–60, when we first lived and worked there, the population was around 2½ million. In 1961–62, when we again worked there, an official census reported 3½ million. With 2,000 births per month against 300 deaths and with a daily intake of refugees ranging from a handful to 300 to 500, and once in 1962 to an attempted daily entry of 10,000, the number of people is now only speculative.

These streaming millions of people work at a dead run, many of them almost night and day, and an incredible number of them go to school. Children in schools — public, parochial, missionary, rooftop, shack-city, any sort of school — are numbered in the hundreds of thousands. It is useless to try to board a bus when the masses of school children are moving. Adult students in the University, in colleges for teachers, in private schools of every rank, in the multitudinous night schools, and in the refuge colleges are numbered in the tens of thousands.

There is only one way for a Hong Kong adult to better himself, and that is by education. To rise above the common labor level, he must study for a position in medicine, dentistry, law, public welfare, engineering, education, journalism or business — and in the English language.

As many as can be admitted study in a refugee college, i.e., a college which, before communism came, was in China, but was re-established in Hong Kong by its fleeing refugee faculty. There are about a dozen of these colleges now, and the name has slowly changed from "refugee" to "post-secondary."

There were only seven such colleges in 1959–60, and from four of them, viz., Chung Chi, New Asia, Hong Kong Baptist and United, emanated my invitation to come to Hong Kong. These colleges wanted to up-date their archaic grammar-translation courses in first-year English to the level of the modern "aural-oral, intensive drill" type of spoken English, often called English as a foreign language. On their behalf, the U.S. Information Service office in the Hong Kong American Consulate General applied to the State Department through its Committee on the International Exchange of Persons for a Smith-Mundt grantee to serve as visiting lecturer to the four colleges. I was sent in this visiting lecturer capacity. The ensuing years can be outlined compactly.

1959–60

A teacher coming "cold" upon a completely new situation is obliged to orient himself as fast as he can, form a plan, establish a curriculum and set classes in motion. In Hong Kong, by reason of the

cooperative spirit and intellectual brilliance of nearly every faculty member and a majority of the students, this proved to be a pleasant task.

Books. Pending the time of producing texts and tapes specifically focused on the problems of the Cantonese student, the four texts developed in the Univ. of Michigan English Language Institute proved very serviceable.

Schedule. I taught regular classes one day per week (usually two-period classes) in each of the four colleges. Most of the students were freshmen, but a few were seniors, for whom the English departments coveted an opportunity to acquire functional fluency and accuracy in speaking before graduation. In one college I had also a class of teachers. In each of the four I had continuous conferences with teachers and administrators, and in each I had two to four colleagues who observed my classes and in about half of the classes taught them when I was teaching at one of the other colleges. Each month, at the library of the Mencius Educational Foundation, there was a tea and a professional program for the English teachers of all seven colleges.

One day a week I studied Cantonese with a tutor. As I began to have some understanding of the language, I invited a Chinese colleague and an American colleague to join me in some exploratory writing on a much-needed text to be called *English for Cantonese-Speaking Students*. These tentative writings were based on our own preliminary contrastive analyses of Cantonese and English, phonemic, morphemic and syntactic.

Language laboratories. Early in the year, with funds from the Yale-in-Asia Foundation, New Asia College was able to install a 10-booth language laboratory with tape recorders and a monitoring cubicle. Later in the year, with funds from the Asia Foundation, the other three colleges installed similar laboratories. At first the Michigan tapes were used exclusively; but as time went on, these were supplemented with tapes recorded on the spot.

1960–61

Near the mid-year of 1959–60, the chief of the Lecturers' and Research Scholars' Branch Office in Washington had visited the Hong Kong project and had made the obvious comment that I was "spread very thinly" over so many colleges. He gave it as his judgement that there should be three lecturers the following year. A short time thereafter, the Chief Cultural Officer of the USIS and I agreed that the project should be planned for three years, with three lecturers for the second year and one for the third to finish off the work and "phase it out." This plan was carried out through the remaining 2½ years.

I asked not to be re-assigned for 1960–61, since I had left affairs at home arranged for only a one-year absence. Accordingly, the three lecturers appointed for that year were Dr. C. L. Shaver, Mrs. Shaver, and Mr. John Kendall, all of Louisiana State University. They carried on the project in essentially the way it had been planned and added to it many significant developments and expansions. They did excellent work. As in my own case, they could remain only one year.

1961–62

I was sent back for the third and final year. The program was by this time running almost on its own momentum, and although I taught classes, I did so mainly as demonstrations. I also established

seminars in linguistic backgrounds and fundamentals open to all teachers involved in the project, and continued the Mencius series of teachers' programs.

The work of greatest magnitude for the year was the completion of the textbook mentioned earlier. We were stimulated to take it up again in the fall of 1961 by the urgings of a large, informal group of Chinese educators, who gathered at a luncheon to consider the problem. With this motivation, I added six more writers to the work party, making a total of three Britons, three Chinese and three Americans. With an outline before us designed to cover all the principal patterns of English sentences, we set to work. We had many meetings of the nine of us, and many individual morn-to-midnight writing sessions. This continued for nearly six months, during which we produced 16 chapters of "aural, oral, intensive drill" lessons, which will probably require 400 hook pages when printed. The text is in English, but contains illustrative sentences and vocabularies in Chinese for the use of the less well prepared Chinese teachers of English and for the Chinese students themselves.

As the book neared completion, we were gratifyingly besieged by three publishing houses, two British and one American. We finally awarded the contract to the Longmans, Green Company of London, partly because they proposed to publish not only the edition for Cantonese students, but also what they chose to call a "global" edition, with accompanying handbooks for speakers of, e.g., Arabic, Colonial Portuguese, Sinhalese, Tamil, Hindi, Urdu, Indonesian and other languages as required.

There has seemed no convenient place in the foregoing to mention the many lectures which Dr. Shaver and I delivered for educational and civil groups, nor the University research committees and the conference-planning committees on which one or the other of us served. Additionally, all five of us (two Shavers, Kendall, two Wises) were involved in church-sponsored welfare work which we thought worthy as humanitarian projects, and as unofficial modes of fulfilling one of the major purposes for which we were sent, viz, to make friends for the United States. Mrs. Wise individually carried on continuously a project which she had begun the first year, viz., working in a hospital clinic for undernourished babies. She also produced some 40–50 Chinese-style paintings on silk to the great delight of our Chinese friends. These "extra-curricular" activities all had a beneficial side-effect on the teaching of English as a foreign language which we could scarcely have foreseen.

We left Hong Kong hardly able to speak in steady voices to the crowd of affectionate friends at the airport. In rewarding labor and rich friendship, Hong Kong had become a second home to us.

II

All Chinese students of English find some of the sounds *of* the new language difficult. For brief attention here, I have singled out three of the problems which beset the speaker of Cantonese,

- (1) distinguishing between /ii/ and /i/,
- (2) distinguishing between /ey/ and /e/, and
- (3) pronouncing final /l/. [\[1\]](#)

One notices at once that the distinction between /ii/ and /i/ is a *bête noire* to the beginning student and even to the older student. (The older student has usually been poorly taught by an eager, earnest Chinese teacher of English, who though likely an almost perfect grammarian, is himself poorly

taught in the phonology of the language). In any event, the student will say *leaf* for *live*, *seat* for *sit*, *seen* for *sin*. Paradoxically, he will also say *lick* for *leak*, *lip* for *leap*, and *chick* for *cheek*.

But the paradox *is* one, only in the English language manner of thought; to the Cantonese, there is no paradox. For whereas /ii/ and /i/ in English are separate phonemes, in Cantonese they are only allophones of the single phoneme /ii/, the choice between the two being determined distributionally. When final itself, or before final /m,n,t/ and sometimes /p/, the allophone used is /ii/.

Examples: nĩ - this (here)
 sĩn - cent
 dĩm - hour
(sometimes) jĩp - meet, receive (letter) [2]

There are only six final consonants in Cantonese, and before the remaining ones, /ŋ , k/ and usually /p/, the allophone /i/ is used.

Examples: yihk - also, too, likewise
 sing - rope (sing = to be surnamed)
usually jip - meet, receive (letter)

It is clear, of course, that the naive Cantonese speaker shifts from /ii/ to /i/ and vice versa according to what final consonant follows quite without noticing the change in the phonetic values of the vowels. He is no more conscious of the shift than is the naive speaker of American English who uses four variant allophones of /t/ in *till*, *still*, *little* and *bitten*, without noticing their differences.

The teacher of English as a foreign language, once having discovered the controlling factors in the student's confusion, can quickly discover ways to help.

1. He will already have been teaching the student elementary English phonetics, and the student will have made the (to him) startling discovery that words can be dissected into sounds which are separate entities. Chinese characters would never have revealed that information, for since a character is only a highly conventionalized picture representing a word, the student can never know the pronunciation of the word unless someone tells him, for not one of the one to thirty or more strokes in the character stands for a component sound within the word. The word remains to the student, a *pestalt*, divisible on occasion into initials and finals, but scarcely divisible into single elements.

Once having realized, however, that the word is composed of individual sounds, and that each of these is movable, he can transfer them from one word to another. If he has said *leave* for *live* /lɪv/, he can be shown how to remove the /i/ from his Cantonese word *sihk* (to eat) — or from the English word *sick*, as well — and put it into *leave* instead of /ii/ to produce *live*. Conversely, the /ii/ of Cantonese *tim* (more, also), (or from English *team*, as well), can be lifted from its context and put into *lip* to produce *leap*.

Despite the fact that both /ii/ and /i/ are to be found in Cantonese, it is wise to acquaint the student with how the sounds are made in the mouth. Explanation of the high front position of the tongue for /ii/, as contrasted with the slightly lower position for /i/, and particularly explanation of the

tenseness of the lingual and sub-lingual musculature for /ii/ as contrasted with the laxness for /i/, are exceedingly helpful units of information.

Of course, all the devices of intensive drill need to be brought to bear on a problem like the foregoing, in order to fix either already known or newly learned sounds into the new contextual environments of that habit which is the English language. Substitution drills with well designed frames and suitable word-lists are not merely effective, but are interesting. Minimal pair lists are especially valuable for emphasizing the fact that pronouncing a word with even one wrong sound may produce not merely a nonsense word, but even a new word, with an unintended but entirely different meaning.

The sounds /ii/ and /i/ lend themselves to many usable minimal pairs, such as:

sheep, ship	peak, pick
beat, bit	bean, bin
leafed, lift	bead, bid

At first, it is probably best to do one thing at a time, If a student pronounces *leave* as *leaf*, but later successfully transfers an /i/ to it, he now says *liff*. Another day, the problem of voicing final plosives and fricatives, something unknown in Cantonese, will come up for attention.

Beginners and poorly taught advanced students confuse /ey/ and /e/, saying *Shem* for *shame*, *clam* for *claim*, etc. The case for understanding the causes of substitutions here is less clear than for /ii/ and /i/ but by tentative over-simplification, we can state it thus:

The diphthong /ey/ occurs only finally, as in *néi* (you) and *lèih* (come). The sound /e/ occurs finally too, as in *sé* (to write), but oftener preconsonantly, as in *chek* (footrule), *chéng* (please, ask, invite, request). It would then seem that when an English utterance calls for these vowels preconsonantly, the Cantonese student will select the one he is used to, viz., /e/. so that *pane* is pronounced *pen.*, etc.

For correction, a procedure like that indicated for /ii-i/ is effective, especially minimum pair drill, such as:

main, men	late, let
Janie, Jennie	fade, fed

A confusing by-product of the prevalence of both /i/ and /e/ before /k/, as in *Chik* (a man's name) and *chek* (a ruler) develops in the pronunciations *sicond* for *second*, *nixt* for *next*, *tixt* for *text*, *rickon* for *reckon*, etc. The procedures already described are useful in corrective practice.

The most frequently noted Cantonese difficulty in pronouncing English is the confusion among /l-r/ and /l-n/. The sound /l/ occurs only initially in Cantonese, as in *ling* (zero) and *laáhn* (lazy), but never finally. Moreover, it is never accompanied by any other consonant — there are no consonant clusters at all in Cantonese. The dark /l/ is made nearly identically with untrilled /r/ :the tongue-tip touches the hard palate for /l/ but only points toward the palate for /r/. The /r/ itself is usually learned early by the student, and at once joins with /l/ in fantastic instances of mistaken identity. In school we hear *Engrish* for *English*; in business, *bland* for *brand*; in music, *pray* for *play*; and in church, *play* for *pray*.

Most fantastic of all is the student's attempt to conquer English final /l/. (Remember that there is none in Cantonese). Here /r/ gets into the game, but so do other sounds. Even silence, the zero of sound, intrudes. For example, *all* may be pronounced simply *awe* and *for*, *faugh*. Alternately, /l/ may be heard as /ɔ/) so that *all* comes through as /ɔo/ and *fall* as /fɔo/. Yet again, we may hear *all* pronounced /ɔr/, and *fall* /fɔr/. Analogously, we hear *fear* for *fill*, *ear* for *ill*, and *seer* for *sill*. Most surprisingly of all, we hear *cerear* for *cereal*, *actaar* for *actual*, and *conditionar* for *conditional*. After these, the mere confusion of initial /l/ and /n/ in *light* for *night* and *night* for *light* seems elementary.

This /l-n/ substitution, by the way, is made in Cantonese itself as well as in English — *nei* (you) for *leih* (a mile) and vice versa. Obviously this exchange is promoted by the fact that /n/ is made with the tongue in a position much resembling its positions for /l/ and /r/.

The student's understanding of the mechanics of making /l/, /r/ and /n/ becomes a necessity here. Skill in distinguishing the heard sounds is an equal necessity, After these comes intensive drill in the act of pronunciation, supported by all the variant devices known to the modern linguist. For if the teacher and the student are to make a success of their cooperative venture in English as a foreign language, distinguishing and producing these sounds must become automatic, i.e., a habit.

III

The foregoing represents perhaps one-fourth of the pronunciation problems which the English language presents to the Cantonese student. I now turn to a single problem in sentence structure.

Cantonese appears not to have anything that can properly be called a relative pronoun or a relative clause. Its corresponding construction may read something like this:

Jùngyi duhk syù ge hohksāang doū haih hoú hohksāang.

Or: Wòhng taaitái ge hoú hoú sink,

Each of these two sentences has in it the particle *ge*, which is ordinarily used with substantives to make the genitive, as with: ngó (I), ngóge (my), néi (you), néige (your), kéuih (he, she or it), kéuihge (his, her, its).

It is hard to translate such sentences literally, but by retraining the *ge* without trying to give it an English value, we may render the first awkwardly as:

Like to study-*ge* students also are good students. And 2nd: The Mrs. Wong cooked-*ge* food is very good food. More freely: Students who like to study are also good students. And: The food which Mrs. Wang cooks is very good food.

My point in presenting the foregoing is to show how far a Cantonese sentence pattern may diverge from the corresponding English pattern. Obviously, the students need many repetitions of the English pattern, with many substitutions, such as *write* (students who like to write are good students), *recite*, *ambitious*, *promising*, *bright*, *learn rapidly*, *successful*, to fix the English relative clause in the place where their Cantonese has a *ge*-construction.

