Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970

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 progress"

Publisht quarterly
Spring, Summer, Fall, Winter.
Subscription $3. 00 a year.
Volume X, No. 2
Summer, 1970.

Editor and General Manager,
Newell W. Tune,
5848 Alcove Ave,
No. Hollywood, Calif. 91607

Assistant Editor,
Ivor Darreg,
3426 Winslow Dr,
Los Angeles, Calif . 90026

Table of Contents

1. Letters from Readers.

The Editor, *The Teacher,* London, W.C.1. May 5, 1970

Dear Sir:

Reading, Writing, and Spelling.

In page 18 of this week's *Teacher,* (May 1st), Marie Peel writes of Pitman's i.t.a., "There is overwhelming evidence of achievement, particularly in the early stages." This rapid progress is largely due to the fact that i.t.a. uses spelling which is much more regular than the spelling of what we, euphemistically, call traditional orthography. Regularity can be obtained by the use of an augmented alphabet, as in i.t.a., or by the use of background shapes and background colours as in Kenneth Jones' Colour Story Reading or in Caleb Gattegno's Words in Colour, or it can be obtained, as in the Simplified Spelling Society's New Spelling without the use of any new letters, signs or symbols.

The inference is always the same, namely, that if we spare children the regrettable and unnecessary inconsistency of T.O. (with more than 500 ways of spelling our 41 speech sounds) then they will learn quickly, thoroughly and happily and that they will continue to do so, at least until they are made to revert to T.O.

Teachers were advocating the Metric System a century ago. Many thoughtful teachers have been in favour of it ever since, though they have had to wait till the 1970's to see it implemented. 35 years ago, our Union was urging the government to appoint a commission to study the case for spelling

reform and to make recommendations. In this appeal, the N.U.T. was in association with 9 other teachers' organisations and with more than 900 senior members of university teaching staffs.

Experiments with regular teaching media, such as i.t.a. and colour factor methods, have shown that children learn quicker, better and more happily with a regular spelling than they do with Samuel Johnson's *very inconsistent T.O.*

Is it not time we again urged the government to consider all the unanswered and unanswerable evidence in favour of a regular spelling for permanent use?

William Reed, Hon. Sec. Simplified Spelling Society
Member: National Union of Teachers, Head Teachers Assoc.

-o0o-

Dear Mr. Tune:

For the past two weeks, I have been taking a summer workshop entitled "Simpler Spelling: Its promise for Improved Reading Instruction," under Dr. Helen Bonnema Temple Buell College, Denver Colo 80220.

In this workshop we discussed the various methods of spelling and reading reform such as i.t.a., Words in Color, World English Spelling, and many other systems.

I now believe that we definitely need a revised system of reading and spelling in our country. We should have one which does away with letters having more than one sound and which would allow the child to master the basic concepts of reading, spelling, and printing before he becomes confused by difficult spellings. So often children feel defeated at the very beginning of their reading and reach such a state that they make no further progress. We need a system by which the child would gain self-confidence and self-satisfaction at the beginning.

Karen R. Nygren, Meadow Elem. School, Denver, Colo.

-o0o-

Dear Mr. Tune:

Having been a music teacher in schools for several years has given me an opportunity to see students at the secondary level become temporarily frustrated when trying to pronounce new words. One might think a student having studied and spoken a language for years should have little difficulty in pronouncing words new to him in that language. But with our T.O. it's a problem for students and adults as well.

Some music composers make use of a form of phonetic spelling for the word to be sung to make clear the sound for a particular syllable or word. This is written below the traditional English text.

To most of my friends, Simpler Spelling is a subject of which they have little or no knowledge. However when a brief summary of some of the things being done by people in this area becomes known to them, they are eager to know more about it. They seem to recognize the need of a change based upon their own experiences with spelling and pronunciation. Some readily see the difficulty that such a change would present to some people, but the general feeling is that something should be done.

Mrs. Bobby Thorin, Lakewood, Colo.

[Spelling Reform Anthology §6.7 pp97–99 in the printed version]
[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970 pp2–4 in the printed version]

2. GBS and the ABC, by Barbara Smoker*

* London, England.
* Reprinted from *Modern Drama*, pp. 139-46, Sept. 1959.

George Bernard Shaw was essentially a craftsman. His own description of his job was "that of a master of language." One of many popular fallacies concerning him is that he was an original thinker. He was not. The original thinker gives his original thought – rarely more than one – to the rest of mankind, and bores them stiff with it. Shaw was teeming with ideas – other people's – and scattered them about with exuberant vitality.

What he did, as most clever people do, was to take ideas from this philosopher and that, from this economist and that, from this biologist and that, and select all the ideas that fitted in with his own general outlook, rejecting the rest. He himself never claimed that any of his ideas were original. Even when he was not sure where the ideas had come from in the first place, he was careful to admit his indebtedness to somebody. "What I say today," he wrote, "everybody will say tomorrow, though they will not remember who put into their heads. Indeed, they will be right; for I never remember who puts things into my head: it is the *Zeitgeist*."

Another time he described himself as "the mouthpiece of the Webbs" – the pioneers of British socialism, whose ideas he made his own and brought within the popular grasp. So, too, with ideas from Buffon, Lamarck, Butler, Schopenhauer, Bergson, Nietzsche, and Marx – but an exhaustive list, if possible to compile, would use up the rest of my space.

To deny that Shaw was an original thinker is not to belittle him or his contribution to civilisation. How many of us who drink from Shaw's bubbling decanter of ideas would ever go to the original sources for them? Or, if we did, would we find them digestible, let alone palatable?

Since Shaw's profession was that of a master craftsmen in the craft of putting ideas on paper, he was in all his other activities an amateur. Not amateurish, but a 'round' man, participating in many different fields for the love of the game, and, without attempting to specialise, acquiring a good general grasp of most of them. What this century is most in need of, perhaps, is the non-specialist with a wide range of interests and a keen mind capable of seizing on the many points in the great mass of knowledge accumulating around every subject. Shaw was such a man.

A writer has to write about something; and Shaw wrote about almost everything. After some years spent in writing essays, novels, short stories, a book about Ibsen, political pamphlets, book reviews, and critiques of painting and music, he began writing plays; and it is his plays, of course, that assured him of immortality, in spite of – or, perhaps, partly because of – the fact that they deal with the problems and controversies of the day when they were written. Shaw left sixty plays, of which the earliest were written before some of Pinero's and Oscar Wilde's and the latest after some of Peter Ustinov's and Arthur Miller's. He took the lid off slum landlordism, prostitution, the medical profession, and the Irish question; he denounced hypocritical respectability and romantic idealism; he preached socialism and sex equality; he expounded the philosophy of creative evolution; and he urged social reforms ranging from easier divorce to the foundation of a National Theatre. Few dramatists would have considered these themes promising material for their art, but Shaw wove them into some of the best plays ever written. So one amateur interest after another provided him with material for his plays, and one Shavian hobby-horse after another was ridden round the stages of the world's theatres.

One of Shaw's amateur interests was phonetics, and one of his hobby-horses was the introduction of a modern phonetic alphabet for English. But even Shaw found this subject a difficult one to dramatise. He set out to write *Pygmalion* as an advertisement for the science of phonetics, but it turned out as a Cinderella story about the transformation of the Cockney flower-girl into a duchess and thence into an independent woman, the phonetic theme being very subsidiary indeed to the human situation of the story, so that most of the actual propaganda had to be relegated to the play's preface.