I hardly need say that our Hong Kong years of teaching were long and pleasant years of searching out ways of solving such problems as I have, sketchily touched upon.

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Editor, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 1935–38. Editor and part author *English for Cantonese-Speaking Students*, 1962. Member Advisory Com. on Pronunciation, Thorndike Century Sen. Dictionary & Thorndike-Barnhart Dict, 1941 et seq.

Past President, Speech Assoc. of America, Member ΦΚΦ.

[1] The phonetic system used is the phonetic alphabet of the linguistic Sec. of America, as used in the official organ of the society, *Language*.

Linguistic alphabet	Kenyon's IPA	Dan, Jones' IPA	example
/i:/	i lengthened	i:	key
/i/	ɪ	i	sit
/ey/	eɪ	ei	they
/e/	ɛ	e	set
/as/	ɑ lengthened	ɑ	ah

[2] The symbols in diagonals are only vowels and consonants, not whole words, The ih, about which you ask, is not in phonetics; it is a part of the spelling of a romanized Cantonese word following the Yale U. romanization.

The accent marks in the following are pitch symbols. The Cantonese dialect has seven pitches or tones.

Here is the system:

ā, āt - high level

a [with \ thru it] - high falling àh - low falling

a [with / thru it] - middle rising áh - low rising

a, at middle level ah, aht - low level

Words beginning with a nasal (m, n, or ng) in nearly all cases are low.

Words with h after the syllabic vowel or diphthong are low. (The h is not pronounced; it is a sign that the tone is low. The ih is /i/, with a low tone). Any word with h after the vowel or diphthong may also have the rising sign or falling sign over it.

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3. The Curious Child Needs Creativity Challenge, by Dr. Walter C. Alvarez*

* Reprinted by permission of the *Register and Tribune Syndicate*, Des Moines 4, Iowa, from the releases of July 24 and Aug. 5, 1963.

It is sad that sometimes a boy's teacher and his mother decide that the lad is dull because he does not get good marks in school, or he does not fit in well at school, or he does not apply himself. The teacher may dislike the boy and may say he is insubordinate, discourteous or insolent because, occasionally, he shows her that something she had said did not agree with what experts had written, or he remarked that the way in which something was being taught in the school could easily be improved.

One of America's most distinguished scientists once told me how, in high school, he was punished by being given low marks because he sometimes showed his principal how a subject could be taught much more interestingly. The only reaction of the principal was to take his name off the honor roll!

Similarly, in college many a gifted lad does not fit in comfortably, largely because he can't see any value in some of his prescribed courses, or he feels that they are being taught in a stupid way. I have been impressed by the number of eminent men in America who have said that they would have gotten little out of their college years if it hadn't been for their voracious appetite for reading in the college library.

Parents annoyed

Many parents are annoyed with a child who constantly is begging for information or is constantly trying to find out how everything works. They ought to be glad that he is full of curiosity because he is probably very bright, and likely, someday to be an able scientist.

As thoughtful psychologists are now saying, what we need often is not so much an intelligence quotient (I.Q.) as a creativity quotient (C.Q.) which will show us how creative a child is. We need to know how much curiosity he has, or how tenaciously he will hang on to it when his teachers insist that what he needs is only a good memory for what he reads.

Actually, a test for creativity has been devised. To show what he has been studying in children, Dr. E. Paul Torrance of the University of Minnesota points out that to an ordinary child, an empty tin can is just a tin can. But to a creative child, it may be something out of which he could make a cookie-cutter, a toy telephone, part of a xylophone, a roof shingle, a stilt to walk on, a rocket to explode, or something on which he could paint a picture that would go all the way around.

Potential Knocked Out.

After searching for bright children in a group of 50,000 boys and girls, Dr. Torrance and his associates concluded sadly that most children start in life with some creative potential, but most of them have it knocked out of them before they reach the fourth grade.

I can easily see how this could happen because several times in my school and college days, teachers disapproved of me because I was full of questions to which they did not have answers, or that I wanted to study disease in patients, while they thought the correct way was to study it in books.

As Dr. Torrance says, the promising child has great curiosity; he has flexibility so that if one approach to a problem doesn't work, he'll think of another one. He is quick to see gaps in information, exceptions to a rule, or contradictions to what he hears or reads.

Before I was out of college I was beginning to question the wisdom of some of the things my professors were saying and doing. Already, I was beginning to dislike an unthinking type of the practice of medicine, and already I was embarrassing my professors by asking why they did this or that — when they could not give me a logical answer.

Scientists Report on Failures in School

Because so many mothers write asking what can be done for a difficult and possibly ill child who is failing at school. I was interested in the report by R.W.Deisher, MD, C.O.Cressey and T.D.Tjossen, Ph.D., of their study of some students who were failing in high school. Eleven of these boys and one girl said they weren't interested in school work; they were bored and indifferent. Six boys and three girls admitted that they disliked school and they disliked most adults.

Several of these youngsters had already had a run-in with the juvenile authorities. Because of several misdemeanors, most of them had been on probation a number of times. The attitude of many of them was that of defiance; they were against discipline of any kind, and to them any order from a parent or teacher was an insufferable insult.

An interesting point is that these were not stupid children; only 10 of them had an IQ below 100. If they had wanted to, they all could have graduated from high school. The trouble with many was that they read so slowly and poorly that it was no fun — as it is for so many bright children. Children who cannot read easily find school work so uninteresting and boring and difficult that they tend to drop out.

Reading Difficulty

As many experts say, although most of our people are "literate," in the sense that they can read, they read with such difficulty that they can never enjoy even the "funnies," or a movie magazine. They would rather sit on the front porch. What is sad is that so many of these non-readers can be only day laborers, and they so hate this life that they soon take up criminal activities — the only ones that are left to them.

Eight of the students who were having trouble needed psychiatric help, and one even needed to be put in a mental hospital. Of each ten students who dropped out of school, three were girls. Some of these girls later settled down; they got married and became good mothers. Five boys who dropped out went into the Armed Forces and did well; three just sat around at home, doing nothing. One boy who was expelled from school soon had two stretches in jail for felonies. Like most criminals, he refused to see a psychiatrist. He could not be bothered.

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Editorial comment:

We think this relationship between school dropouts and the lack of ability to read is such an important subject that it deserves a great deal of research and should result in an excellent article that will lay the responsibility for the causes of school dropouts squarely where it belongs, whether it is in the home, the school, the teacher, the supervisor, the education authorities in Washington, D.C., or in Congress.

Helen Bowyer, on reading the above article, commented that "School dropouts are started in Grade One." A moments reflection should cause one to consider how and why a child gets to the point that he dislikes school and thinks of dropping out. But rather than steal the thunder of the Bowyer article (which we hope to have in a future issue), I will only urge you to send in to the S.P.B. any reports or data that you can find on the above subjects.

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[Spelling Progress Bulletin October 1963 pp6–9 in the printed version]

4. How Ivan Spells Johnny's English: An Analysis of English Words Respelled Phonetically, by Gertrude Hildreth, Ph.D.

English words and phrases are occasionally found in foreign literature where these terms are transliterated in the orthography of the language instead of being translated or reproduced in conventional English spelling. When this transliteration occurs in a language that is spelled phonetically as Russian, Turkish and others it is interesting and instructive to observe the new phonetic rendering of familiar English words, e.g., *turist*, *otomobile* (Turk), *avtomobil'*, (Rus.)

In Russian and Turkish respellings of English, one will find a practical demonstration of the way in which English spelling is simplified and regularized through a phonetic spelling system.

The idiosyncrasies of English spelling are familiar to all literate users of English. Anyone who needs to spell *emphasize*, *icicle*, *borough*, or *one*, is up against some of the stubborn vagaries of our English spelling conventions. The chief faults in English orthography are first, the inconsistent use of the different letters and letter combinations to represent the basic sounds of the English language; and second, failure to represent each sound with a single letter-symbol invariably used for a particular phonetic element.

Russian Orthography

The Cyrillic alphabet employed for Russian spelling which was derived from older Greek and Roman alphabets, augmented with a few additional symbols, consists of 33 letters which quite faithfully represent all the basic sounds in standard Russian. The soft sign, which is a mute letter, indicates that the preceding consonant is to be pronounced soft. The alphabet is consistently phonetic; in Russian the phonemes of the spoken language are regularly represented by specific phonograms. There is one discrete symbol to represent each basic sound and that symbol is never employed for any other sound.

In Russian there are no double vowels, but there are several consonants that are not pronounced in some words. For instance, the italicized letters in the following syllables: *-stn-*, *-zdn-*, *stl-*, *-vsty-*. The vowel combinations and consonant digraphs employed in English for specific sounds are represented in Russian spelling by single letter-symbols. Only one symbol is needed to represent the sound of 'ch', 'ck', or 'sh' in English, or 'sch' in German. There is no 'nick' in *sputnik*; 'k' is used for the hard sound of 'c' and 'g' is not used for 'j' but is restricted to the hard sound of 'g'. [1] There are no combinations such as 'ea' or 'oo' to represent a single sound as in English. The Turkish language, too, employs a strictly phonetic alphabet with consistent one-to-one correspondence between letter symbols and basic sounds. In Turkish, each of the eight vowel letters always stands for the same sound. Turkish gets along with 29 Roman style symbols. This represents a great simplification over the earlier Arabic calligraphy that employed over 500 different symbols for spelling Turkish words.

In the transliteration process — English (or French) to Russian and Turkish — a reduction in the number of letters often occurs. The converse is true of Russian into English. For example, *ukase*, a word of Russian origin, adds an 'e' in English spelling. The saving in respelling English phonetically is two-fold. Fewer letters are required for the spelling of many common words, and the one-to-one consistent sound-letter association relieves the memory task of learning to spell English. The English word *address*, for example, becomes in Russian spelling the equivalent of *adres*. Similarly in Turkish. The common French ending 're' found in such words as *théâtre*, *orchèstra*, *nègre*, is represented by the single symbol 'r' without the e-vowel.

Learning to spell Russian or Turkish is a cinch because any word, long or short, that is clearly and correctly articulated is easy to spell, once the associations between the sound-letter symbol system are established. There is no struggle with words such as *as bough*, *one*, *gone*, or *trouble* in which separate letter pronunciation would be definitely misleading.

A Russian boy who was asked, "How do you learn to spell?" said, "We don't. Russian is phonetic. To write we just sound out the different sounds and syllables in words." In spelling the numerous long words in Russian practically all that is necessary is to "pronounce through" the syllables, fitting the letters carefully to the sounds. Here is a tremendous advantage for mastering literacy, both reading and spelling.

How well can the sounds of English words be represented with the Cyrillic alphabet? Not perfectly, by any means. Since the system was designed to spell the sounds of the Russian language it proves to be inadequate for English, particularly for the many vowel sounds; and some of the Cyrillic symbols are used to represent sounds that do not occur in English. Some distortion is bound to occur when Russian spelling is applied to English words, for example, *June* and *July*. A word such as *sandwich* doesn't sound exactly like English when the Russians get through with it because there is no 'w' sound in Russian. *Cowboy* looks like *kovboi*, *waffle* comes out *vaflyā*. Also lacking is a symbol for our 'th' sound in English. Turkish, too, is short in English sounds and has some others of its own.

Another problem concerns the pronunciation of the English words that are transliterated. Is it American English or British English? The differences may be only slight or they may be noticeable. Do we have ears, years or yaws? The transcriber will tend to follow the sounds he is accustomed to hear in English words.

Analysis of English words in Russian spelling

An analysis was made of spelling changes that occurred in 65 common English cognates more economically respelled in Russian orthography with only one symbol to a given sound, and each sound represented invariably by the same symbol. Some illustrations are also given of English words respelled in Turkish orthography; also a few French and German words that are simplified in phonetic spelling.

Most of these 65 words will be found in a Russian pocket dictionary of 10,000–12,000 words, but a few are modern innovations. *Borough*, *lunch*, *porch*, *steam*, *zoo*, can now be considered acceptable Russian words. They were spotted in current Russian-American newspapers; in Russian literature of the past hundred years, chiefly short stories and plays by classical Russian authors; and in a list of several hundred English cognates prepared by the Russian Department of Brooklyn College, The City University of New York. When Ivan comes to America or makes fuller use of English words, instead of translating new words into Russian, he simply transliterates them, using his familiar Cyrillic symbols.

The French and German illustrations were obtained from the first two sources. English words in Turkish orthography were obtained largely from street signs, notices, advertisements in newspapers and a Turkish language manual.

Russian, like Latin, is a highly inflected language with a complex system of case-endings. This means that terminal endings will lengthen a word even though there is economy in Russian respelling of the root word, for example, feminine nouns such as *machine* and *guitar* which add an 'a' in the nominative case. The chief problem in Russian spelling is grammar: the need to learn the various declensions of nouns, pronouns and adjectives.

The list of words analyzed is given in Table 1. First, the English word is given, then the Russian respelling in Cyrillic letters, followed by an indication of the number of letters saved and the character of the change.

Table 1. Russian Respelling of Common English Words

<i>English</i>	<i>Russian respelling</i>	<i>Letters saved</i>	<i>Element changed</i>
address	адрес	2	2 double letters
arrest	арест	1	double consonant
attack	асака	2	double consonant
avenue	авеню	1	final silent 'e'
ball	бад	1	double consonant
block	бдок	1	consonant digraph
board	борд	1	vowel combination
borough	боро	3	vowel combination
bouquet	букет	2	vowel combination
brooch	брошь	2(softsign)	double vowel, consonant digraph
business	бизнес	2	silent letter, double consonant
center	центр	1	'er' ending
chaos	хаос	1	consonant digraph
character	характер	1	consonant digraph
chauffeur	хофе	4	vowel com., consonant corn., dbl. con.
cheque	чек	3	consonant digraph, 'qu', silent 'e'
Chicago	чикаго	1	consonant digraph
coffee	кофе	2	double consonant, final silent 'e'
code	код	1	final silent 'e'
commode	комод	2	dbl consonant, final silent 'e'
compass	компас	1	dbl consonant
contour	коңтур	1	vowel combination
corridor	коридор	1	dbl consonant
costume	костюм	1	final silent 'e'
course	курс	2	vowel combination, final silent 'e'
depot	депо	1	silent consonant
east	ист	1	vowel combination
echo	зхо	1	consonant digraph
epaulet	эполет	1	vowel combination
facade	фасад	1	final silent 'e'
football	футбол	2	dbl vowel, dbl consonant
guitar	гитара	1(gender)	gu combination
institute	институт	1	final silent 'e'
jelly	желе	1	dbl consonant
journal	журнал	1	vowel combination
liquor	ликер	1	digraph
lunch	лонч	1	consonant digraph
mackintosh	макинтош	2	2 consonant digraphs
manner	манера	1	dbl consonant
march	марш	1	consonant digraph
meeting	митинг	1	dbl vowel
meter	метр	1	'er' ending
mezzanine	мезонин	2	dbl consonant, final silent 'e'
nerve	нерв	1	final silent '<:'

note	нота	1 (gender)	final silent" e'
officer	офицер	1	dbl consonant
orchestra	оркестр	2	consonant digraph
page	паж	1	final silent 'e'
patience	пасьянс	2(soft sign)	vowel digraph, final silent 'e'
photograph	фотограф	2	2 consonant digraphs
poodle	пудель	1(soft sign)	dbl vowel
porch	лорч	1	consonant digraph
prince	принц	1	final silent 'e'
reserve	лезель	1	final silent `e'
route	рут	2	vowel combination
sauce	соут	1	final silent `e'
seance	сеанс	1	final silent 'e'
season	сезон	1	vowel combination
steam	стим	1	vowel combination
surprise	сюрприз	1	final silent 'e'
sweater	светер	1	vowel combination
telephone	телефон	2	consonant digraph, final silent 'e'
tourist	турист	1	vowel combination
zephyr	зефир	1	consonant digraph
zoo	зу	1	dbl vowel

The frequency of letters in these 65 English words is as follows:

No. of letters	No. of words	Total letters
3	1	3
4	6	24
5	13	65
6	17	102
7	15	105
8	5	40
9	6	54
10	2	<u>20</u>
	Total	413

The number of letters saved in Russian respelling of these 65 English words is as follows:

Letters saved	Number of words	Total
1	46	46
2	16	32
3	2	6
4	<u>1</u>	<u>4</u>
	65	88

Deducting the soft sign used in respelling three words, leaves a total of 85 letters saved. The per cent of saving, the total number of letters saved divided by the total number of letters in all 65 words is 20.5%, a figure that comes close to the 20 per cent commonly estimated as the saving to be effected through respelling English phonetically by various systems that have been proposed. The proportionate saving is not so great in a polysyllabic word such as *mackintosh* as in a shorter word such as *route*. The addition of the letter 'a' for the feminine gender was disregarded in the tabulation because this is a grammar point and gender is not indicated in English nouns. However, account had to be taken of the soft sign because this symbol is needed to indicate the correct pronunciation of the word.