Many people, therefore, knowing Shaw only through the theatre, had no idea how strongly he felt about the inadequacy of the ABC's until after his death, when the newspapers published the fact that he had left the bulk of his money for a new English alphabet. The general reaction then was either the whole thing was simply a posthumous joke of Shaw's, or else a bee that had got into his bonnet in his declining years. Nothing could be further from the truth. If we look at his writings as a whole, and particularly his letters to the press, which are perhaps the best hunting ground for Shaw's views on all subjects, we find a surprising number of letters, articles, and prefaces, devoted to the subject of spelling and alphabet reform, and spanning most of his long life.

In fact, Shaw's amateur interest in phonetics, spelling reform, shorthand systems, typography, and allied subjects, was first aroused as early as 1879, when he was only 23, by his friend James Lecky. It was through this friend that he got to know the eminent phonetician Henry Sweet – the original of Professor Henry Higgins in *Pygmalion*, in whom Sweet's irascibility is as faithfully portrayed as his skill in applied phonetics.

Shaw, as a young man, also met the philologist Alexander Ellis, whom he later described as "a London patriarch, with impressive head always covered by a velvet skullcap, for which he would apologise to public meetings in a very courtly manner." Ellis had been steeped in alphabet and spelling reform since 1843, when he collaborated with Isaac Pitman (inventor of Pitman's Shorthand) in designing Phonotypy – an enlarged Latin Alphabet which Pitman considered more important than his shorthand. Thus, Ellis and Shaw spanned between them more than a century of attempts to reform English orthography. And before Ellis there was a long unbroken line of enthusiasts for spelling and alphabet reform, going right back to the 16th century and including such great names in other spheres as Sir John Cheke, John Milton, James Howell, Benjamin Franklin, Herbert Spencer, Mark Twain, Andrew Carnegie, Robert Bridges, and Nicholas Murray Butler, to name only a few. So much for the popular fallacy that the idea of alphabet reform, if no other, originated with Shaw! The idea is one with firm roots, and not, as some newspapers have sneered, just "a tom-fool idea that only Shaw would put forward."

In fact, Shaw's contribution to the cause of alphabet reform was not invention but propaganda, plus the indirect publicity gained from association with his name, owing to his literary prestige and noteriety, plus his much publicised monetary bequest.

Among other popular fallacies about Shaw and the alphabet is the assumption that the Shaw percentage from the fabulous profits made by *My Fair Lady* (the musical based, appropriately enough, on Shaw's only play with a phonetic theme) are all available to finance an alphabetic revolution. Sadly, it is not so. First, Estate Duty took £524,000, and the Shaw estate did not get out of debt to the Estate Duty Offices till about the beginning of 1957. In fact it would probably still have been in debt had it not been for *My Fair Lady* coming to the rescue. Since the last of the Estate Duty was paid off, all royalties accruing to the estate until November, 1971 should certainly have gone to swell the alphabet trusts, if Shaw's wishes were carried out – except, of course, the Shaw would never have allowed *My Fair Lady* to be born in the first place; but that is another story. What many people have forgotten, however is the Chancery Court case of 1957 that set aside the Shaw alphabet trusts.

Under English Law, no one may make a bequest for an abstract cause – that is, without a personal or organisational beneficiary – unless the object of the bequest is charitable. The reason for this is that a legal bequest must be legally enforceable, and must therefore have a beneficiary to take the executors of the estate to court if necessary. In the case of a charity, this function is fulfilled by the Attorney-General, who officially represents all British charities. But the legal definition of a charity depends, believe it or not, on the categories laid down in the Preamble to the Statute of Queen Elizabeth the First!

Two of the categories were possibilities for Shaw's alphabet trusts – education and Public Benefit. After six days of argument by learned gentleman in white wigs, it was decided by Mr. Justice Harman that the alphabet trusts could not come under either of these two categories of charity, and did not, therefore, constitute a charity, in the legal sense, at all. So they were invalid.

Every effort was made by Shavians to persuade the Attorney-General to appeal against this decision, but he refused to do so. There was no one else in a position to appeal on the charity issue, but on the very last day of the period allowed for appeal, the Public Trustee, as Shaw's executor, lodged an appeal on the issue that altho he could not be forced in law to administer the alphabet trusts, he should be allowed to do so.

Before this appeal was heard, a compromise settlement was reached out of court between the Public Trustee on the one hand and the three ultimate residuary legatees – the British Museum, The Royal Academy of Dramatic Art, and the National Gallery of Ireland – on the other, by which some of £8,300 was allocated from the estate to the alphabet project outlined in Shaw's will. This is a paltry sum in comparison with the total amount that can be expected to accrue to the estate before all the Shaw copyrights have expired. But even £8,300 is better than nothing.

Immediately after this settlement was reached, the Public Trustee announced a £500 prize competition for a suitable alphabet of at least 40 letters, enabling the English language to be written without indicating single sounds by more than one letter. Competitors were given a full year in which to design and polish their alphabets, the closing date of the competition being Jan. 1, 1959. More than 1000 applications for details were received, but as was to be expected, less than half of the applicants actually submitted entries. The total number of entries received was in the region of 450, and about 250 of them survived the first sifting, the rest being either based partly on the present alphabet, which was not allowed, all else containing too few or far too many symbols. It took several months to complete the examinations of all the entries.

It is not surprising that instead of nominating an outright winner, the judges did adopt an eclectic approach, choosing the best four entries of similar design, and inviting their designers to form a committee to produce a composite system embodying the best features of each. Provided the alphabets chosen were definitely similar to begin with, this method would probably produce a better alphabet than any of those actually submitted, and would thus better be able to fullfil Shaw's wishes, would have a better chance of becoming the alphabet of the future, and would better serve the people who may use it. In actuality, the four differed so much that Kingsley Read was finally instructed to make a few improvements to his alphabet and hence is responsible for the final design.

One popular fallacy is that Shaw designed an alphabet of his own and left money for its propagation. It is an indication of his modesty (a trait with which he is rarely credited) that he preferred to leave the phonetic analysis and selection of symbols to experts, though he had prepared a phonetic analysis for his printed postcard on the alphabet question – one of his famous printed postcards which enabled him to cope with his huge daily correspondence.
Another popular fallacy is that the court case concerning the alphabet trusts was part of Shaw's

deliberate intention. It is true that he knew there was likely to be a court case, and he knew that this would provide valuable publicity for the cause of alphabet reform, well worth the few thousand pounds of lawyers' costs involved. But there can be no doubt that Shaw also wanted the trusts to be upheld, and fully aware of the legal position as to abstract bequests, he did his utmost, before making his final will, to find a suitable beneficiary who would accept the task of launching a phonetic alphabet for English. Seven years before his death, he wrote a letter to all the Government departments, learned societies, colleges, committees, councils, guilds, trusts, and institutes, whose functions seemed even remotely relevant, offering them his money to propagate a new alphabet. But none of them would accept the job because of the conditions Shaw imposed, so there was nothing he could do but create a private trust *ad hoc*, and hope it would be accepted as a charity.

The most fallacious of all the popular fallacies about Shaw and the alphabet are, however, those concerning his ultimate aim. Some people think he wanted a mere spelling reform with the traditional letters. Others think he wanted an overnight switch from the old system to a new one, which would mean everyone's having to start learning to read and write all over again. What he actually wanted was a one-sound-one-letter alphabet comprised of simple shorthand-like signs, to be launched in *competition* with the existing alphabet, for use as an *alternative* system of writing, for use until one or the other proved to be the fitter to survive. In that way, the acquired visual memory of the existing adult generation would not be sacrificed, for only young children would have to learn both systems – and for them the easier phonetic system would actually be a helpful stepping-stone to the more difficult traditional one.