Summary of Word-Element changes when English words are respelled in Russian orthography.

What changes accounted for the savings when English words were respelled in Russian orthography? These changes may be summarized as follows:

<i>Element changed</i>	<i>Number of instances</i>
Final silent 'e' omitted	21
Other silent letter omitted	6
Double vowel-one omitted	5
Double consonant-one omitted	14
Vowel digraph represented by one symbol	14
Consonant digraph represented by one symbol	17
Vowel omitted in 'er', 'ra'	3
Qu spelled with 'k'	1

How many of these English words with final silent 'e' conform to the rule that final 'e' lengthens the preceding vowel? The count is 12 cases that conform to the rule and 9 that violate the rule. (Sartorius found that of the 1000 commonest words, 369 do not conform to the rule, 345 do conform. while the remainder do not come under the rule).

English Word-Length Unchanged in Russian Respelling

English words that are free of the idiosyncrasies mentioned earlier commonly remain unchanged in length when respelled in Russian except for added case-endings and the soft sign. Some illustrations are:

talent	ТАЛАНТ	twist	ТВИСТ	aviator	АВИАТОР
student	СТУДЕНТ	radio	РАДИО	opera	ОПЕРА
cutlet	КОТЛЕТ	dentist	ДАНТИСТ	cabinet	КАБИНЕТ
ceremony	ЦЕРЕМОНИЯ	tennis	ТЕННИС	senator	СЕНАТОР
college	КОЛЛЕГНЯ	club	КЛУБ	master	МАСТЕР

Some English words are actually lengthened (apart from addition of inflexional endings) when respelled in Russian because on occasion Russian employs two symbols to represent one in English, e.g. the 'ks' for the sound of 'x' in *box* and *export* д ж for the soft 'g' in *gin* and *George*, and the 'j' as in *Jack*.

Respelling of French and German words in Russian

Through the years French words and expressions have more often appeared in Russian literature in their conventional Roman letter form instead of being transliterated, but this was rarely the case with English words and expressions, an indication that Russian readers were formerly more conversant with French than with English. German words, too, more often appeared in transliterated form than in the old Gothic style letters. Today, it is more common to find French terms transliterated in Cyrillic letters.

Words in the French language, so lavish with letters not pronounced in the words they spell, show significant savings when respelled in phonetic Russian that approximates as nearly as possible the sounds of French pronunciation. A sampling of these words includes the following:

bagage	БАГАЖ	chausée	ШОСЕ	page(boy)	ПАЖ
etude	ЭТЮД	bijoux	БИЖУ	choer	ХОР
plage	ПЛАЖ	bonjour	БОНЖУР	cavalier	КАВАЛЕР
théâtre	ТЕАТР	étage	ЭТАЖ	liqueur	ЛИКЕР

equipage	экиаж	foyer	фойе	voyager	вояжер
ouragan	ураган	ochre	охра	centre	центр
paysage	пейзаж	surprise	сюрприз	fontaine	фонтана
épaulette	эполет	restaurant	ресторан		

and many others, some of which retain their French spelling in English.

A few illustrations of German words taken over and respelled in the Russian language with letter savings effect in the process are:

Butterbrot	бутерброд	Platz	плац	Jahrmarkt	ярмарка
Landschaft	ландшафт	Stuhl	стуль	Volkzahl	воқзал
Nach Hause	нахаусз	Zahl	зал		

The reading of these transliterated words is easy because all the reader, who knows French and German needs to do is to pronounce the Russian letters; then the sounds and usually the meaning of these foreign words stands out.

Respelling of English and other words in Modern Turkish

Respelling English words with the 29-letter augmented Roman alphabet used in writing modern Turkish results in substantial letter savings in many common words, but with occasional distortions of English pronunciation. In some cases the saving is even greater than in Russian transliteration of the same words. The respelling of French words with the Turkish alphabet results in economies similar to French respelled in Russian. Here are some illustrations of English and French words respelled in Turkish orthography:

(Note: 'c' is used for the sound of 'j' in Turkish, while 'j' has the sound of 'zh'.)

<i>English</i>	<i>Turkish</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>Turkish</i>
telephone	telefon	lycee	lise
police	polis	chauffeur	sofer
automobile	otomobil	ascenseur	asansor
football	futbol	train	tren
terrace	teras	manteau	manto
dance	dans	restaurant	restoran
passage	pasaj	crème	krem
address	adres	gris	gri
block	blok	hotel	otel
college	kolej	boulevard	bulvar
tunnel	tunel	chaussée	sose
fruit	frut	coiffeur	kwafur
message	mesaj	sport	spor
jacket	caket	garage	garaj

What about the Loss of Word Origins in Respelling Foreign Words?

Neither the Russians nor the Turks show any concern about the loss of word origins when English words are respelled in the foreign orthography. They are concerned only with the practical problem of making these foreign words intelligible to the reader by providing phonetic transcriptions of these untranslated words. Any educated person could pronounce these words even though the derivation of automobile, chauffeur, or terrace is obscured in the process. What is lost in etymology is gained in contextual readability. The question that remains is whether it is better to sacrifice word origins which might enrich meanings and aid retention of words, or to make reading and writing an easier process.

In Conclusion

What are the implications of this study for English alphabet revision and spelling reform? Obviously, these data indicate that time and effort can be saved through adopting a phonetic system of English orthography, with the elimination of multiple use of certain letters and unnecessary symbols; that the whole process of learning to become literate could be streamlined with great advantage for school beginners and foreign-speaking people learning English.

Everyone involved in education for literacy around the world is alert to the necessity of English spelling reform; the problem will be to work out an acceptable system and obtain its universal adoption. Current attempts to reform English spelling are concerned with providing a sufficient number of distinctive letter-forms for all the basic 43 sounds in English, and to avoid the present inconsistencies.

With streamlined spelling there would be not only an actual letter saving, but there would be scarcely any need to learn rules with their exceptions; school spelling lessons would hardly be needed.

From statements already made, it is obvious that neither the Russian or Turkish orthographic systems would be adequate for the accurate transcription of English sounds. But St. Cyril, who ministered to the Slavs many centuries ago, set a precedent when in the ninth century he transformed and augmented the ancient Greek and Latin alphabets as a vehicle for expressing the Slavic languages in printed form.

No one claims that there ever can be a perfect system of orthography for my language, so something of a practical compromise must be worked out.

Around the world people who speak many different languages and dialects that have been recorded in writing are employing English words more commonly than ever before. One suggestion is to work out an international list of English words in simplified spelling, starting with some of the words and spelling economies indicated in the word lists given above. The words *komiti*, *ajenda*, and *solje* (soldier) have recently appeared in publications of the new African nations. The list might well begin with *telefon*, *polls*, *otomobil*, *otobus*, *tren*, and go right on from there with *bifstek*, *nitklub*, *spor*, *turist*, *teatr*, *restoran*, and other popular terms.

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[1] According to Ivor Darreg, at the end of some words, the 'g' is pronounced as 'k' or 'kh' instead of the usual 'g' or 'gh'. Whether this is careless pronunciation or a dialect variation, was not explained.

5. Phonemic Spelling: A Linguistic Dilemma, by George W. Stevenson*

Phonemes are what a community of speakers recognize as the functionally distinct individual sounds of their language. To know what the phonemes of a language are we must therefore know what this community of speakers consists of and who is or is not admissible as being representative of it. English has a very far-flung community of speakers with many accents and dialects which are in good standing. To say what the phonemes of English are we must first answer the question, "English as spoken by whom?" An educated Londoner, Bostonian, Chicagoan, or Mississippian? (Because of these differences, phonologists have given the number of English phonemes as anything from 36 to 42.)

But how bad, after all, is this problem? All of the people mentioned speak English. They can all understand one another, so their speech obviously has features in common. To arrive at a phonemic alphabet for English, we must find out what they are. The question is, how?

The purely descriptive methods of structural linguistics can, at best, give us the phonemes of London, Boston, Chicago, or Mississippi English, but they will not give us the phonemes of, simply, "English". Just "English" is a norm, and purely descriptive methods won't yield a norm. A norm is prescribed.

Linguistic scientists are thus impaled upon a dilemma. To determine the phonemes of English, they must decide what is meant by "English." This means prescribing a norm, which is a very distasteful task for the brave scholars who have so recently slain the dragon of prescriptive grammar. As conscientious scientists they abhor the idea of prescribing a norm for a language, yet they cannot arrive at its phonemes till they do. So far, they haven't, and the job has fallen to others. Handbooks for teachers of the deaf, for example, seem to have no qualms about the sounds of English, and explain how to make them. We seem to be able to teach foreigners how to speak acceptable English, and any good dictionary will tell you how to pronounce it. Valuable work has also been done by British and American broadcasting companies in prescribing a mutually intelligible norm for announcers. [\[1\]](#)

If our government is to introduce phonemic spelling it must first arrive at a norm for the language because here has to be an agreement as to which sounds are its phonemes before an alphabet can be promulgated to write them. A committee of linguistic scientists, lexicographers, teachers of speech and representatives of the broadcasting arts should be able to do this. It is very important, however, that no attempt be made to rigidly prescribe a norm for all time. Spelling must be allowed to change with the language, or we will be back in the fix we're in now.

[1] Editor's note: In Russia, from Minsk to Vladivostok, and Baku to Murmansk, there must be at least two dozen dialects, yet Russian is spelled the same thruout this vast expanse of the world. In all of Central and South America, with the exception of Chile, Spanish is spoken in a dozen dialects, yet is spelled to the same norm. And both of these are spelled phonetically!

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6. The Teaching of English in Africa, by Helen Bowyer.

The S. P. Bulletin has a number of overseas subscribers whose warm and painstaking cooperation has gone far to keep its editors posted on the international aspects of spelling reform. Of these aspects, few are of more immediate concern to the English-speaking world than what is transpiring in the newly self-governing — or soon to be self-governing — lands of Commonwealth Africa. Again we are happy to express our thanks to those three colleagues who, living in widely separated parts of this second largest of earth's continents, have sought to share with us the "grassroots" knowledge and insight which long residence and long participation in state and local affairs have given them.

Some of this knowledge and insight, we sought to share with our readers through the article "*Africa Needs Phonemic English*", in our December, 1962 issue. Since then, all three correspondents have not only continued their service through letters, official pamphlets, clippings from local newspapers and periodicals, but they have sent us the primers and readers through which the native children of their area begin the study of their tribal tongue and of English. Through most of the Commonwealth countries, we gather, the tribal tongue is the main medium of instruction through Sub-standard A and B, which correspond to our First and Second Grades. Though some introduction to English may be given in these earlier years, it is in Standard 1 — corresponding loosely to our Third Grade — that its mastery becomes a matter of crucial importance. From there on, the official curriculum is couched more and more in it.

Here we reproduce pp. 20–21 of the native primer sent us by Mr. C. E. Moore of Salisbury, Southern Rhodesia. With it the seven-year-old tribesman of this Shona-speaking area begins the reading and writing of his mother tongue. As the great majority of them still live in small settlements or the open countryside, the illustrations were drawn to represent their life rather than that of the minority who now live in urban surroundings. We only hope Mr. Moore's line-by-line translation of the Shona has come through the press clearly enough to read. See fig. 1.



WE STAY IN HOUSE OUR
 Tinogara mumba medu
 WE STAY BY FIREPLACE.
 Tinogara pamoto.
 SEE GRANDMOTHER
 Ona ambuya.
 GRANDMOTHER IS SAYING STORIES
 Ambuya vanoita ngano.
 WE ALL ARE HAPPY WITH STORIES
 Tose tinofara nengano.
 SEE GRANDMOTHER IS SAYING STORIES
 Ona ambuya vanoita ngano.
 WE ALL ARE HAPPY WITH STORIES
 Tose tinofara nengano.
 WE ARE HAPPY WITH FIRE
 Tinofara nomoto.
 WE ARE HAPPY WITH FIRE IN FIREPLACE
 Tinofara nomoto uri muchoto.
 GRANDMOTHER IS TELLING STORIES
 Ambuya vanoita ngano.

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WE GO TO STORE
 Enda kuchikoro.
 SEE SCHOOL OUR
 Ona chikoro chedu.
 SCHOOL OUR IS GOOD
 Chikoro chedu chakanaka.
 CHILDREN ARE GOING TO SCHOOL
 Vana vanoenda kuchikoro.
 GIRLS AND BOYS
 Vasikana navakomana.
 ALL ARE GOING
 Vose vanoenda.
 SCHOOL OUR IS BIG
 Chikoro chedu chikuru.
 SEE CHILDREN ARE GOING TO SCHOOL
 Ona vana vose vanoenda kuchikoro.
 THEY ALL HAPPY WITH SCHOOL
 Vanofara nechikoro.
 THEY ARE HAPPY TO GO TO SCHOOL
 Vanofarira kuenda kuchikoro.

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Longman's Standard Shona Reader, Kambairai, Substandard A. Zezuru.

As Shona is spelled phonetically, their first two years of school give most of its little tribesmen little difficulty in getting a fair reading and writing knowledge of their ancestral language. All the more so as their teachers are, for the most part, fellow tribesmen of theirs. But no proficiency in just this tongue can equip them for the economic, sociologic, cultural life into which time and events are transforming the immemorial mores of their parents and grandparents, their older chiefs, sunchiefs and witch doctors. For Shona is but one of the eight hundred negro languages in which black Africa's peoples live in primitive — and all too often warring — apartieds from each other, if their children are to enter the twentieth century world, great blocks of them must have a Lingua Franca — be it, for the moment, the English, French, Portuguese, Italian of the major colonizing powers.