Shaw held that, far from having less chance of acceptance than mere simplified spelling, an entirely new alphabet was the only hope of orthographic reform. Tampering with the traditional spelling, apart from the confusion caused, would be up against the emotional hostility with which we all defend our habitual mental processes. An entirely new alphabet, on the other hand, could exist side-by-side with the old one, and gradually take over from it more and more, until after a century or two, when everyone living has grown up with both notations, the ABC becomes merely an academic subject – probably considered obsolete. That is how our numerical system was changed. Over a period of several centuries, the Arabic numerals (with a symbol for zero, making place value possible) gradually superseded the clumsy, inadequate Roman ones. (Just try doing a 'long division' with Roman numerals!) It took about 900 years for the English to go over to the Arabic numerals, for they had learnt the Roman numerals in childhood and would have found it too troublesome to change! But when the change was finally made, in the 15th century, it opened the door to mathematics and the machine age.

Tools and machines have been vastly improved in the last few generations, yet we have been using basically the same alphabet for 3,500 years! It was, admittedly, a wonderful advance on the logographic systems of writing that preceded it, but the science of phonetics has progressed since then. Moreover, the alphabet was originally designed for a particular Semitic language, long since dead, and has suffered in the process of adaptation from one language to another.

The Latin version of the alphabet was never really suitable for Latin, and is far less so for English. Whereas most modern European languages using a form of the Latin alphabet have about 30 distinct sounds (or, more technically, phonemes) to be represented by 21 to 27 letters, English has about 40 phonemes, and therefore has to pull and stretch its 26-letter alphabet (of which three letters – C, Q, and X – are completely wasted because their sounds are redundant) in all directions. Some of the letters are required to do duty for three or more sounds, and we also fall back on digraphs – i.e., pairs of letters for single sounds – such as *aw, oo, sh, th*, and *ng*. On top of all this, we spell our language with such careless abandon that it might be supposed that we had too many letters instead of too few!

Irrational spelling not only makes it harder for children to learn to read and spell, but it perverts the natural tendency of children to perceive phonetic relationships in letters – a fact deplored by educational psychologists. It also leads to distortion of the spoken language, and is a brake on English becoming a universal second language for international communication.

Although most of the inconsistencies of the English spelling could be eliminated by mere spelling reform, it would require a reform of the alphabet itself to eliminate the digraphs. One only has to consider the two words *mishap* and *bishop* to realise that no more than partial reform could be effected. A thorough reform of spelling is not possible with a deficient alphabet.

Shaw hated the inefficiency of using silent letters and digraphs. "As to spelling the very frequent word *though* with six letters instead of two," he declares in an article written in 1944, "it is impossible to discuss it, as it is outside the range of common sanity."

Apart from the quantitative inadequacy of the ABC, there is plenty wrong with the letters themselves. They were not scientifically designed, but simply evolved from prehistoric pictographs, with modifications dictated by the writing tools used. And this haphazard evolution is all too aparent. There is no relation between the shapes of letters representing similar sounds: the *k* and hard *g* sounds, for instance, are similar, but the characters we use for them are very different. On the other hand, the capital forms of the vowel E and consonant F, though having nothing in common phonetically, are similar to look at.

The shapes of some of the letters are unnecessarily complex. This is bad enough in reading (it has been proved that reading is slowed down by the complexity of letters), but in writing by hand the number of strokes used for each letter is a major factor in the consumption of writing time. Even more time-wasting is the need to go back on words to dot *i*'s and cross *t*'s.

We have two series of letters – capital and small – to represent one and the same series of sounds, and the corresponding forms are mostly quite different. In fact, only 8 out of the 26 letters have the same shape in each series. Capital D is more like a small *b* unlike small *d*, which has the curve on the opposite side – an incongruity that gives trouble too many a child. Then the manuscript letters, both capital and small, are sometimes different again from their printed counterparts, and the printed letters may even differ in their Roman and italic forms. (Compare the shapes A, a, α.)

The order of the letters in the alphabet is arbitrary: one might at least expect the vowel letters to be grouped together at the beginning or the end. As for the names of the letters, some of them bear no resemblance to the sounds they represent. An adult introduced to the English ABC for the first time might suppose H to represent the *ch*-sound, U the *y*-sound, and Y the *w*-sound, while the name of W offers no clue to its sound at all. Benjamin Franklin wrote of the chambermaid who thought that *wife* was spelt YF!

Much more could be written about the drawbacks of the ABC, but perhaps the above will suffice to show that when Shaw, as a master craftsman with the written word and an amateur disciple of Henry Sweet in phonetics, left the bulk of his fortune for the propagation of a new alphabet, he was neither suffering from senility nor perpetuating a posthumous joke. History is certainly on the side of a new alphabet, whether the winner of the Shaw competition or some other system. And when Shaw's dream comes true – a dream shared by men of vision for nearly five centuries – who knows what miracles of human progress it may bring in its wake? The man who first dreamt up the zero of our numerical system did not foresee the standard of living we enjoy today, but his dream, his wise idea, made it possible. When letters are as honest and straightforward as numbers, wisdom may even catch up with science.

[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970 pp4,5 in the printed version]

3. The Riddle of the Alphabet, by Aldo Lavagnini*

*Universitas Biosofica, Mexico, D.F.

The most puzzling thing about our alphabet – apart from the form of the letters themselves, which bear no true relation to the sounds they are meant to represent – is its order, which has no apparent justification. Vowels and consonants – even while vowels were originally wholly absent – labials and palatals, dentals and sonants, are there thoroly mixed, in spite of which that *order* has been kept faithfully and substantially preserved, during no less than 4000 years.

There is nothing in it, for instance, of the nice grouping of the Devanagari letters: vowels first in their order, then gutterals, palatals, post-alveolars, dentals, labials, and spirants. That is because the Roman alphabet just grew. It was not designed scientifically as was Devanagari.

Its order has been instilled in us from our first school days, and innumerable generations have learned it in the same manner, together with the names of the letters. We find it thoroly applied in our dictionaries, catalogs, libraries, indexing systems and even in streets, and chapters in books. We have found it convenient to spell by its proper names. Altho we do not use it currently for numerals, as the Greek, Hebrew and Phoenicians were accustomed to do, that order is for us no less useful, such as the one of the seven days of the week-another legatee of the older Semitic civilization.

There have been very few interpolations, if any, some dropping or change – as for instance the purely Latin G – and some additions at the end, so that the Greek alphabet ends in Omega and ours with Z, but the ancient order has been largely preserved, with few exceptions, in its several offshoots.

The reason for that order has not been explained until now: it has been sought vainly in the original names of the letters themselves – as they are best preserved in Greek and Hebrew – but no satisfactory motive has been found for such a peculiar and rigid grouping of apparently – heterogeneous objects, such as a bull, a house, a camel, a door or tent, and so on.

It is true, however, that the reason is concealed in the names of the letters, which may reveal it when properly analyzed from a synthetical viewpoint: the best clue is given us by the name of the first letter *Aleph or Alpha,* originally *alepu,* the Bull. When we know that up to 3000 years ago the constellation of Taurus was the one of the Vernal Equinox, and that therefore the Zodiac began with it, the natural explanation for that order so faithfully kept, is that it followed just the same order of the zodiacal constellations.

In the form of our letter A, we may even now recognize the head of a bull, or the astronomic sign for Taurus, if we only turn it upside down. It is not an isolated instance: just past the middle, we find a group of three letters, one after another: M, N, and O, which by both their name and shape are unmistakably related to the last three constellations, as we know them: Aquarius, Pices and Aries.