In Southern Rhodesia, where, of course, this lingua franca is English, the need is so urgent, that our language is started in the second school year. Here is page 25 & 26 from *Kenny and Betty*, a primer in which the children are instructed twice a week. See fig. 2.



Benny has a sister.
Yes, he has a sister.
Her name is Betty.

Have you a sister?
Yes, I have.
Her name is . . .

Betty has a brother.
Yes, she has a brother.
His name is Benny.

Have you a brother?
Yes, I have.
His name is

Betty and Benny are brother and sister.

fig 2



Benny has a sister.
Betty has a brother.

Teacher says, "Good morning, Benny.
Good morning, Betty."

Brother and sister are walking.
They are walking to school.
They see the teacher.
He is at school.

Benny says, "Good morning, teacher."
Betty says, "Good morning, teacher."

Longman's Day-by-day English Course, Substandard B. Benny & Betty.

The 27 different words of these two pages well document why Mr. Moore considers spelling reform the sine qua non of any vital education of the negro children of Southern Rhodesia. And why the Reverend Rolf Veenstra sees it in the same light for those of Northern Nigeria and Mr. Percy Freer for those of his Cape Province of South Africa.

The very first three lines show the z-sound of *has* and *is* transcribed by the s of *sister* and *yes*. A phonetic overhaul of our orthography would, of course, present these words as haz and iz. *Brother* should obviously appear as *bruther* while *are* should follow the precedent of *far, bar, par*, not that of *fare, bare, pare*. The vowels of *he, see, teacher* are at wholly needless odds. So are those of *you* and *school*, both of which are themselves at odds with the *two, do, who* of earlier pages — pages, moreover, where *ou* served for the vowel of *house*. And how to justify the *oo* of *good* after using it just the line before in *school*. As for the *ch* of this last, how to reconcile it with the *ch* in *teacher*? Add to all this, that the sound of *er* in *her* will soon be confronting Benny and Betty in the guise of *word, bird, hurt, heard, journey*, and how many words of the 27 are left which meet the parenthetic requirements of a standard children's dictionary?

This state of things, heaven knows, is monstrous enough for our own children, who already know the pronunciation and meaning of most of the words they encounter in their primers and first readers. Imagine then, what the consequences must be for little Africans who must tackle pronunciation, meaning, and wretchedly malphonetic spelling all at the same time.

Our next exhibit comes from Mr. Veenstra's United Sudan Mission in Northern Nigeria. It is pages 6 and 7 of UHIHI, the first primer in the Tiv language — one of the 200 native tongues in the Federation of which Northern Nigeria forms part.

Fig. 3.



Uke

kakaki

amine

iviha

Uke fa kakaki dedo.
 kakaki doo Uke.
 igo doo Uke ga.
 Uke soo iwa.
 iwa i Uke ka i kehe.

iviha ye amine.
 amine doo iviha
 iviha ia vihi amine.
 amine doo bagu kua igo.
 iwa ye amine ga.

so fa ka

vihi vi hi
 iviha i vi ha
 amine a mi lie

dedo de do

Uke U ke

kakaki ka ka ki

UHIHI, (First Primer), Dutch Reformed Church Mission.

Of it, Rev. Veenstra writes: "The children make excellent progress in this book. Every letter has but one pronunciation, and there are, of course, no silent letters. Then, upon introduction to English a couple of years later, comes the disheartening confusion of the first English reader. With typical western efficiency, the book leaves nothing to be desired in illustration, format, etc. But alas, the very first words, in the inevitable DICK and JANE routine, have silent letters, some letters pronounced in two different ways and shortly thereafter two different letters representing the same sound. I wonder the African doesn't abandon English in despair."

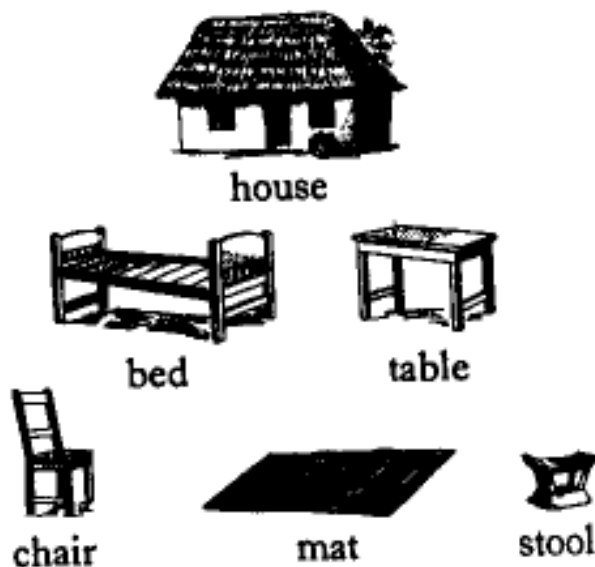
And surely this reproduction of page 9 of Longman's New English Course, Reader IA, justifies his wonder. To the treasury of malphonics exhibited in the corresponding Rhodesian reader, it adds the misleading final-e of *live*, the useless ditto of *house*, the two different a-sounds of *mat* and *father*, and the three different spellings of the long a-sound of *their*, *chair* and *Mary*.

Fig. 4.



IN THE HOUSE

8



HENRY AND KATE AT HOME

This is the house of Henry and Kate.

They live in this house with their father and mother.

In the house there are a bed, a table, a chair, a mat and a stool.

Mary sits on the stool.

James sits on the chair.

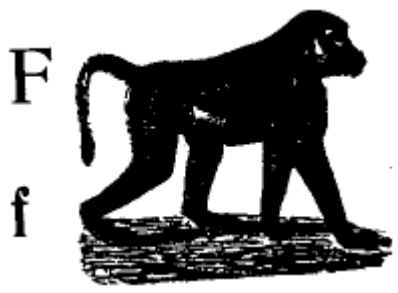

Henry and Kate sit on the mat.

Longman's New English Course, Reader IA, by I. M. Travis.

Moreover the situation is complicated by the unlearning the children have to do. As Rev. Veenstra pointed out in his contribution to our December, 1962 *Bulletin*, Tiv has incorporated a large vocabulary of what started life as English words but have now been naturalized into the native spelling. "Imagine," he says, "the confusion when these words have to be spelled quite differently (and one might interpose, so much less rationally!) in an all English context. Such a confusion is enough to create a real psychological block in the laudable language learning effort of any young national and it surely does not create any great respect for the mentality of the people who own such an irregular language. One can only conjecture what strides these eager people would make in English if it were spelled as regularly and reasonably as is their own tongue."

Diagonally across the vast continent, on the Indian Ocean instead of the Atlantic, lies the Cape province of the Union of South Africa, where lives our third active correspondent, Perry Freer. In his region, the vernacular is Xhosa. Here follows a reproduction of pages 14 and 15 of the primer in it used in the primary school in his vicinity See fig. 5. and 6.

Fig 5.

 <p>ISIFUNDO 10.</p> <p>fe la fu ya u fe le u fi fi fu na amafu imifuno isifo</p> <p>uFunani ufumene imfene, ifudula ilala emaweni. ifuna imfe nemifuno. umfazi ufune ife loo mfene. yasinda ngaye to mfana. izolo ell ufumene nofudo. ufudo loyisiwe lilanga. lwaza lwangena emanzini. amanzi edamini maninzi.</p> <p>Iphepha 14</p>	 <p>V v.</p> <p>ISIFUNDO 11.</p> <p>vana vala umvi uluvo vuna vela invu amava</p> <p>susa le mivalo, uvule isango. ngenisa izimvu uvule. wena Velelo, yiza nezimvu. lo mfana livila, ulele emini. vusani umalusi to asenge, velanani naye, uyagula. vumani alale umalusi, amafu amnyama, invula iyeza, siyavuya ngemvula ezayo.</p> <p>Iphepha 15</p>
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The Stewart Xhosa Primer, Lovedale Press. So. Africa.

Fig 6.

I-i-wu, babambene ngazo eNciba.

A-a! Ntaba!

E-e, akukho nto injalo.

U-u, u-u.

O-o, ndiyeva.

S

S

ISIFUNDO 1.

sa sa se se si si so so su su

si so u sa sa u si si
 se si si su u Se se
 si su u Si sa u So so
 si si, su si.
 si su se, si si.
 su sa, si si, u si se.
 si so i si sa e si.
 a si si so e so.
 Se se, su sa u sa na.
 u Se se u su sa u sa sa.

Iphepha 5.

Were you struck by the prevalence of vowel ending all of them sounded — which characterized the vocabulary of the Shona primer? Here it is again — absolute on these two pages, It should, one would suppose, make the language very rhythmic. Have we here, in this more southern part of the great continent, immemorial evidence of a negro bent to the artistic well worth conserving and cherishing in the ever more scientific and mechanistic world which lies ahead?

That the "splendid African woman" (Mr. Freer's descriptive) "who teaches the primary school near him can handle 105 small natives in two sessions, can be laid in part to the ease, speed and pleasure with which they learn to read and write in their phonetic mother tongue. Children whose natural eagerness for knowledge and achievement can be so simply gratified are likely to be well-behaved, cooperative and fond of their teacher. But besides Xhosa, she has not just one, but two foreign languages in which to get her young charges started. Africaans is the state language of the whole Union and must be taught in all its schools. But English is so much more their peoples' gateway to the future that the chiefs and sub-chiefs of the Xhosa regions thereabout petitioned that it should have an effective place in the education of their children. Here is a reproduction of pages 26 and 27 of the Africaans reader in use in standard 1 — that is to say, the third year in this school. See fig. 7.

Fig 7.



LES XII

Klankdril: eu

DIE KLASKAMER

1. Lees:

- (1) Hier is ons klaskamer.
- (2) Die onderwyser staan by die swartbord. Hy skryf met 'n stukkie kryt op die swartbord.
- (3) Die onderwyser bet ook 'u stoel. Hy sit op die stoel by die tafel.
- (4) Hy maak the swartbord met 'n' uitveer skoon. Die uitveer le op die tafel. Die klok staan ook op die tafel.
- (5) Sien jy die kas teen die muur? Die onderwyser sit die boeke in die kos.
- (6) Aan die muur hang wool prente. Ons bet vyf prente in ons klaskamer.
- (7) Ons klaskamer het 'n deur en ses vensters. Kyk, die deur staan oop.
- (8) Die kinders sit op die banke. Hulle lees in hulle boeke.

26

2. Lees die volgende, maar begin elk, kerr mel drie, be, drie horlosies.

horlosie	tafel	lamp	bed
komers	kussing	borsel	spieel
matras	stoel	kas	kam
tapyt	vloer	arm	been

3. Maak sinne:

Ek	borsel	jou	hare	met my sakdoek
Jy	vat	sy	pen	met jou borsel
Hy	snuit	my	neus	met sy kam
Sy	kam	haar		net haar hand

4. Gee die antwoorde op die vrae:

- (a) Hoeveel kinders is daar in jou klaskamer?
- (b) Hoeveel vensters het jou klaskamer?
- (c) Wie skryf met kryt?
- (d) Waar sit die onderwyser?
- (e) Hoc maak die rind-y- die swartbord *skoon*?
- (f) Wat sit die onderwyser in die kas?
- (g) Hoeveel prente her jy in jou klaskamer?
- (h) Wat doen die kind, in the klaskamer?
- (i) is the vensters non oop of toe?
- (j) War doen die onderwyser met die klok?

5. *Vul aan:*

EK was MY in MY waskom.

JY was in ... waskom.

HY was in ... waskom.

SY was in ... waskom.

ONS was in ... waskomme.

JULLE was in ... waskomme.

HULLE was in ... waskomme.

6. *Skpf in woorde:*

11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20.

27

Praktise Taal-En Steloefenings Vir St. 1.

Fortunately, the spelling of Afrikaans, too, is quite reasonably phonetic, so it imposes a much less share than does our own chaotic tongue of the tri-lingual load of the Xhosan primarite. The eight opening sentences of this lesson are virtually translated on page 30 and 31 of the English book which he begins the same year. So are the questions (a) through (j). See fig. 8.

Fig 8.



LEARN THE FOLLOWING NUMBERS

41-forty-one; 42-forty-two; 43-forty-three; 44-forty-four; 45-forty-five; 46-forty-six; 47- forty-seven; 48-forty-eight; forty-nine; 50-fifty.

LESSON X11

Sound-drill: Table 12

OUR CLASSROOM

1. Read:

- (1) This is our classroom.
- (2) The teacher is standing in front of the blackboard.
She is writing on the blackboard with a piece of chalk.
- (3) The teacher has a chair. She sits on the chair by the table.
- (4) She cleans the blackboard with a duster.
The duster and the bell are on the table.
- (5) Can you see the cupboard? There are books in the cupboard.
- (6) There are some pictures on the walls. We have five pictures in our classroom.
- (7) Our classroom has a door and six windows. Look, the door is open.
- (8) The children are sitting in their desks. They are reading their books.

30

2. Answer the questions:

- (a) How many children are there in your classroom?
- (b) How many windows are there in your classroom?
- (c) Who writes with chalk?
- (d) Where does the teacher sit?
- (e) How does the teacher clean the blackboard?
- (f) What does the teacher put in the cupboard?
- (g) How many pictures are there in your classroom?
- (h) What do the children do in the classroom?
- (i) Are the windows in your classroom open or closed?
- (j) What does the teacher do with the bell?

3. Read aloud:

A. I PLAY under the trees.

You (one person) PLAY under the trees.

He PLAYS under the trees. (We add -S for HE.)

She PLAYS under the trees. (We add -S for SHE.)

We PLAY under the trees.

You (more than one person) PLAY under the trees.

They PLAY under the trees.

The boy PLAYS under the trees. (We add -S for one person, animal or thing.)

The children PLAY under the trees.

B Read aloud:

I WASH my hands. **He** WASHES his hands.

I TOUCH my head. **She** TOUCHES her head.

I BRUSH my hair. **The boy** BRUSHES his hair.

I CATCH the bird. **The cat** CATCHES the bird.

I DRESS my doll. **Nomsa** DRESSES her doll.

31

Modern Graded English Std. I. Via Africa, Publishers, C. P. Town.

The Xhosa child is, of course, up against the same orthographic jumbledom as are his Shona and Tiv agemates. Witness, for instance, the *oa* of *cupboard* imperturbably transcribing the same vowel sound as does the *oo* of *door*. And that *oo* again servicing the vowel of *school* and flitting thence to that of *look*. But how could things be otherwise? Amuse yourself by trying to concoct a half dozen meaningful sentences of nine words each (nine words is the longest in this lesson) all of which line up with the sign-sound consistency within the parentheses of a standard elementary school dictionary such as the Thorndike-Barnhart Junior. The Bulletin herewith offers a prize of a cent each for the best dozen such sentences which reach it.

Its Johannesburg publishers have put into this book all that brains and college degrees could do with so high a dissonance of spelling and sound. They go in unequivocally for the phonic method and provide as good phonic tables and phonic drill as have come the *Bulletin's* way. But who went in more heavily for all this than the late esteemed McGuffey? With the result that after eighty years of his readers and his phonic successors, our educational hierarchy sought escape from their 'reading problem' thru a leap into Look and Say. So if phonics wont straighten *show*, *dough*, *toe*, — *roast*, *post*, *ghost*, for young America, why expect such service for young Africa to whom every thing about these words is new?

Especially as young Africa is likely to be further disadvantaged by his teacher's pronunciation. All too often this is just what might be expected of a native who had got his English from an earlier native who, no doubt, had taught it the best he could, but.... The youngsters in Mr. Freer's vicinity are among a fortunate small minority. That splendid African woman, he writes us, has an excellent command of our language. But not even she can magic from their spelling the *w* of *write* and *wrong*, the *g* of *gnat*, *gnaw*, *sign*, the *k* of *knit* and *know* and *knife* and scores of other anomalies with which even a beginning course in English bewilders their reason and burdens their memory.

As far as pronunciation goes, some of the Commonwealth governments are alerting to what sonic devices can do. Mr. Moore has sent us a preview of what his Ministry of Education is projecting. Good! Few things could be more important than that the natives of Rhodesia, Nigeria, South Africa and all the other present and former members of the British Commonwealth should be easily understandable to each other when they meet at those continental congresses where Africa's future may be in the crucible. But for every negro who attends such a congress, there are hundreds of thousands who should be able to read its discussions and resolves, and register in writing their reactions thereto.

And what hope of that sort of revamping of English spelling to the regularity of the native tongues?

Our government is sending out members of the Peace Corps to teach English in the secondary and higher schools of various of the new African nations. Presumably they will attempt to learn at least the dominant native tongue of the region where each is stationed. Will its phoneticism suggest to them the desirability of a comparable regularizing of our own chaotic spelling? Some of these teachers may even come in contact with Fanagalo, the fascinating inter-lingual patois to which Mr Freer has recently introduced us. It dates back to the old slave-trading 1600's, and is now widely used wherever native labor, from far and near, congregates in the mines, the factories, the farms, the forest service, etc. For, from whatever source it draws its vocabulary — tribal tongues, Africaans, English — it spells it in high fidelity to its simple alphabet. This has made it almost a cinch for Europeans in charge of African labor to learn, and for these latter to read sufficiently to follow printed material concerning their jobs, their safety, their health and general welfare. Indeed, Fanagalo has frequently been described as the easiest language in the world to learn.

It can't, of course, serve as an all-purpose *lingua franca* for negro Africa. Its frequent designation as "Kitchen Kaffir" partly explains why. In any case, what Africa needs is a secondary language which its people share with all the other sons of men. The most likely candidate for that high office would seem to be our own English respelled to the highest feasible consistency. Sonic devices could sufficiently standardize its pronunciation through all the continents of the earth and the islands of the seas, and transcribing that pronunciation into won sound-wan sign print would hardly be more than a fascinating game to a group of gifted specialists in that field.

The Bulletin knows of definite efforts to interest prominent negro members of at least one African Parliament in spelling reform. At the moment, the *modus operandi* would be a National Language Commission much like that which the Hagen Bill, now before our Congress, hopes to achieve here. But that Bill has lain dormant in its House Committee these five years. Wouldn't it be ironic if Commonwealth Africa — still so largely primitive — should beat our highly developed U.S.A. to that economic, sociologic, cultural *desideratum*? Or had one better say economic, sociologic; cultural *imperative*?

-o0o-

Ever Teach a child to read?
Then you can really see,

To keep our alphabet as is,
What fools we English be.

Leslie Le Mar, Aubrey, Texas.

[Spelling Progress Bulletin October 1963 pp16–18 in the printed version]

7. Fanagalo (Kitchen Kafir), the Lingua Franca of Southern Africa, by J. D. Bold.

Pub. by Central News Agency, Ltd, Cape Times Ltd, Parow, So. Africa.

Facts about Fanagalo

Fanagalo is used every day by hundreds of thousands of Europeans and Natives. It is spoken in the Union of South Africa, the Rhodesias, Portuguese East Africa, Nyasaland, Belgian Congo, and other parts of Southern Africa. It has, in fact, been spoken for considerably more than 50 years, but although a couple of vocabularies giving the Fanagalo equivalents of some English words have appeared, there has been no attempt to compile a comprehensive dictionary. This two-way dictionary (English-Fanagalo, and Fanagalo-English) is therefore a pioneering effort.

The list of words is confined to useful, everyday terms. No attempt has been made to invent translations for advanced scientific, political or philosophical terms, which at this stage of history find no place in Fanagalo. Great care has been taken to make the spelling consistently phonetic, so that once the simple pronunciation key has been memorized, any new word can be tackled with confidence.

Who will use it?

This inexpensive dictionary, with its supporting call actions of useful sentences and phrases, is small enough to carry around in the pocket. It is designed for the use of housewives, farmers, industrialists, motorists, sports men, doctors and nurses — in fact for anyone who, when employing or coming into contact with Bantu men or women, finds English or Afrikaans inadequate to get ideas across. Easy to learn Fanagalo is not an artificially manufactured language, like Esperanto. No learned professor sat down and invented it in a moment of inspiration. If it had been so created it would have been stillborn. That Fanagalo is, on the contrary, a vigorous and growing language must be attributed mainly to two things:

- (1) It is more easily and speedily learned than any other language in the world.
- (2) It is a widely spoken language, in constant use, filling a real need.

The Basis of Fanagalo

Fanagalo is a very much simplified form of Nguni (Zulu, Xhosa, and related languages), with adaptations of modern terms from English and Afrikaans. It was probably evolved in the Eastern Cape and Natal during contacts between European settlers and native tribes, and it later developed in diggings and mines to meet the urgent need for a common language that could easily be acquired by Zulus, Xhosas, Swazis, Basutos and Bechuanas, and by the Afrikaans and English-speaking white men who employed them. These white men usually had no time to learn even one of the complicated and distinctive Bantu languages (each of which would have required several years of study to master). The raw native recruits, for their part, could not always keep pace with English and Afrikaans.

How it has Spread

The use of Fanagalo spread in due course to farms, to domestic service and other spheres. Migrant labourers have continued to take a knowledge of it back to their own territories, and today it is known from the Cape to the Congo, and is gradually penetrating to territories further afield, such as Angola and Abyssinia. It is of course, most readily understood among the Nguni tribes and nations — the Zulus, the Swazis, the Xhosas of the Cape, the Shangaans and Tongas of Portuguese East Africa, the Matabele of Rhodesia and the Angoni of Nyasaland.

Other tribesmen, like Basuto and Bechuana, whose languages differ radically from the Nguni tongues, often make shift to learn Fanagalo for the purpose of holding down a job in the Union of So. Africa or Rhodesia. Fanagalo does not take the place of older Bantu languages, which are of course, still used for tribal and official purposes, but it serves its own purpose as a common meeting ground — a *lingua franca*.

"Kitchen Kafir"

The appellation "Fanagalo" probably derives from "kuluma fana ga lo", meaning to "speak like this". The language has also been called "Kitchen Kafir" and "Mine Kafir". In some places it is known as "the Lapa Language" or even, amusingly, as the "Lo Lo Language". Some students speak of it as "Basic Bantu", or more specifically as "Basic Modified Nguni." Actually, the weakest thing about Fanagalo is its name, for only those who know a little about the language are aware that the word is pronounced and stressed something like the vowel sounds in "father 'n law" and not like "a nag can go."

Pronunciation

The vowels

a as in farm	e.g. mali	(In each case
e as in there	e.g. sebenza	the vowel
i as in sardine	e.g. mina	printed in
o as in border	e.g. bona	bold type is
a as in jury	e.g. muti	long and strong) [1]

[[1] The foto-reduced copy did not show any bold letters.]

The Consonants

The consonants in Fanagalo (with the exception of c, q and x) are all given the customary English sounds. But note that *g* is always "hard" like the *g* in *girl* and never "soft" like the *g* in *gentle*. In Fanagalo the soft *g* is replaced by *j*; thus magistrate becomes majistlet.

The Clicks

The consonants c, q and x are pronounced as "clicks".

The c click is made by pressing the tip of the tongue against the back of the upper front teeth and withdrawing it with a quick sucking-in of air. It is actually a familiar sound in English, customarily expressing disappointment or sympathy, and is usually spelt "tsk, tsk".

The q click is produced by pressing the tongue against the palate and drawing it away with a smack.

The x click is made by pressing the tongue against the teeth, which are slightly apart, and then withdrawing it on one side only, with a sucking-in of air. This is the sound that European children make when they imagine they are urging a horse to get moving.

If you find you can't manage the clicks, even after coaching by your servants, you can at a pinch use the letter k instead.

Guttural g

Occasionally the Fanagalo rendering of Afrikaans words takes over the guttural *g*. This guttural sound is represented by *gh*, e.g. sagha (carpenters saw). The *gh* sound is similar to the Scottish *ch* in loch.

Hl has the sound of the Welsh *ll* in *Llandudno*. It can be pronounced as if spelt *shl*. Thus *muhle* may be spoken *mushle*, which is near enough to the correct sound for all practical purposes.

M or *N* at the beginning of a word, if followed by a consonant, are accorded full value as a syllable. In the original Nguni they were spelt *UM*, *IM* or *IN*, and should be given just as much stress. The Fanagalo word *mlungu* is a contraction of *umlungu*, and *nkosi* was once *inkosi*.

K and *G*. In Zulu there is not always a clear distinction between *K* and *G*. Sometimes a *K* — as in *Ka* — is spoken so softly as to sound like *G*; in such cases we simply use a *g* in Fanagalo for the sake of phonetic accuracy and consistency and write "Fanagalo" in preference to "Fanakalo". When a *k* is extra hard and forcible it is spelt *kh*; as in *zinkukhu*. For the rest — the great majority of cases — the *k* has the ordinary English sound.

Note: The spelling *Fanakalo*, or *Fana Ka Lo*, is fairly common in South Africa and is used by the Chamber of Mines in their "Miner's Companion," a vocabulary of mining terms and phrases.

R is a regular letter in the Fanagalo alphabet. In some regions — particularly in Natal — it is often replaced by the letter *L*, while in Mashonaland and parts of Transvaal the tendency is towards a frequent use of *R* in preference to *L*. Unlike the Zulus, who find it difficult to trill a good *R*, most other tribes — notably the Basuto, Bechuana and Mashona — take the letter in their stride.

Y has the familiar English pronunciation, but its value is more variable. Thus we find many words in Fanagalo are spelt with or without a *Y*.
e.g. *Yens*, *Ena*; *Yazi*, *Azi*; *Yinto*, *Into*; *Yilwa*, *Ilwa*,

Both forms are perfectly correct, but the use of *Y* adds emphasis to the vowel sound which follows it.

Diphthongs

Ai or *Ay*: spoken like vowel sound in English word *Tie*.

Ey: spoken like the vowel sound in *They*.

Au: rhymes with *cow*.

Oi, *oy*: as in *oil*, *boy*.

Ou: as in *soul*.

Stress

In Fanagalo the stress, or accentuation, usually falls on the penultimate syllable of the word. Here is an example, with the accentuated syllables in *italic type*: *washa masandla gawena* (wash your hands). By the same token the final syllable in Fanagalo words, particularly those which have an Nguni origin, is usually weak and unaccentuated.

Editor's note: The following words were selected from the dictionary as examples of phonetic spelling of the native pronunciation. Some of them humorously indicate the manner of their thinking.

adit-tonel

Africa-Afrika, Aflika

air (compressed)-smok

anyone-omnye

April-Epuleli

apron-eplon

first class-festklas

fishplate-fishpleyit

fitters-fitas

flange-flenj

flat trolly-skotsh kar

five-fayif

penny-peni

petrol-petrol

pick (n)-piki

piccanini-pikanin

pillow-pilo

pin-pin

assay office-aseyi hofis	football-futbol	pipe-paiyp
attendant-bas boy	forage-folitsh	pipe(tobacco)-peyip
August-Agosi	foreman-foloman	pineapple-payinapu
baby-bebi	forty-foti	plant-planti
bag-saki	four-fo	plate-pleyit
ball-bol	fourteen-fotin	plough-plughu
banana-banan	Frenchman-Fulentshi	pocket-poket, paketini
bandage-bendej	fresh-nyuwan	pole-pal, stik
bank-benk	fumes-smok	poison-poisoni
barley-bali	fuse-fiyoz	police-polisa, poyisa
bath-baf	gung-genge	police station-polisa-steshi
bathe-washa	gaol-jele, jeyil	police van-pikap
bed-mdede	garage-gelatsh	poliomyelitis-polio
bell-klok	garden-gadin	Portuguese-Portugezi
belt-banti, bande	gas-smok	post office-pos hofsi
bench-bentsh	gasket-gasket	pot-poti
bend (in tracks)-bende	gate-geyit	pound (n)-pauwund
beware-pas op	gelatine-jalatin	prison-jeyil
Bible-Baibel	gear-giri	pump-mpompi
bicycle-baisikil	German-Jaliman	pump (v)-pompa
blacksmith-blaksmit	gold-golide	punch-pontshi
blanket-blanket	golf-golof	push-shova
blue-bluwan	goose neck-gus nek	quinine-kwinin muti
block-le blok	grease-gris	railway-stimela
boil (v.i.)-bila	green-lo grin	raise (n)-lo reyiz
boilers-boyila	half-haf	rake-reke
bolt-bolit	handle-handel	reducer-redyusa
book-buk	haulage-holej	referee-referi
boss-bas	heat-tshisa (sizler?)	revolver-volovolo
bossboy-basboy	help-helepa	Rhodesia Rodisia
box-bokis	hoe-pek	rivet-rivet
brake-brek, breyik	hoist-injin	roller-rola
breakfast-blekfis, brekfis	holiday-holideyi	round-rawund
breakdown-smeshe	hospital-spetele	rung-stepis
breathe-pefumula	hotel-hotela	sack (n)-sake
bring back-buyisa	hook-huk	safety rope-sling
bucket-bakete	hundred-wan handred	Salisbury-Sozibeli
bushing-bering	hour-auwa (ka lo watsh)	salt-sawuti
busy-bizi	inspector-spekitali	sand-santi
cabbage-klabish	jack-jek	Satan-Satan
cable (elect.)-kebul	January-Januwele	school-skolo
caddie-kedi	jackhammar-jekhame	scotch cart-skotshka
cake-ketsh, keje	jersey-jezi	search-setsha
cam-kam	jet-spreyi	September-Sebutemba
candle-kandela	jim crow-jim-krow	septic-bolile
Cape Town-Khepi	job-job	seven-seven
car-motokali	jokey-joki	seventeen-seventin
car (material)-skotshkar	join-joyina	seventy-seventi