M or *e'mmaim* stands for "the waters," N similarly for *nun* or *e'nnaina* "the two fishes," and O or *ain* for the "eye" constellation, i.e. Aires, as it was afterwards named.

In an article written in *Mondi Lingue,* an attempt was made to similarly explain all the intermediate and following letters, as related to the heavenly constellations, both the zodiacal and the other boreal and the near ones, such as the Whale and Orion.

The number of the chief constellations is by no means exhausted by the list; it is less than half. Which can only mean that the original enumeration from which the alphabet was derived must have been used only partially. Since it should have been widely known, it must be found in some of the older Babylonian or Sumerian records: very probably the order will be confirmed. The fact that it may be now couched in the cuneiform writ is no obstacle for its derivation, since we know that cuneiform writing on clay was paralleled by reed-pen writing on a more perishable and pliable material, such as skin, or papyrus.

The name of the constellations, and the exact number of those which are cut by the eliptical line, may have changed from how they have been accounted for and defined during the first thousand years previous to our era, which are practically identical with our own. Or, being no more so understood, their Semitic names can have been altered and given another meaning, which – apart from some astrological reason – may explain why Gemini was identified with a *house,* and a *camel* or *square* (the measure of the right angle) with Cancer, or a *tent* or *door* was seen in the Lion constellation, and a simple invocation, or the feminine pronoun, was taken to represent the Mother Godess or Virgo.

The important thing, to justify such an attribution or correlation, is the fact that we have no more a haphazard list of more or less unrelated materials, but an *organic whole,* which can only explain the faithfully preserved order, and at the same time the *monogenesis* of the alphabet.

Nothing could be better than the images outlined in the sky by the most familiar constellations, to be recorded for ever in our writing! If the reader may have some doubt we would counsel him to take a celestial atlas of the stars and see by himself if our letters – as they have come to us through Greek, Etruscan and Latin – cannot be recognized in those star frames. Or, on a clear night, to try to identify in a similar way, those which may be visible.

While the zodiac with which we are now familiar begins with Aires – the old constellation of the Eye – and ends with Pisces, that old zodiac, as it was recognized from about 4000 B.C. to 1000 B.C., has been preserved to us in those letters we are daily using. Astronomically our zodiac begins no more either with Aires (a very short asterism, in comparison with both Taurus and Pisces) but with Pisces. However, we have kept the denomination of Aires for the first of the twelve equal divisions of the yearly Rhythm of Life, which begins with the Vernal Equinox. Q. E. D.

-o0o-

[Spelling Reform Anthology §6.4 pp92,93 in the printed version]
Repeated: [Spelling Reform Anthology §20.1 pp265,266 in the printed version]

Section 20

Why there has been failure to adopt a reform.

Exploring the possible reasons for failure to obtain more success in the serious consideration and adoption of some form of a simplified spelling of English.

[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970 p5,18 in the printed version]

4. The Real Problem of Spelling Reform, by Newell W. Tune

Probably every teacher knows that numerous attempts have been made to reform English spelling and make it more consistent and regular. Hence, it is not surprising that the latest attempt* should be viewed with scepticism and apathy by many. But just because all previous attempts failed is no reason why the latest attempt should also fail. "It is always darkest just before the dawn of a new day."

*Congressman Bob Mathias of Bakersfield introduced a Bill, at the request of Homer W. Wood, Publisher of the Porterville Evening Recorder, to establish a National Spelling Commission, with the power to select a system of simplified spelling and to publish a dictionary in the new spelling.

Most previous attempts at spelling reform (and bills in Congress to do this) failed because some particular system of reformed spelling was proposed to be adopted. After looking at the kind of reformed spelling that was proposed, Congressmen were usually reluctant to accept such radical proposals. Such skeltons should be kept in the closet where they will scare no-one. The present attempt wisely avoids this pitfall.

Most of these attempts were made nearly a century ago when the attitude of the public seemed to be "What was good enuf for my grandfather, is good enuf for me. However, that is certainly not the attitude of the public today. All around us we see the public has changed their point of view. They are ready and willing to accept any change that will be beneficial. Notice the complete change in our supermarkets since before the war. Self-service stores quickly supplanted the old type of inefficient stores. Frozen foods, prepackaged meats, cellophane wrappings and preformed plastic packages were readily accepted because of their obvious advantages. Television and drive-in theaters have changed out living habits. The new homes are vastly changed, both inside and out, from prewar homes.

So let us go back to the question as to whether the public would accept a reformed spelling. In a questionnaire sent out to 800 educators, those answering (140) were in favor of some kind of reformed spelling by a ratio of 95% to 5% who were opposed to any reformation. Strangely enuf, all of those who opposed spelling reform were either teaching in the conservative New England

states or were educated there. All of these opponents expressed some fears – fears of the amount or extent of the reform, of the difficulty to put the changes into use, of the amount of re-education needed to use the new spelling, and of the disruption of a secretary's spelling habits. None of them considered that simplified spelling was necessary because they themselves had little or no trouble in learning to spell (eventually). Nor did any of them think that it took them too long to learn our erratic spelling. (Time is of no importance in a child's life.)

It is also true that many educators did not return the questionnaires possibly because of apathy to the subject or because they felt it was an impossible task to convince congressmen of the need for and advantages of a simplified spelling. Before congressmen can be convinced of this need, the educators themselves must be convinced:

1. that a simplified spelling in general use would greatly simplify their task of teaching reading and spelling;
2. that it would greatly shorten the time needed to teach reading;
3. that it would greatly improve the quality of reading of our pupils;
4. that there *is* a need to improve this quality of reading and spelling of our pupils;
5. that there is some correlation between pupils misbehavior and difficulty in learning to read and spell; which frequently leads to frustration, dropouts from school, and delinquency;
6. That our present spelling is not sacred thing that is unchangeable.

The big question then, is how to get the public and the teachers to understand all these things. And then, to do something about it.

-o0o-

[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970 pp6–8 in the printed version]

5. ORIGIN ASTRONOMIC DEL ALFABETO

by Aldo Lavagnini (written in **Mondi Lingue)**

El origin historic de nor alfabeto e meme la epoke de sue formazo ad uzu esan factu ancor ample man díscussate: sole man on concorda in admissar sue monogeneze, id esa ke omni alfabetes conoshate derivan da un unic prototypo.

Tale origin esa certe man anteriore al prime millenio ante nor ere: por el tempo non dispensable pro sue formazo e progressive afirmaso so esaría dificil admissar ke il havaya men ce quatru mil yanes. Nam, duranti plure sécules il dovata esar contemporane a li corrante formas de scriture syllabic ed ideografic ques lo precedatan. Por la forçe de anerçi que domina in el mondo hominale, quam in illo fysic, on ne vida ed on ne aprecia mai non mediate man li avantajes de un util innovazo od invento; ma sempre so bezonian plure generazes pro ke il deveniays aceptate e corrante. Por tale razone sue prime formazo esa forse anteriore al yan 2000 a. C.

Iste concludazo sembla anke justificate da el facto ke inter li mais antique formas conoshate so esa dificil disar quale esaya primitive: eles samblan plu tos deviluppes parallele de un archetypo ancor non conoshate, meme havand suficiante similarited pro asecurar lor comune origin.

El alfabeto fenice que nos conosha ne hava in omni sui elementes en caracter arcalcus ce illo etruske: in alque lítteres quam A, B, N, el alfabeto fenice sembla prezenter une simplificaso od alteraso de la forme primitive conservate plu fidele man in li alfabetu etruske e greke. Malgradu la similited externe, li names de li lítteres greke e romane pruvan lor origin diferante.