carpenter (shop)-kapenta (tshap)	July-Julaiyi	shaft-shafu, tshaf
carpet khapet	June-Juni	shave-shefa
castor oil-kasta oil	key-kiyi	shift-shif
cat-katsi, kitsi	knife-nayif	shift boss-shifbas
cement-samente	knot-lo not	shop, blacksmith-blaksmit
chain-tsheyini	lace (boots)-faka leyis	tshap
chair plates-tsher pleyit	ladder-lada	shop, boiler-boyila tshap
chalk-tshoko	lamp-lampu, lamp	sickle-sickele
cheap-tshipisa	late-leyit, lati	sick-sik
cheese stick-tshisa stik	learner-nyu wan	side-sayid
chisel-tshizolo	lemon-lamun	siding-stesh
chopper-tshapu	leggings-legin	signal-klok
chock (R.R.)-geyik blok	letter-brif	sister-sistele
chock (drill)-tshok	lettuce-letisi	six-sikis
Christmas-Kisimus	level-level	sixteen-sikistin
circus-strongmani	liar-laya, laia	size-sayiz
clean-enza klin	license-laisens	sleeper(R.R.)-slipisi
clock-watsh	lid-deksel	smoke-(n)-musi
cock-tap	lift-lifi	soldier-soldati
cocoa-koko	light-lampu	sole plates-sol pleyit
coffee-kofi	light-up-layita	South-Sauwt
compost-kompos	line-layin	special pass-speshel
compound-komponi	loafer-lova	spike-spayik
concrete-konklite, konkrit	lock-kiya	splint(n)-plank
contract (agreement)-joyin	locked-kiyile	spoon-spun
convict-bandit	lorry-lori	sprag-sprag, sprak
cook-kuk, kukboy	Lourenco Marques-Lolenso-maki	stable (n)-stebel
coupling-kaplin	lucerne-lusene	stage-platform
crooked-ayi streyit	machine-mtshini	stairs-stes
cross cut-krostad, kroskat	madam-misis	statement -stetment
crosby clamp-krosbi klamp	magistrate-majistlet	station (n)-steshi
crowbar-jimkro	malaria-mfiva	stonewall-ston wol
current-gas	manager-meneja	store-stolo
cyanide-sayinet	mango-mengo	stove-stofu
dam-dam	manure-manyolo	strap-bande
dangerous-pas op	March-Mashi	Sunday-Sonto
deadly-pas op	mark-make	sweets-switi, svits
December-Disemba	matches-metshis	switch-switsh
detective-fokis	mat pack-pak	table-taful
Devil-Satan	me-mina	take-tata
dirt, dirty-doti	messenger-mesenja	tank-tenk
dish-ndish	milk-melek	tap(cock)-tap
doctor-dokotela	mine (n)-mayin	taxi-teksi
down-pantsi	minute (time)-miniti	tea-ti, tiyi
dressing-bendej	mistake-mistek	teapot-tipoti
drum (machinery)-drom	motor car-motokali	telephone-telefomo
drum (container)-tin	myself-mina	ten-ten
	new-nyuwan	thirteen-tetin

dust-dast	newspaper-nyuzipepa	thirty-teti
dyke-dayik	night-nayit	this-diswan
dynamite-jalatin	night shift-nayit tshif	three-tri
explosive-jalatin	nine-nayin	towel-tawul
East London-Istilonon	nineteen-nayintin	train-treyin
eight-eyit	ninety-nayinti	truck-troko
eighteen-eyitin	notice-notisi	tunnel-tonal
eighty-eyiti	November-Novemba	tuberculosis-tebekelosis
electricity-gas	October-Okitoba	twelve-twelf
elevator-lifi	office-ofisi, hofisi	twenty-twenti
eleven-leven	oil-oil, oyil	two-tu
English-Singisi	oil can-oyil kan	valve-valy
engine-injin	one-wan	vegetable-vejetebel
engineer-injinya	ore pass-or pas	wagon-wegon
enter-ngena	orange-olintsh	wall-wol
epsom salts-soda	out crop-owut krop	wash (v)-washa
exhaust pipe-egzos payip	owl-wuwu	washgirl-washgel
eye bolt-ayi bolit	packet-paket	watch (n)-watsh
farm-fam, plas	pack-paka	water blast (mining)-wotoblas
father-baba	paint-penta	wedge-wej
February-Febuwele	pan-lo pan	week-wik
feeder-fida	paper-pepa	wheel-vil
fifteen-fifitin	pass-pas	windmill-windmil
fifty-fifti	passage-pasej	winze-winz
file-faiyil	patch-petsh	wireless-wailisi
		wise-clever
		yes-ya

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[Spelling Progress Bulletin October 1963 p18 in the printed version]

My Prayer for Progress, by Leslie De Mar,

God gave us brains and eyes to use
 To gather facts - to pick and choose
 This be a crux, I know for sure
 To find an ill, is half its cure.

Give us an alphabet so pure and simple
 A letter reliable for each simple sound
 In spelling and reading, for these am I pleading
 Make knowledge go the world around.

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8. Personal Experiences in Teaching with the Pitman I.T.A., by Valerie I. Kemp.

The school at which I teach, a Junior Mixed and infant School under a Headmaster, has approximately 260 children on roll from the ages of 4 years 9 months to 11 years 10 months, and is divided into 7 classes with one complete age group, and therefore a complete range of ability, in each.

The children enter school at the beginning of the term in which they attain their fifth birthday, and move into the next class each September, age, not ability, being the determining factor. It was into the reception class of the Infant Department of the school the Initial Teaching Alphabet (I.T.A.) was introduced in September, 1961. There are three infant classes, but as the children in the other two had already begun to read, it was only the children who were coming to school for the first time in September, 1961 who were to be part of the experiment. Children were admitted to this class in September, January and May and during the term, should they have moved into the area served by our school. Thus the children in my experimental class will, by the end of this term July, 1963, have been in school 2 years, 1 year 2 terms, or 1 year 1 term, and therefore the standard of fluency in reading varies a great deal, 'according to the ability of each individual child.

There is somewhere, another school similar to this one, in which the children are being taught to read the traditional alphabet — this is the control school which is necessary in an experiment of this kind. All the schools taking part in the experiment have a control school, and when matching these schools, many of those variables known to be related to attainment in reading were taken into consideration so that the comparison between the two schools was as fair as possible. I do not know the name, whereabouts or attainment of our control school and have, at present, no wish to, as I feel this knowledge might create a feeling of urgency and rivalry which would be detrimental to results.

On September 10th, 1961, the first children to learn to read I.T.A. were admitted to my class. This group consisted of twelve children, one of whom was to learn the traditional alphabet as he was expected to move during his first term at school, and one boy who could already read. Here was the first indication of the ease with which the children could cope with the transfer from I.T.A. to Traditional Orthography (T.O.), only in reverse. As David could already read quite well he was given books in T.O. However, he would pick up and read, with obvious enjoyment, the books in I.T.A. He read all the classroom notices and not once did he comment to me that the print was different in any way. I felt that if a child aged 4 years 10 months could read I.T.A. having never seen it before, it seemed probable that the children learning I.T.A. would, at a later stage be able to read T.O. with equal ease. This has proved to be the case. In November we were joined by another boy, so that at the end of the term 11 children were learning I.T.A. and two were learning T.O. This was a very small class, but at this early stage of the experiment we did not wish to have children of the next age group, who had already begun to read, in the same class.

When the children in my class are ready to begin to learn to read, I begin to introduce the first sentences and pictures of the introductory book of the reading scheme which we follow. When a child can read these sentences and put them with the appropriate pictures, I give him the Introductory Book for the first time. The chap can then read this book with ease, and this gives him confidence and the desire to go on. While he is reading this book and the supplementaries I begin to

teach him the new vocabulary necessary for him to be able to read the next book. This is the way I taught T.O. and as we were asked at the beginning of the experiment not to change the method, I continued in this way. The sounds of the letters and symbols were introduced incidentally, and no formal word building until a much later stage. Many children found the sound values of the letters themselves and were greatly assisted in this by the consistency of the alphabet.

At the end of their first term in school the children were tested with the Ravens Matrices Test and the Crichton Vocabulary Test. These tests used in conjunction with each other form a test of general intelligence. The Coloured Matrices *Tests A, A_B, B* consist of 36 problems that the child is asked to solve. The child has to select the correct 'piece' or 'picture' from six, to complete a pattern or sequence. The Vocabulary Test consists of 80 words — two parallel sets of 40 words each. The child is asked to explain the meaning of each in his own words.

The tests were subsequently, given at the end of their first term in school to the 14 children admitted in January and the 12 children admitted to the class in May. The tests were given by the member of staff who had been trained to administer them, and the children and I treated the whole thing as a new game, and one in which they were lucky to be able to take part. The children went individually with the teacher and all seemed to enjoy the experience. The small boy not learning I.T.A. and who therefore did not have to be tested, insisted that he should go to 'play games' with the other teacher — and so he was not left out. In this way the children took the test in their stride and none of them appeared to be worried in any way.

During this first term we had a number of visitors that added to the excitement of what is always an eventful term in our school. Apart from the normal activities of a reception class, the Autumn Term has other attractions — Harvest Festival, the annual Bring and Buy Sale, Guy Fawkes Day, and Christmas festivities, parties, carols, and plays. This term we were visited, or perhaps I should say invaded, by the local and national press, I.T.V. and B.B.C.T.V. and Movietone News, and later by C.B.S. who recorded a feature for The Saturday Show. I would like to emphasise that no extra time has been spent on reading and that as far as possible we have continued with the normal timetable which includes Nature Study, Scripture, Poetry, Speech, Drama, Story Telling, Music, Physical Education and Games, as well as Reading, Writing and Arithmetic and allied activities. Time is also given to creative activities — painting, modelling clay, sand and water play.

In February, the children who entered school for the first time in September were given their first reading test. After 20 weeks attendance at school, allowance being made for absence, the children attempted the Vernon Graded Word Reading Test translated into I.T.A. This test consists of 100 words graded in order of difficulty, in groups of 10 words. The same word test was given to the children in the control schools but in T.O., and the results showed that already children in the experimental schools were finding I.T.A. easier to read than their counterparts were finding T.O. In this group I had no non-readers but one or two slow starters but all were able to read some of the words on this test. This term we again had many visitors and one of them had a spirited argument with Michael aged 5½ years as to whether he could read Book 4, or not. The argument was brought to an end by the child saying in tones of great exasperation, "I'll show you!" and he did! During this term, the second for the children admitted in September, various things were beginning to become apparent. The children's free writing was beginning to develop, and they seemed to have greater independence in reading and writing — there seemed to me to be fewer children saying, 'How do I write....?', or 'What does this word say, please?' I thought that perhaps I was imagining this, but later when the findings of the other experimental schools were put together this was confirmed.

May marked the arrival of new entrants again, the last group to be included in the experiment in my class. The number of children on my register now became 37. Halfway through this term the September children were given the Schonell Graded Word Reading Test by me, again in I.T.A. This test consists of 100 words graded in order of difficulty, in groups of ten words. Once again the results of the tests were compared with the results obtained in the control schools where the children had attempted the same test, only in T.O., and again the children in the experimental classes had scores that were superior to those of the control group.

At the beginning of June the first of my September group reached the transition. He was not the first child in the experiment to do so, but the first child about whom I can write from first hand knowledge. Michael read to the end of 'Wuns upon a tiem' and all the supplementary readers (Book 5 in the Janet and John Reading Scheme) and by this time he was reading fluently and with understanding. I gave him the first book in another series of books but this time in T.O. and he read this quite easily, taking capital letters in his stride. The only time he hesitated was when he came to the word 'island' but by glancing quickly at the remainder of the sentence, he read this irregular word by context. Having read to the end of this book he was sent to the top class in the Junior School to obtain the next new one. (These books are used for the slow readers in the Junior School). When he did not return the headmaster went to find him and on entering the classroom he found Michael reading to a class of Juniors who were all listening intently — (the story was about pirates) — an example of the interest shown by the other children in the school in the experiment, and also of Michael's own confidence in his ability to read. The next child to transfer to traditional transition print was Jennifer aged 5½ ears. This child too made the transition with ease and like Michael was soon reading any books in T.O. at the standard of Book 5 and Book 6. Although these children had made the transition so easily, like many others, I said to myself "These children are bright, but what will happen when the average and the slower children come to transfer?" I am now in the position of being able to answer some of these questions. All of the children who have entered the class in September, 1961, have transferred to T.O. The averse and the slower children all transferred to T.O. very easily. It is true that the slower children took longer to reach this stage, but having become fluent readers in I.T.A. they accomplished the change without any difficulty, and I am fully confident that all children, given sufficient time reading I.T.A. will transfer to T.O., with all its inconsistencies, quite easily and naturally.

We are now coming to the end of the second year of the experiment, and my class of 43 children, who have been in school 4, 5, or 6 terms, still have one year to complete before they are transferred to the Junior Department — they have to be 7 years of age by September 1st. I have in the class one or two children who attended another school before coming to my class. These children had already begun to read the traditional alphabet and continued to do so, as I.T.A. is only intended to be used until the beginner is confident in his ability to read and then that he should transfer his skill to reading books printed in traditional print. The position in the class is this: of the original 36 children learning to read I.T.A., all but 9 have transferred to T.O. and these are, with one exception reading the last book in the reading scheme and should transfer to traditional print during the coming term. The last child to transfer will do so before Easter.

Side by side with the improved standards of reading has grown the ability to write. No longer are news and story books stilted and uninteresting. The children's stories are longer, words used in everyday speech appear in the writing, and the children no longer play safe and use only the words that they are confident of writing because they are constantly used in their basic reader. They have a

new confidence in their own ability to make themselves understood on paper, and even the very young children will not only draw a picture, but write a story about it for themselves. The children had no difficulty in writing the symbols, and unless the wrong sound is used, I do not correct their spelling at all at this stage.

Although the transition is not a gradual process when it comes to reading — the change being made completely and easily — with spelling, the change, in my experience, is a little slower, but as children have never been able to spell 100% correctly at the age of 5, 6, or 7 Years, this is to be expected? I have found out that the children tend to spell in I.T.A., especially, a long and complicated word, but the more books that they read in T.O., the more easily they spell in T.O., and up to the present time I have accepted the fact that if I want the uninhibited writing to continue, I must accept the mixture of spelling. The correction of spelling, like other teaching, is largely an individual matter depending to a great extent on the particular child. When a child does come and ask, "How do I write ... in the new writing?", I find that I have to be very careful and warn all visitors that I.T.A. is the 'old' writing, and T.O. is the 'new' writing to the children. This, I think, shows how successful we were in the beginning of the experiment not to let the children feel that they were doing something that was different, but that I.T.A. was the natural way to learn to read.

A great deal has been said about the Hawthorne Effect always present in an experiment of this kind. The fact that there is a certain amount of publicity, the knowledge that many people are interested, that regular testing takes place and comparisons are being made, is supposed to give the teacher and the children that extra feeling of importance, and therefore they put a little more effort and enthusiasm into their work. In this experiment a great deal has been done to nullify this effect. Courses, meetings and lectures have been arranged for all the teachers in the control schools, and everything has been done to give these teachers the impetus and urge to give that little extra and so equal the effort of the teachers in the experimental classes.

Taking part in an experiment can put a great strain on the teacher and the children, for not only is there the normal teaching, the testing programme; but in some cases there can be a large number of visitors to the classroom and this has been the position at my school. Rightly or wrongly, we believe that the experiment is of such importance to the future teaching of reading, that we must as far as possible allow all those educationalists and teachers who so wish, to visit the classroom and see for themselves. Visitors are always free to walk about the room, to talk with the children, to hear the children read, to see the children writing their stories and news? At no time are visitors asked to see selected children — all those attending school are in the classroom, the bright, the average and the slower children. If the visitor's time is limited I will, at their request, select a cross-section of the class, but I always encourage them to spend a little time just looking for themselves, for I believe that it is the children who will convince them of the worth of the new alphabet?