Or, si two studies atento man It alfabeto in sui diferants formas sernitic ed ouropane durant 1 {rltiime 3500 y apes, not pova observar isti factes constants:

1) il hava en ordin uniforme con pauce variazas;
2) il comensa constante man con el litter A qui namo originale *alepu, alpa, alpha* esa illo del bovo u Tauro, la constellazo marcante le equinoçio primaverale durant li tres mil yanes anteriore al millenio precedante nor ere;
3) por lor forme e namo altri tre lítteres intermedi, M, N ed O esan clare man referable a li últime tre constellazas zodiacale, Aquario, Pesciu, Arieto.

Isti tre factes povan sole man esar explicate admissand ke li lítteres dwa A ad O (od *ain*) esayan derivate da li signes ques durant la epoke indicate marcavan speciale man li constellazas zodiacale. Nor alfabeto, donque, conserva neis le recordo del mais antique zodiaco conoshate, comensante con Tauro a terminante con el Ocul od Arieto.

To concords con la breve indicazo de Plinio seniore ke li Babilonianes esavan conoshate por el uzo de li *litteres* pro calculazas astronomic da tempo remotíssime (Histories Naturalis, VII-41).

So esa, enim, un facto non negable ke li lítteres alfabetic constituyan une serie clare man definiate, une sequançe non variable, fidele man transmissate durant plure millenies, e por tale razone eles esavan anke utilzate con valor numerale. To indica ke tali signes anke constituyavan originali une seguazo o serie constante in li objectes a ques eles esaven primum referate: *une serie non variable por sue propre nature*, quam illo de li constellazas zodiacale.

On ben sava ke la, constellazo de Tauro reprezenta le grande capu longicorne de tale animale. Or, meme in sue forme grek-latine, el litter A invertate recorda clareman en capu taurine, originali prezentate in forme horizontale.

La atribuyazo del litter B al seguante signo de li Géminu pova ne semblar eguale man evidante. In facto, sue namo *beithu, beta* significa *dome*. Ma, si on memora la antique custume orientale de mettar ante une dome du columnu, con valor conjurative plu ce ornamentale, usque identificar li columnu con la dome, on trova une clare analogi dwa isto e il columnu homanizete quam geniu tutelari. So ne esa dificil de vidar in la forme de iste litter la constellazo que il reprezenta.

Note. – In iste tabelle esan reuniate li alfabetes fenice, aramaic, sabeane, etruske, greke, latine e hebraic con li signes zodiacale. Libra esa in corespondance con *zain* a Scorpio con *tet*. Tamen, pos maturus studi nus opina ke la conrespondançe de Libra con *veu* e Scorpio con *zam* esa plu juste.

Ultre to, iste vorde *dome* hava da antique tempo en familiari significato astrologic.

Gamalu u *gamma*, el namo del terceme litter C, con valor primitive de G, no significava originali "camello", ma *angul, norme, equadre*, el strumento speciale man uzate pro rectificar li stonas. On pova vidar in iste signo li tre stellar centrale de Cancer (li Asellu e Prezepo), e so esa une strane coincidançe ke el namo latine Cancer comensa juste man con iste litter.

Daletu u *delta* ne significa *leon*, ma "duor, tende, pagin". Tamen, so ne esa dificil vidar le profilo de un leon in el triangul quo lo reprezenta, originali prolongate u caudate, quam il esa ancor in la lítteri forme cursive.

El namo semitic de E *he, hea, hia*, pova reprezentar une simple invocazo (o), od anke indicer le pronomin personale feminine *sa*. La forme plu tos complexe de iste litter hava evidante similaritad con la constellazo de Virgo: soleman la pozitazo esata verticalizate. El moderne signo astronomic pro Virgo esa anke simil ma invertate.

La forme fenice de *vau* esa plu tos afine ed illo greke de Y, dum illo etruske esa el evidante prototypo de nor F e greke *digamma*. La constellazo de Libra esa plu probable man relatate con late signo ce con illu seguante, anke por sue extreme simplicitad. El namo semitic del litter, que significa "clavo, uncino" sembla esar derivate da la litteri forme: el namo latine evidante man provenia da *e'vvau* con el articul semitic *e*.

El seguante litter semitic *zein* u *zeitu* esa relatate con el significato de "arme, flece, spade". Sue asmilaritad con la constellazo de Scorpio ne esa totum clare, ma esa certum logic man mais probable. Quanke moderne, sue forme hebraic hava une grandus analogi. In latino el litter G, modificazo de C, prendata sue posto.

Tale man, li prime seve litteres de omni antique alfabetes correspondan a li prime seve constellazas zodiacale, da Tauro a Scorpio.

Li seguante litteru *heit* od *eta* e *teit* u *theta* povan esar alternative formu pro Libra e Scorpio, o plu probable man reprezentar constellazu extrazodiacale, intrudata inter illes propre man eclipticale. *Teit* hava grandus analogi con la constellazo compozate de Serpentario (comprendante le serpento con Ofiuco), dum *heit* dova – esa relatate sive con Booto u con Hercul. El latine namo de Hesa evidante man derivate da *a'hhait*.

Un arco con la flece, u simple man la flece, esa clare man vidable in el litter *iod-yota*. Ma on pova eguale man vidar in illo le man que indica sue semitic namo. Omne man, il esa un asterismo clare man distinte da illo que segue.

La correspondançe del litter K con Sagittario, o con la parte magnus de iste constellazo, meme si il ne reprezentava primitivi en centauro armate, esa postulate ba el ordin u sequençe. So ne esa dificil de vidar in tale constellazo la forme del litter, meme si sue namo semitic *kapho-kappa* esa generale man asociate con un ramo foliate u palme.

El namo del litter L, *lamed* u *lambda*, to asocia con un *pungul* u s*timul*, ed eguale man, con el verbo *lamad* "dociar, studiar, aprendar, tranar, instruyar". Evidante man, on no vidava ancor in ille constellazo le capro amfibie que reprezenta, le classic e moderne Capricorno.

La relatazo de M con la constellazo de Aquario esa eguale man evidante in el namo e la forme de iste litter, reprezentante primitive man la aque cadante da un vazo od amfore. Sue namo latine esa mais fidele man relatate con *e'mmaim* "li aquas". Quam in plure altri lítteres, e particulari man in illo precedante ed in illo seguante, el namo latine conserva le articul semitic.

Ne vi pova esar acune dublo po la relatazo del litter N – *nuna* u *naina* – con la constellazo de li Pesciu que sue namo duale indica e sue forme ancor hoi reprezenta clare man: du pesciu uniate ba une line u ligamin, se dirigiante in oppozate sensu. Da iste vorde derive sue namo Ninive.

El seguante litter *samek* esa une altre intrudazo de une constellazo extrazodiacale. Sue namo indica an animal marine, que inclinaria a lo relater con Cetus, el marine monstro minaciante Andromede e vinciate be Perseo, plu tos ke con la eguale man próxime constellazo de Pegazo, que semblaría indicate ba el litter hebraic

La pekene constellazo del Arieto od Agnello ne havava dan la importançe que il aquistate poi, con la passazo del punto equinoçiale dwa Tauro e li Pesciu: il veniava últime in el zodiaco, con el namo de *ocul*, que esa el significado de sue namo semitic e qui forme triangulare clare man delinea. Tale significado esa altre man evidante in el litter O, primitive man reprezentate ba un pekene circul. Tamen, on dova notar ke el suon semitic de iste, litter esa simil a la voce de in agno!

Si li prime 16 litteres del primitive alfabeto semitic esan relatate con li constellazas zodiacale u próxime a la ecliptike, so esa evidante ke anke li seguante 6 dovan derivar da li signes u names de li principales constellazas extra-zodiacale.

Por lor forme on pova tentative man atribuyar li tre litteres P, Q, R a li caracteristic constellazas boreale Urse Minore, Urse Majore, Casiopé, li sibilantu *tsadi e shin* (S) al Dracon ed Orion, *a tau* T al combinazo Perseo-Andromede.

Pha u *pi* significa "bucke", ma anke "entrade, aperture": so ne esa dificil de lo relatar con la constellazo mais próxime al polo. *Qopa u qupha* esa une vorde simil al latine *capu* e greke *kephalos*, sanscrite *kapala*, ed ancor latine *capulum*, facil man relatable con la Urse u Carro Majore. El litter greke e fenice R hava eguale man une forme multu simil a la constellazo de Cassiopè; sue namo latine provenia directe man da *e'rreis.*

El namo *tsadi* significa alquo "curve u tornante", que esa precizeman el aspecto de ille constellazo circundante le polo artic.

So ne esa dificil de vidar in la forme fenice e hebraic de *shin* la parte superiore de la constellazo de Orion. El namo ipse significa "dento, denta-ture, montis catene".

Tau esa simple man "cruse, signo, crusazo": on povaria egualeman lo fasar correspondar con el Cygno u Cruse Boreale.

Evidante man, la serie ne comprenda omni constellazas zodiacale a boreale, ma aproximative man une mezitad. To significa ke la serie completa, que originali dovava comprender 30 u 50 signes, esata abreviate pro sue uzo alfabetic, ces li pópules semitic.

Non dependante man da lor valor ideografic u fonetic, el numer de li lítteres ne sembla esar sanse importançe, ma il mostra havar anke on valor symbolic. Nam, el originale alfabeto semitic, tendante a 22 lítteres (3 x 7 + 1) esà extendate in illo arabic de 28 lítteres (4 x 7), quanke el numer de li signses esa reale man redusate.

In Oriento on hava une tradiçion tendante a 36 lítteres (3 x 3 x 4) quam on lo vida in el alfabeto cuneiforme antique persiane e meme in illo russe. Alque signo pova esar addate posteriori, quam in illo armene.

28 esa el numer de li lunari asterismes a 36 illo de li decanes zodiacale.

In India el alfabeto tendata a 50 lítteres (7 x 7 + 1): qunke el alfabeto devanagri esa comparative man recente, ed evidante man derivate da un alfabeto havante en minore numer di lítteres, el numer ipse esa significative, nam il corresponda ad illo de li constellazas zodiacale e boreale.

So sembla probable ke iste same numer esalva illo de la serie complete que esà poi abreviate in el alfabeto semitic e sui derivates. Tamen, on ne hava acune documento lo pruvante.

To que esa secure esa ke el alfabeto consonantic semitic derivata da une serie peculiari de signes ideografic ques semblan esar uzate primum con valor astronomic: li signes caldaic u sumeric de li constellazas zodiacale e boreale.

Quanke el numer 22 semblaría sugerar 14 u 15 signes zodiacale e li seve planetas – od anke 12 signes, seve planetas. li nodu lunari ad ua signo extra – la correspondazo de li últime *seis* lítteres con li planetas ne esa ta clare quam illo de li prime lítteres con li constellazas.

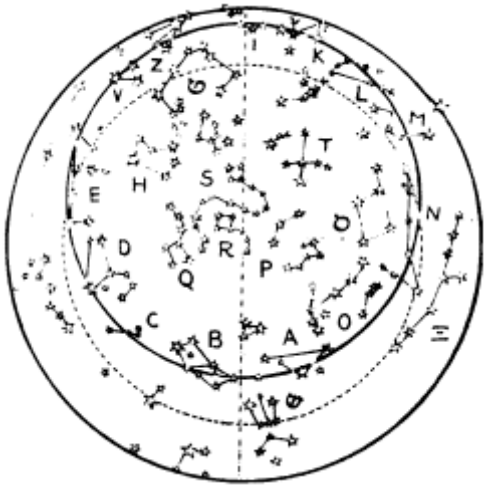
La scriture babiloniane-assyre esa corrante man identificate con sue varietad cuneiforme, que esà simple man sue adaptazo ad un speciale scrivi material. Tamen, eos ne scrivavan solum in argille ma anke sur pelle, e sur iste diferante material anke la scriture ideografic-syllabic dovava esar originari diferante. Da une varietad de tale scriture hieratic, uzate speciale man pro studies astronomic-astrologic, nor alfabeto esà finali derivate.

Li duze signes ideografic ques not uza na pro li diviziones zodiacale esan comparative man recente: eles esan moderne hieroglyfes directe man derivate, in li passate séculas, da li figuras reprezentante li duze constellazas. Tamen, el signo de Tauro esa ancor simul al litter A, el signo de Cancer sembla formate ba du C, el signo de Leo esa un *d* prolongate, el signo de Virgo esa simil al litter E apuyate transversale man, el signo de Aquario esa simil a duple M, e simil man.

Por ke non omni semitic names de li lítteres esan clare man relatable con li constellazas (quam A, M, N, O), so significa ke eles esan in lor majoritad *nove names* davate ad antique signes, quandu eles ne esaru plu asociate con li constellazas ques originali reprezentavan Tamen isti quatru names de Tauro, Aquario, Pesciu ed Arieto esan suficiante pro indicar, simul con el ordin de li lítteres, lor origin astronomic.

Li kuatru names *alepu, emmaim, ennaina, ainu* semblan simple tradusazas semitic de illes originale. Li altres esan nove names od abreviazas, quam pro exemplo *beitu* que sugera une vorde atributive seguante, anke por el simple facto ke il ne hava articul: le namo de une divinitad u planeta regiante le signo, id esa *dome de Nabu*, in iste cazu.

Resumand, da la anteriore analyse nus dedusa ke:
1) La forme e li names de li lítteres semitic, quam nos les conosha, demostra en longe uzo e conseguante simplificazo ed altersan.
2) Lor prototypo ne esa conoshate, ma il esa evidante man une serie ordinate, coherante a homogene de objectes, quam li constellazas zodiacale ed extrazodiacale.
3) La serie propre man zodiacale esa comprizate dwa A od *alepu* ed O od *ainu*: il comensa con Tauro e termina con Arieto.
4) Exceptuand H e K (u H ed I), li prime duze lítteres del alfabeto latine havan une perfecte conrespondançe con li duze signes zodiacale.
5) I e K semblan se referar al same signo de Sagittario, dum H indica une constellazo proxime, quam Booto u Hercul.
6) Li seguante lítteres dovan esar referate a li constellazas circumpolari.
7) La serie originari da que el alfabeto esà derivate remonta probable man al quatreme millenio anteriore a nor ere, comprizand 30 u 50 distinte signes astronomic.
8) Sue uzo alfabetic sembla anteriore al yan 2000 ante nor ere.
9) El uzo alfabetic de li glyfes egiptiane esa posteriore e probable man distinte.
10) El alfabetes hinde semblan derivar da una distinte adaptazo del primitive alfabeto semitic.



El diagramma circulari mostra li constellazas zodiacale e boreale in lor actuale relatazo con el equator e la axi solstiçiale. In la epoke in que li signes astronomic esaru formate, vi esava une diferançe angulari aproximative man de 45°, tale man ke Leo ed Aquaria esavan li signet solstiçiale.