While there are visitors in the classroom, the children are engaged in reading activities news and story writing, picture, word and sentence matching; 'Read and Do' cards; English books and topic books; reading games; and because of the nature of the alphabet and the great independence they have gained, the children are able to get on by themselves and they can, and do, work for quite long periods without having to ask for assistance. This confidence in their own ability is one of the things that astonishes many visitors who remark on this, and also on the obvious enjoyment with which they tackle their work. My 43 boys and girls are as lively a bunch of 5½ to 6½ year olds as you will find in any school, and quite as unpredictable. They are never told the day before that visitors are expected and rarely told before the visitors actually arrive in the classroom, and sometimes their re-

actions are both amusing and to me, embarrassing. Those visitors who remain aloof can leave the room completely unnoticed, while those who can spare the time to sit and talk with the children are readily accepted as friends and the children will quite spontaneously wave good-bye. These are the people who gain most from their visit and also give something to the children in return, by telling them a little of the places from which they come.

The testing programme is extensive. As I have already mentioned the children attempt the Raven Matrices Test and the Crichton Vocabulary Test at the end of their first term in school. They attempt the Schonell Word Recognition Test during their third and fifth terms in school, this test being in I.T.A. each time. My class have also attempted the Neale Analysis Test at the end of their fifth term, but this test has been given in T.O. to all the children whether they have transferred to T.O. or are still reading I.T.A. This test, on parallel Forms A,B,C, asks the child to read six pieces of prose of graded difficulty. After completing each piece the child is asked questions about the story. The child goes on reading until he has made more than the maximum number of permissible mistakes on any passage. The results of this test showed that the children learning to read by means of I.T.A. achieved consistently higher scores than did the children in control schools, who had been learning to read traditional print from the beginning. This test also determines at the same time, the level of comprehension and again the scores were higher. These results are only given as part of the work that has been done amongst a small section of the schools in the experiment, but they do perhaps give an indication of the results yet to come.

I have now reached a point in the experiment when I am prepared to offer some conclusions that I have formed. The children in my class are, whether bright, average or slow starters, learning to read I.T.A. *much more rapidly* than any other class of children I have taught during the 12 years I have been teaching infants. The alphabet is of great value to children *of all abilities*, as once they have reached the stage of being able to 'build' the consistency of the sounds gives them the confidence to tackle any new word with an assurance of success. This in itself leads to more reading and enjoyment, and less frustration. All children from an early age love to scribble, and the joy and pleasure that they derive from being able to write and be understood: has to be seen to be believed.

The children seem to have a new confidence in themselves, which seems to be carried through in all they attempt and while agreeing that only time will tell if this confidence lasts; I am sure that there is a great deal of worth in I.T.A. for the teaching of reading to the beginner.

In conclusion, I would like to add that throughout this account of some of my experiences, except when referring to results as published by John Downing, I have written about the things that have been happening in my classroom. Other tests, other aspects of reading and using the alphabet with older children who have failed to read, are all being carried out and investigated in other schools, but of these I have no first hand knowledge and therefore am not in a position to write about them.

Miss Valerie Kemp is also Secretary for the International Reading Association for the United Kingdom.

Review of New Books, by the Editors.

9. Diagnostic Reading Scales, by George D. Spache, Ph.D.*

*Director of Reading Laboratory and Clinic. Univ. of Florida, Gainesville, Fla. Published by California Test Bureau, Del Monte Research Park, Monterey, Calif.

The *Diagnostic Reading Scales* are a new series of interrelated tests, carefully developed over a period of eight years to provide standardized evaluations of oral and silent reading skills and of auditory comprehension. Tests are provided to determine a pupil's grade level from 1 to 8.5 in thirteen steps. The tests are individually administered, usually in sequence, to determine the proficiency of normal and retarded readers at elementary school levels and of retarded readers in junior and senior high school. The test battery consists of three word-cognition Lists, twenty-two [leading Passages of graduated difficulty, and six supplementary Phonics Tests. The use of the Word Recognition List determines the level at which subsequent tests should be administered and, on occasion, whether further testing is necessary. The uses of the parts of the scales and the interpretation of the part scores are quite closely related, so that discussion of each one separately involves some overlap.

Word Recognition Lists

The *Word Recognition Lists*, thus serve three principal purposes

- (1) to estimate the Instructional Level of reading,
- (2) to reveal the pupil's method of word attack and analysis, and
- (3) to evaluate the pupil's sight-word vocabulary.

The grade placement obtained from these lists determines the selection of the initial reading passage, which should be used to determine the Instructional Level.

The kinds of errors the pupil makes on the Word Recognition lists, as well as those recorded during the testing for Instructional Level, reveal the nature and consistency of his methods of word analysis.

These errors may be tabulated and identified by means of the Word Analysis Checklist provided in the record booklet. The observations noted on the Word Analysis Checklist may be incorporated into the Checklist of Reading Difficulties, which summarizes the characteristics of the pupil's total reading performance.

The Three Reading Levels

The three reading levels, Instructional, Independent, and Potential are determined through the use of the 22 graduated Reading Passages.

The pupil's oral reading performance in terms of both errors and comprehension, will enable the teacher to determine the suitable level for instructional reading materials. The level at which any instruction can be carried out is ultimately that point at which the pupil has no undue difficulty simply in reading' the words of the textbook. Noting the number of oral reading errors is a practical approach to finding the Instructional Level at which improvement of reading should begin.

The Independent Level identifies the grade level of recreational and supplementary reading materials at which the pupil can read silently, with adequate comprehension. While children will encounter some word-recognition difficulties in selections scaled at their Independent Level, these will not be so great as to seriously retard understanding or pleasure. These silent reading passages also afford a rough measure of reading speed. The teacher can thus determine whether the student is a fast, average, or slow reader at his comprehension level.

The Potential Level represents the level to which a pupil's reading may be raised through remedial or classroom training. Many pupils read considerably below their potential; others read up to capacity, even if below their actual grade placement. If the Potential Level is higher than the Instructional or Independent Levels, the pupil is probably not functioning at capacity, and intensive training may be profitable. If the Potential Level is not higher than the Independent or Instructional Levels, it may indicate that the child is already reading up to his expected capacity.

The Six Phonics Tests

The purpose of the six Phonics Tests is to provide a detailed analysis of the Pupil's phonic knowledge and word attack methods by measuring the two-way skips that are essential to forming reciprocal associations between symbols and sounds.

The supplementary Phonics Tests may be administered at the conclusion of testing for the three reading levels if, in the teachers judgement, the word-attack methods used by the pupil appear to warrant further study. The teacher may determine a pupil's need for training in phonic skills through specific clues obtained from the Phonics Tests. These skills are also significant in spelling success. Poor spellers lack essential phonic knowledge and skill in analytic attack upon words. Several of these tests may be adapted to aid in diagnosis of spelling difficulties.

Interpretation of results

As is to be expected, there is a fairly high relationship between the Word Recognition and Instructional Level scores, the correlations ranging from .65 to .78. These correlations, however, are not sufficient to produce parallel scores in all cases. Some pupils make relatively few oral reading errors, and are more successful in word analysis in context than in isolation.

Comparison of the Word Recognition score and the final Instructional Level permits the examiner to evaluate the pupil's skill in use of context, or his ability to apply word analysis techniques when reading continuous material. It will also point out those pupils who are overly dependent upon context for recognizing words, and therefore need more intensive training in independent word-attack methods,

Since Instructional Level is determined by the number of oral reading errors, the exact nature of these errors may influence the interpretation of a pupil's reading abilities. Judgement must be exercised in deciding whether the total errors made by a pupil on oral reading relate primarily to word recognition, or whether they reflect some other cause.

Many authorities suggest that proper remedial training should enable every pupil to read at a level equal to his mental age. This is probably true, in a general sense; logically, one pupil should be able to read as well as others of equal mental age, if all are trained appropriately. In actuality, this correspondence of potential and performance is not often found. Many factors may disturb the balance between mental age and reading level and prevent the two from being equivalent.

The effects of delayed speech, defects of articulation, a bilingual background with initial learning of speech in a foreign language, severe emotional problems evidenced in negativism and resistance to learning, and various handicaps in vision or hearing, are some of the obstacles to achieving reading skills consistent with potential. In such cases, the pupil's potential reading level, as measured here, may not match his mental age during that period of his life when he is most likely to receive instruction in reading. One other handicap to achieving full potential reading level, particularly among brighter children, is lack of sufficient challenge and motivation. For this reason, many intellectually-gifted children fail to function at the mental age levels of which they are theoretically capable.

On the other hand, many duller pupils actually read at levels above their reported mental capacity. This may be due to excessive stimulation or pressure by teachers, or pressure by teachers, or because of the pupil's recognition of the need for extra effort on their part to keep up with their fellows. As a result, one is apt to find some intellectually inferior pupils achieving in reading at higher levels than their mental ages would seem to warrant.

It is possible for the Potential Level to be raised or lowered by the nature of the instruction given the pupil, or by the effects of his environment. It is not uncommon for pupils to show marked growth in reading potential as a result of intensive remedial training. Not only do their reading skills improve, but due to the broadening experience with language, their comprehension of spoken material or their potential reading level may also increase. It is conceivable that either sterile environment or exposure to instruction at a level far beyond the pupil's comprehension could result in lowered potential. Children severely retarded in reading for a long period of time, and yet promoted through the grades to struggle with materials far above their level, may give up the effort to comprehend. Such pupils may actually deteriorate in potential as measured by this scale. For these reasons, measurement of potential reading level may often be considered a temporary estimate, true for the pupil only at the time of testing.

A comparison is made between the Diagnostic Reading Scales and the California Reading Test, the Stanford Achievement Test (Paragraph Meaning Section), and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children. It appears from the data presented, that there is a very close agreement between the results achieved by the Diagnostic Reading Scales and the above tests. These studies would indicate the Diagnostic Reading Scales are highly reliable and valid measures of oral and silent reading skills and auditory comprehension.

Further cross-validation studies and replications of the studies reported in the manual would be desirable. The S.P.B. would be very much interested not only in these kinds of reports but also in those indicating what the above tests show, i.e., the extent of their validity and usefulness.

By Newell W. Tune, Editor, (prepared with the help of Wayne E. Rosenoff, Ed.D., Coordinator of Special Programs, California Test Bureau).

10. Psychology in Teaching Reading, by Henry P. Smith & Emerald V. Dechant

This 471 page book is the work of Dr. Henry P. Smith of the University of Kansas, and Dr. Emerald V. Dechant of Fort Hays Kansas State College. In preparation for it the authors examined some 2500 other studies in some way pertinent to its field. They discuss with thoroughness what leading reading specialists have advanced on the perceptual nature of reading, on its sensory bases, on the psychology of reading readiness, and on skills in word recognition, in comprehension and in reading rate. And just as thoroughly they go into the psychology of motivation and of personality and behavioral factors. So tight-packed is the closely printed volume with data and contra-data from these studies, and so multiple the divisions under which it is organized, this reviewer's only recourse is to concentrate on one of these last. As *word-blindness* (also known as *special reading disability*) may be less familiar to many Bulletin subscribers than most of the other divisions, it will be the one.

Word blindness would seem to be a rather misleading term. It does not mean that the child does not see the sequence of letters which make up, let us say, the words *was, now, ten, nib*. It means that he sees them incorrectly — perhaps because he is taking them in with the wrong eye and the wrong half of his brain. This leads to a confusion in which he may do all sorts of things with these words, such as reversing them entirely into *saw, won, net, bin*, and so stymie himself as to their meaning in the context in which they appear. Or he may jumble them into *asw, nwo, nee, ibn*, and so fail to get any sort of meaning, in or out of context. This naturally plays havoc with the memory for printed words which other children of his age and I.Q. are acquiring, undermines his confidence in himself, and exposes him to a helplessness, frustration and despair to which, but for the wrong cerebral dominance, he would have been immune.

For the victim of word blindness may be otherwise very bright. It is a *reading* disability, not a *learning* one. If someone would just read the homework to him, his history, geography, nature study, and listen to him "say it back," he could probably outshine, next day, most of his classmates who, bringing to bear the proper eye and proper cerebral hemisphere, had done their homework on their own.

How many of the Bulletin clientele are aware that the ease with which they got through their primers and early readers they owe to the fact that in the matter of brain dominance they had handed the scepter to the left hemisphere? And that in consequence they reached school age with the right eye all set to take on the job of reading words in the *left-to-right* sequence in which their primers presented them, and so were saved the bewilderment of mistaking *on* for *no*, *pool* for *loop*, *lip* for *pill*, etc. And that it was in further consequence of this left hemisphere governance they found it natural to use their right hand for writing and to move their pencil left to right across the page. Thereby saving themselves that tendency to mirror writing which plagues the child across the aisle.

If this is news, don't take it from me. Our authors themselves wouldn't go to the stake for its factuality. Or for that of the other disabilities which one school of reading attribute to the failure of the right cerebral hemisphere to take command. It simply isn't feasible here to make a complete list of these unfortunate effects, but strongly under suspicion are stammering, over-age lispings and baby talk, inability — even with normal hearing — to discriminate between such sounds as in *m* and *n*, or *b* and *d*, *b* and *p*, *t* and *l* and various others.

Our authors keep themselves above the battle by cautioning their readers that too little is yet known about the functions of the brain to pin any one of them wholly to this or that area of it. With equal objectivity they quote from:

- (a) studies positive of the all-importance to reading of the left-cerebral, right eye, right hand line-up,
- (b) studies with various reservations as to the foregoing,
- (c) studies which reject it, at least to the point of finding a sufficiency of other reasons for the reading and writing difficulties which such millions of our young are up against.

Outstanding among studies (c) are two by Dr. George G. Spache of the University of Florida. As for reversals, he has this to say:

"They are a universal phenomenon present among learners of all ages who are attacking a new and strange group of symbols. Reversals are not related to handedness or eyedness or cerebral dominance, nor are they indicative of laterality or visual handicaps. In my opinion, their only meaning is as an indication of the unfamiliarity of the individual with the particular symbols he is trying to learn."

And even more categorical is this statement of his:

"As pointed out in an earlier summary in 1941, reversals are not causal to poor reading or even related to it." [\[1\]](#)

Since the publication of this book, the most important reading study in the whole English speaking world, this far in our twentieth century, has now reached our shores. I need not tell the readers of this quarterly publication that I refer to — the I.T.A. experiments in England, initiated by Sir James Pitman and carried on through this auspicious beginning of its third school year under the immediate direction of John Downing of London University. So well have previous issues of the Bulletin covered its progress, that all this reviewer will attempt is to stress the basic belief on which Sir James set it going. The belief, that is to say, that the cause of England's "reading problem" lies not in the child, be he right-handed or left, or whichever of his eyes is dominant — it lies in the chaos of the spelling with which his primer and early readers face him. Just change this spelling to one so orderly that every symbol of it confines itself strictly to the visualizing of one and only one of our forty basic speech sounds, and your children take to reading with an ease, speed and joyousness that has to be seen to be believed.