Durant iste cirque u seis millenies la forme de li constellazas e lor generale apariazo variata alque man, ed in manere speciale la magnitude comparative de li stellas: on sava ke li Pleyadas, reprezentante le vertic del litter A esavan multu plu brillante, ed anke altre parve stellas plu clare man discernible.

Tamen, la forme generale de li lítteres esa ancor reconoshable in li constellazas conrespondante.

-o0o-

[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970 pp9,10 in the printed version]

6. Babies write a new social code, by Ann Pacey*

**from Sunday Times,* Johannesburg, So. Af. Mar. 29, 1970.

A unique experiment reveals the real factors that begin to shape an adult person from the day of birth.

While test-tube babies tend to dominate the headlines, a remarkable experiment that began with 200 expectant mothers is now producing fascinating and important results in Britain. The aim of the experiment has been to answer the questions that almost every adult asks:

Where did I pick up the habits, feelings, thoughts, actions and reactions that make me what I am? How was I mentally and physically shaped?

The project, backed by London University's Institute of Education, bean nearly 20 years ago when two psychologists, Dr. Colin Hindley and Dr. Terence Moore, opened dossiers on the 200 mothers-to-be who agreed to co-operate in the experiment.

The plan, unique in British research, was to study every aspect of their children from birth right through to young adulthood. At intervals over the years, the research team asked the parents and the children hundreds of questions. From the answers, they have gained new knowledge of the factors that mould the behaviour, mentality and personality of a growing child.

Many of the original subjects are still taking part in the study, answering questions about their reactions to the new problems that have come to them as they reach young adulthood.

Here, Ann Pacey gives some of the results of this remarkable experiment. Many will surprise you. All will give a deeper understanding of the good and bad influences that begin to shape a child's future from the day he is born.

by Ann Pacey.

One of the surprising facts of child development that have come to light during the 20 years study is that signs of social class difference can be found in babies as young as six months of age.

"If you bring me a baby of a given age, I can't tell you what social class he belongs to by looking at him." says Dr. Hindley. "But it is well known that, among school children, those from a favoured background, with wealthier and better-educated parents, tend to do better in school and get higher scores on IQ tests.

Ability

"We find that these differences in ability are already quite marked by the age of three, and can be detected even at six months. Children from more favourable backgrounds tend to be a little more

advanced in the beginning of movement, such as holding the head straight, rolling from side to side, lifting the head while lying on the tummy, and being able to sit up.

"Differences are also apparent in the way they babble and listen to sounds. This could be due either to more intelligent parents producing slightly more intelligent children, or to middle-class mothers being able to give more time and attention to their babies – or both."

Girls are generally a little more advanced than boys in learning to talk and communicate, as early as 12 months. "This may reflect some inborn differences in boys and girls, or it may be that mothers talk more to little girls. Certainly as girls become a little older, they identify themselves with their mothers," says Dr. Hindley.

Copying

"A little girl will spend a lot of time copying her mother's actions, mothering her dolls, and playing domestic games about the house, and talking all the time about what is going on. In this way she is already revealing her preoccupation with personal relationships which will eventually help her in turn, to play the roles of wife and mother."

This imaginative interest in people, fast awakened in imitating the way her mother speaks and acts, can be seen as an early sign of that well-known quality, feminine intuition.

Boys, too, start off by identifying with their mothers. But this comes to conflict with reality when they realise, quite simply, that they are, not going to be women. Little boys are then faced with the task of identifying with their fathers, with males.

This crisis of identity, says Dr. Hindley, suggests one reason why the early life adjustment of boys to life is often more difficult than that of girls. "The problem that a little boy may have to face is that just because he is a boy, lie may be expected to be much tougher than his sister, not to be so easily upset by things and to want less show of affection. **The difficulty for him here is that he has been a baby and has been babied. Be has been close to his mother, he has picked up quite a lot of his mother's way of reacting to things, of seeing things.** And then perhaps he is expected rather suddenly to take on some of the traditional masculine virtues of the stiff-upper-lip kind, like not showing his feelings. This may be beyond his capacities. If it is, he is more likely to collapse in tears and revert to babyish behaviour because he can't cope with what is expected of him."

Dr. Hindley feels that there has been a marked tendency, in the past century, to accept a big discrepancy between what is considered appropriate behaviour for males and females."It seems to me that the way teenagers are going these days with unisex minimising differences, perhaps what is expected of both sexes by society will be far more closely related than it has been.

"All this raises the question of how much emotional difference parents ought to expect between boys and girls. It is really absurd to expect a five-year-old boy to have tough, military-type virtues."

On the other hand, there seems to be natural division of abilities between the sexes in early life. Girls may talk sooner and more readily, but in some ways boys are more advanced. At one year old, boys are ahead of girls in handling and manipulating objects, like bricks for example.

And there is evidence that, at 18 months, boys are more interested than girls in their physical environment. From this early age girls are showing more interest in people and boys with things.

Objectivity

Boys are developing objectivity and reasoning power when, as toddlers, they take clockwork toys to pieces. Girls are developing their intuition as they play with their dolls.

Dr.Hindley's team of researchers suggest that this difference in early childhood may help to explain why boys adjust more easily in later life to subjects involving logical and detached thought, like science and mathematics, while the intelligent girl is more often drawn to subjects that call upon her sensitivity and imagination.

It is not a firm rule, of course. Some girls do develop the strictly logical mind that is more usually a masculine characteristic. Some boys reveal the sort of intuitive talent that is typically feminine.

Parents may worry if a child is a relatively late talker. Children vary a lot, and this can be quite normal. However, if the delay is very marked, it is worth getting an expert's opinion. The infant could be deaf or backward. "A talkative child may often be a bright one, but talkativeness early on is not necessarily a guide to intelligence," say the researchers.

They have found, however, that the development of language and general ability in a child between 6 months and 8 years is strongly affected by his social class, his mother's vocabulary, the atmosphere of his home, and even where the child stands in relation to brothers and sisters.

Parents' attitudes to their children are extremely important from the start, for they can have a profound effect. Large families tend to retard the development of any individual child since not enough time is available for the personal attention a child needs when learning to talk. Limiting the size of family probably has beneficial effect on the intelligence of the children already in it.

Children under five, specially boys, faced with the arrival of a baby into the family, experience drawbacks because suddenly the mother has less time to be with them. They may become disturbed, put out, insecure. And security is the most important equipment needed to explore the world beyond the cradle.

Other researchers have come across a strong relationship between a mother's protective love of her infant son and his intellectual achievement between the ages of 10 and 14. The deeper the quality of this love for the baby boy, the better his chances of doing well in the crucial school years. For girls they found that a similar relationship does not exist. In fact, among girls who had attained intellectual success, many had been relatively rejected by their mothers. Those girls who had been over-protected, on the other hand, tended to do less well.

Bad relationships can arise from parents' own experiences in early life. A mother who resented her younger sister may sometimes resent her own baby. An uncomfortable pregnancy or difficult birth may heighten this feeling. Again a father who is not sure of his wife's affection may become jealous

of her love for the baby. And trouble can break out later when the child may develop characteristics similar to those of one of his parents and which are unpopular with the other.

Parents may see something emerging in the child's behaviour that reflects attitudes they don't like in themselves, or did not like in their own parents.

Delinquent

If the parents' view of the child becomes jaundiced in this way, they shouldn't be too surprised if they end up with a delinquent.