Neither Sir James nor Mr. Downing are taking any public stand on the matter of cerebral dominance. It may have importance in ways on which responsible psychologists may someday agree, But "word blindness" has been so singularly non-operative among the 2500 children starting their reeding and rieting with the Pitman Initial Teaching Alphabet that ,,,, well, draw the inferences for yourself.

It is now Americanized in a 600 child school experiment under the direction of Dr. Albert J. Mazurkiewiez of Lehigh University and Dr. Harold J. Tanyzer of Hofstra College. Is anyone at the University of Kansas or the Fort Hays State College preparing for a similar one? The gifts of mind and temperament its authors brought to bear on this scholarly book might find still higher fulfillment in an adventure in teaching reading which might render obsolete a good few of the 2500 studies on which it is based.

Reviewed by E. E. Arctier.

[1] Spache, George D.: "Factors which produce defective reading", *Corrective Reading in Classroom and Clinic*, Ed. Mono. No. 79, Univ. of Chicago Press, 1953, 49–57.

11. Adolescent Attitudes Towards Academic Brilliance, by Dr. Abraham J. Tannenbaum

This is a study sponsored by the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation and published by Teachers College, Columbia University. Its object is to discover what effect mental superiority has on the social status of its teen-age possessor. In other words, to what extent do high school students admire, like and treat as friends those of their fellow students who significantly excel them in scholastic achievement and to what extent dislike and derrogate them and freeze them out of personal and group association. Or to put it still another way, how far is our adolescent "sub-culture" imbued with the anti-intellectualism of so much of adult America?

Its author, Dr. Tannenbaum, is Associate Dean of the Graduate School of Education of Yeshiva University, a Jewish institution of very high status. His objectivity may be partly measured by the fact that it was among the teenagers of his own people — widely assumed to be more given the things of the mind than are their Gentile counterparts that he elected to make this study. He picked on a comprehensive high school in a thickly settled residential area of Brooklyn. Of the 3700 boys and girls it enrolled, some three fourths were Jews, a fifth negroes and Puerto Ricans and the rest from a small number of Italian families. They come from a predominately middle class community, populated mostly by shop-keepers, professionals and white collar workers. Of the children who enter the school, almost 80% stay on to graduate with an academic, a commercial or a general diploma. That three fourths of these graduates receive the academic diploma would seem to presuppose a generally high scholastic milieu by which all students must be more or less influenced.

The study was restricted to 615 eleventh graders drawn from a large representative sample of honor, regular and modified English classes. Since English is one of the core subjects which all students are required to take regardless of which diploma they pursue, it was felt that the representation of the junior year would be found in these classes. Of these 615, the parents of 30% owned small businesses, 16% were professionals, and the rest worked in various kinds of jobs in offices, factories and stores. The atmosphere of the homes was such that a high proportion of these-selectees were planning on some kind of post high school education.

Here, then, we are not reading of a sample of those "culturally deprived children" of whom we hear so much these days. They were not a segment of those of whom, in a recent article, Frank Riesman writes; "There is only one value of the lower socio-economic groups which I would fight in the school — their anti-intellectual attitude These children and their parents are pretty much anti-intellectual at all levels. They don't like "egg-heads"; they think talk is a "lot of bull" [\[1\]](#) Yet the findings of Dr. Tannenbaum's research are far from showing a complete antithesis of this anti-intellectualism. They agree all too well with those of an earlier one, also made under the aegis of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute, from which he condenses this reply of a very intelligent tenth grader when asked to explain his near failing grades:

"Well, some kids study all the time.... but the class usually doesn't like them... Well, there's one kid who was in our school last year — he was a brain in mathematics and he knew what the Einstein theory was. He couldn't play baseball or anything like that, but when he got to school, he studied and got a hundred in every subject... That guy didn't have many friends... Other kids practically made fun of him... If I really wanted to, I could get one of the highest marks in the class, but if I did that, I wouldn't have many friends and I think friends are important, too." [\[2\]](#)

In the Implications for *Educational Policy and Research* with which Dr. Tannenbaum closes his book, he writes: "In the light of these results, one might, indeed, ask whether the American high school is actively involved in propagating the life of the mind among our youth. The question may seem fatuous to those who have heard educators claim repeatedly that schools are dedicated to producing an educated citizenry. Still, there is reason to suspect that the typical classroom has not succeeded — or perhaps not shown any real interest in — enveloping its students with the thrill of contact with great ideas. One cannot help sensing a reluctance on the part of school officials to influence student career aspirations and ways of life in the direction of scholarliness or creativity. It is as if educators were saying to students "We are as pleased with your interest in sports as we would be if you showed a similar thirst for books. All we ask is that while indulging your interests and aptitudes, you learn to utilize our basic education tools for personal enlightenment or vocational attainment." This is quite different from saying: "Our first and foremost service to students is to build intellect. We regard our having fulfilled that function best when we nurture high level contributions to culture among those with the capacity for it, and also patrons of *art and thought* among those incapable (themselves) of making significant contributions. Regardless of what your personal interests and aptitudes may be, we would like to impress on you that in the halls of learning, learning must remain supreme. You may not all be able to participate in it on an equally high level, but you ought to respect it, foster it and somehow become enriched by it!"

The *Bulletin* couldn't agree more. This is probably our best chance of coming through the age ahead of us. An age wherein not only our civilization but our very survival may depend upon the trustful acceptance of most of us of the inborn superiority of a few. But that acceptance will be all the happier if the gulf between the two categories is narrowed to that which nature and uncontrollable circumstances set. Why, then, does the school persist in keeping it as needlessly wide as the world's worst spelling can make it?

Acquiring knowledge, building one's intellect, becoming a patron of art and thought demand a quick and sure intake of vital printed matter in several fields. This quick and sure intake necessitates a practically instantaneous, all but automatic, decoding of the letters, syllables, words which visualize that matter. But what if the code is such a jumbledom that the like of *sin, cinder, scintillate* — *chill, cello, chef, chemist, schism*, pile it up to 251 common spelling of our 40–42 basic speech sounds — not to mention some 200 less common ones. [\[4\]](#)

No adult even, has ever mastered them all — if there is a reader of this review who doesn't ever have to leaf thru his dictionary, sometimes, for the pronunciation of this word or the spelling of that one, I hope he'll let me know. So can you think of a surer way of sowing the seeds of anti-intellectualism in the average and less than average primary child? Why wouldn't such a second or third grader come to resent the smarty, the teacher's pet, who was always right with *whole, soul, coal, roll, bowl, mole, knoll*, while kids as good as him — yes, and some of 'em better in lots of ways — were always getting them wrong.

Few things could be simpler than making reading, writing and spelling so easy for all normal youngsters that who would care if one or two in the class did a little better than the rest? Indeed, Dr. Tannenbaum glances at a way in which they might become the very idols of their class. "Much," he says, "can be learned from the influences that idealize the values of athletic pursuits among teenagers. Competition, team identity are well-known conditions in the world of sports that might be applied experimentally in the realm of ideas. They might, indeed, and the earlier the better. Russia was applying them to her elementary young way back in 1933–38, when that adventurous

Londoner, Deana Levin [3] was doing her five year teaching stint in a Soviet school in Moscow. The delegate of a fourth grade, for example, would challenge a comparable grade to a term-long scholastic competition, the results to be widely publicized throughout the district — even to come, perhaps, to the ears of the Ministry itself. So, of course, every decent kid pitched in to up his own scholastic score to his highest potential. Even so, do the best one could, who didn't bless his stars for that whizz or two who might just tip the scales against the competing class.

But in neither class was there a backdrag of kids who couldn't read — who couldn't get even the bare words of their textbooks — their reader and grammar, history, geography, science, arithmetic, for Russian is phonemic. It is almost impossible for a child with brains enough to learn its alphabet, not to become proficient in the mere mechanics of reading. So, of course, these inter-grade competitions were waged in the field of subject matter — of comprehension, retention and absorption of the content of their textbooks and the very considerable amount of outside reading required of Soviet school children. Here it was that the future "high level contributors to culture" came into their own, and those "incapable of making significant contributions" learned to live in happy relationship with them. If Piotr was not able, of himself, to get the full meaning of his Tolstoi or Nekrassov, he knew what to do. Across the street, or down the apartment house corridor lived Vanya who could make things more understandable than their teacher herself. And was always so chummy about it. As why wouldn't he be? There were things at which Piotr, too, was a whizz — hadn't he stood right by Vanya last winter till he made a pretty decent skier out of him?

There may be places in our malphonic land where fourth grades could stage competitions on the same scholastic level as in Moscow, but wouldn't it be better for us if they could do it everywhere? And if the price of that was nothing more than making their reading as *easily readable* as in Russia well, there's a little verse on page 13 of this *Bulletin* which ends in, "What fools we English be."

Reviewed by Denham Court.

[1] "The Culturally Deprived Child: a New View," *School Life* (U.S.O.E.), April, 1963.

[2] Jane Beasley, Summary of Interviews: De Witt Clinton Tenth Graders" *Teachers College, Columbia Univ*, 1956–7.

[3] *English Heterography*, a book by Dr. Godfrey Dewey, published by the Lake Placid Club Education Foundation, Lake Placid Club, N.Y.

[4] Deans Levin: *Children in Soviet Schools*, pub. by Faber. 1942.

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12. A Scheme for Making the English Language the International Language for the World, by James Bradshaw.

Long before the advent of the airplane, the automobile, the typewriter, the electric light, and when photography was so new it was not known outside France, and the penny postage stamp was only a few years old, a farsighted Englishman by the name of James Bradshaw had just published his book. This was in 1847. It was called by the lengthy but ambitious title, "A Scheme for Making the English Language the International Language for the World." The book apparently was so poorly received that it is still almost unknown. The only American copy we know of in a library is in the Newberry Library in Chicago. Yet this farsighted book was "chewing the desirableness of some

language being adopted for this purpose." Unfortunately, the dent it made on the public could be compared to the hole made in dry beach sand when you withdraw your finger from it.

Chapter one tells about the origin of language, the need for international communication, the need for a universal language, the use and importance of such a language.

The next chapter evaluates the English language, tells its good points as well as its weaknesses. Needless to say, it roundly condemns the irregular spelling and tells about some of the Englishmen who have suggested a reform of English spelling. A comparison is made with the science of music, and he shows how vague and unworkable the musical notations would be if they had as many exceptions to the rules as our spelling does.

The third chapter deals with the difficulties and irregularities in the construction of English grammar and how these may be resolved. He also explains how the spoken language has caused some of these irregularities.

In the fourth and final chapter he tells "the best method of accomplishing the alteration of the English language and of promoting its use among all nations throughout the world." This is the most important part of the book. These pages should be widely quoted if not in full. He, realizing the importance of how the scheme needs to be put into use and he directs his message to those responsible members of the government whose duty it is or should be to take care of the welfare of our education and to cooperate with the legislators to pass the necessary legislation to form a responsible body with the knowledge to analyse the faults of our English language and the power to select the necessary changes and to put the reformed language into use. He also recognized as a fact that only the government can make such a change, but that convincing the government officials of the value of such a reform is the most important task of the reformer.

Of his scheme, we think that a quotation would be of interest to our readers: "This scheme is not one of an ordinary kind. Its very design places it among the greatest projects of the age. If it be worth anything, it is invaluable, and will bear comparison with the greatest improvements of the present day. It will be a mental railroad to every part of the world, for the conveyance of (our) civilization, commercial intercourse, and religious light and knowledge of every description, which must produce their benign and renovating influences in every direction; by the information which will be imparted through its medium, the heathen will be taught to despise the gods and goddesses before whom he has hitherto prostrated the noblest powers of his mind in abject submission. It will wrench the scepter from the hands of the tyrant, and the magic wand from the designing priest, which have been the fruitful sources of the greatest evils, the greatest blights of human happiness, and, by paralysing the powers of the mind, have restrained every improvement. Surely the mere attempt, much more the full accomplishment of so Godlike a work, which accords with every generous and religious feeling in the human breast, can never be a disgrace to the highest personages of the realm, but must engrave their names on the most elevated pinnacles of fame, and cause them to be remembered with grateful affection by generations yet unborn, when the names of conquering heroes will either be forgotten or thought of with contempt."

To which we say, "Amen." Reviewed by Newell W. Tune.

(Note: Xerox copies of the book are available from University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Mich.

13. ABSTRACT of a research project Phoneme-Grapheme Relationships Basic to Cues for Improvement of Spelling.

Objectives.

Traditionally each spelling word was taught as an independent learning act, depending primarily on visual and hand learning approaches to fix the spelling image in the pupil's central nervous system. We have ignored the fact that our written language assigns specific alphabetical letters to represent the specific speech sounds that comprise a word; we have not taught the pupil to "say and hear" the phonemes (smallest speech sound units) in a word and then taught him to write the correct graphemes (alphabetical letters) which represent these phonemes.

We have failed to build spelling power through oral-aural analysis because the assumption was widely held that the orthography of our American-English was so inconsistent that the pupil would find little or no help in this approach.

The Hanna-Moore study (1949–51) showed this assumption to be questionable inasmuch as 80% of the 12,546 phonemes in a 3000 word spelling list are consistently spelled, while only 20% of the phonemes present unusual difficulty. With this relatively high regularity demonstrated, spelling programs in schools are beginning to add the oral-aural analysis of speech to the traditional visual and motor approaches to spelling.

Horn and others have challenged these findings on several grounds, but primarily that a larger vocabulary shows a markedly different percentage of consistency. The objectives of this proposed research are to repeat, with refinements, the research design of the Hanna-Moore study by examining the sound-to-letter characteristics of an extended list of 10,000 (or more) words; to discover to what degree the same 80% consistency of phoneme-to-grapheme is true throughout the American-English language. Further, this study purposes to establish an index of difficulty for each word in the extended list; to test the reliability of certain orthographic principles; to study the relationship between the theoretical difficulty of spelling from sound-to-letter and the empirical evidence of pupil spelling performance as shown by Gates, Greene, and others; to study the possible relationships between spelling and stress, parts of speech, syllabication, etc.

Procedure.

Each word in a list of 10,000 (or more) most commonly used words will be analyzed and a record made of each component phoneme together with its spelling. An index of difficulty for the spelling of each phoneme, and subsequently for each word, will be established. Data from other linguistic research will be added.

These data for each word will be punched into IBM cards.

Such programming as suggested in COMIT will instruct the computer to provide

- 1) separate lists of words for each phoneme, further grouped under each optional spelling of that phoneme, and still further grouped according to the initial, medial, or final position in each syllable;
- 2) an index of difficulty for each word;
- 3) information on reliability of certain spelling rules and principles; and
- 4) other findings from consolidation of analysis from the larger Stanford linguistic research project.

Once this particular spelling research is completed, it will be possible to design a second and complementary research project which can use the same cards and tapes to study the reading problem — translating printed letters into speech.

This spelling research is an integral part of a larger Stanford University linguistic research project, undertaken by an interdisciplinary team, was started in Jan. 1963 and is expected to be completed in Dec. 1964.

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