Many mothers are faced with the problem of having to go to work, leaving their young children in someone else's care. Dr. Hindley and his team concluded that an ideal arrangement would be for a mother to look after her child until the age of about three, and then to send him to half-day nursery school. When this is not possible, they suggest that the child shall be placed in the **care of one, constant reliable helper who is acceptable to the child – a particularly important point if he is under three – as well as to the parents.** This can be at home with, say, a relative, or in someone else's house, or in a nursery.

The main point is that the child should be in the care of someone who is able to give him a proper amount of attention and who is likely to be able to look after him regularly. The team studied several groups of children, some of whom stayed at home with their mothers until they were five, some who were looked after by a regular minder during the daytime for at least two years before reaching five, and others who were shuttled about from place to place and had several different minders.

Dr. Terence Moore, who investigated this important question in detail, discovered that the **main differences were not between those living at home with mother until five and those in stable daytime care.**

Unstable

The important split was between both these groups and those children who were in the sort of unstable care that involved their being looked after by different people at different times.

More than two changes of minder, it was found, can produce difficult behaviour that suggests the child is suffering from a deep sense of insecurity. **Children on the move in this way often come from unhappy and unstable homes that add immeasurably to their difficulties.** Says Dr. Hindley: "The experiences of these children had involved being looked after by a variety of different people, often being completely separated from their family. They tended to be much more dependent when re-united, hating to have their mothers leave them, clinging to them and wanting extra attention at bed time."

Timid

"They were more afraid of doctors and hospitals, more inclined to bite their nails, more timid, more likely to wet the bed. Yet where the substitute care during the day involved a regular, stable set-up there was no evidence that it had any harmful effect." So much, he emphasises, depends on the kinds of arrangements that are made. "If the child is being looked after by granny and has known

her well, and granny is fond of the child, then the odds are that the child will feel very much at home. **But there is all the difference in the world between an affectionate granny and someone with too many children to look after, and little inclination.** Day nursery at an early age, and being looked after by various people there, can be much too bewildering. Probably, if it can be avoided, it is far better not to put a child into an institutional setting-such as a nursery-before he is three."

Dr. Moore also found that children who stay at home all day with their mothers tend to develop different characteristics from those in some kind of stable part-time care. But when the children reached the age of 8, he could find no significant difference in IQ, vocabulary or comprehension between the two groups.

Confident

What he did find was that children who go to nursery schools, or are reasonably secure in private care, tend to be more self-confident and less inhibited than those who stay at home all the time. "They were rather more independent, aggressive, and a bit more disobedient." **They were also more impervious to punishment, more reluctant to go to bed and less inclined to help with household chores.**

In test situations, boys of 7 who had been in part-time care were found to be more excitable, more active, less prepared to show guilt, less likely to conform and less nervous. Girls who had been looked after by someone else were sometimes, by 7, more jealous and anxious for attention than the others. By 8, they were likely to be less inhibited, more fidgety, and more likely to indulge in fantasies involving aggression.

Good start

"Children cared for up to the age of 5 by their mothers at home," Dr. Hindley points out, "tended to be a little more dependent and conforming, and had more difficulty in adjusting at school:' They depended more on their parents' approval and were more sensitive to reproach.

Stay-at-home boys and girls were likely to be more fastidious, sensitive and nervous. But the boys were likely to be better at reading than their out-in-the-world counterparts. Mothers who kept their children to themselves seem to be – or to become – more anxiously involved with them. This is particularly true with boys who, when left at home, are rather more likely to become mother-dominated. There seems no doubt in the researchers' findings the nursery schools often toughen up a child, giving him or her a certain fearlessness that is of great help when the time comes for primary school.

-o0o-

[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970 pp11,12 in the printed version]

7. A Black Mark for Teacher, by Ann Pacey*

Many teachers have much to learn about easing the worries of their pupils.

This is just one of the facts revealed in an unique experiment conducted by two psychologists, Dr. Colin Hindley and Dr. Terence Moore. 20 years ago they opened dossiers on 200 expectant mothers. Their aim: to study the growth both mentally and physically of their children from birth through to young adulthood, analysing the factors that shape behaviour, mentality and personality.

The results of their continuing study, backed by the London University Institute of Education, are vitally important to every parent. Here, in the second of two reports by Ann Pacey, the researchers tell how school life affects different children, and how traditional teaching attitudes can sometimes further upset a child already emotionally disturbed by what may be his first venture outside the security of his home.

Few children go through primary school without encountering some kind of disturbance, and some never become fully reconciled to the idea of being in school at all. The psychologists who have been mapping the developments of a group of children considered the difficulties that arose between the ages of 6 and 11 in a variety of schools.

Dr. Terence Moore and Dr. Colin Hindley talked to the mothers taking part in the investigation to find out whether their children had shown any dislike of school, been reluctant to go, or had made specific complaints.

They found no significant difference in the type or amount of disturbance experienced by children at private schools and those of similar social background at State primary schools. They found that the most common and persistent type of difficulty was a reluctance to go to school, often with signs of over-dependence on mother. Other frequent problems involved not getting on with certain teachers, and coping with the work. **Many children objected to the school dinners and a surprising number to the state of the school lavatories.**

Disturbance

In fact, complaints about toilet arrangements and the serious effect they had on some children occurred with a frequency that shook the researchers. Difficulties involving relationships with other children, and those tied up with games and physical training were less often reported. "About 8% of the children experienced difficulties in the infant school," says Dr. Moore. "Of these difficulties, nearly half were of moderate or marked severity. The number of difficulties decreased slightly in junior school, but a substantial number of children still showed mild disturbance." At the junior school stage, girls seemed to experience fewer problems than boys and between the ages of 6 and 8, children from the manual working class and those with both older and younger brothers and sisters had significantly fewer problems than the rest.

Dr. **Moore discovered that the boy who was the only child of the family had the most trouble in adjusting to school.** Reluctance to go to school "affects a majority of children in some degree at 6, decreasing at 7, rises to a secondary peak at 8 and then dwindles steadily to 11, tho even then one boy in three is still showing some reluctance," he says.

Rebellious

The sudden increase at 8 is probably due to transfer from – infant to junior school where more is expected of a child and discipline is likely to be stricter.

Boys tend to dislike school more than girls. Dr. Moore suggests one reason may be that active boys resent the sitting still necessary for most of the time. **They may also be more openly rebellious over the loss of their freedom of choice, while girls may be more ready to conform.**

A further reason could be that more little boys than girls have a closely dependent relationship with their mothers and find it difficult to exchange the safety of home for the unknown of school.

"They certainly seem to have more problems than girls at the primary school stage," says Dr. Hindley. **"They have more reading difficulties, and more trouble adapting. More boys than girls attend child guidance clinics."**

The peak age for children's complaints about teachers comes at 8, perhaps because of sterner attitude in junior schools.

Upset

In this investigation, the incidence of complaints never fell below 20% throughout primary school life.

Children were upset by teachers who smacked, shouted, or grumbled; who indulged in favoritism, or reprimanded some children unfairly; who failed to make the work interesting or to explain a subject clearly.

"But children's dislike of unsuccessful teaching is easily matched by their enthusiasm for the teacher who succeeds in capturing their interest and affection," says Dr. Moore.

Difficulties with other children are commonly experienced by the over-dependent child, and more so by the boy who has an unhappy or insufficiently **close relationship with his father.**

Playground

The rough demands of the playground and the tougher, older boys, are often impossible for a boy who has had no model (nearly always the father) on which to base his masculinity. Or one who has submitted to a domineering mother.

"Marks and places in class cause worry and distress to some children," says Dr. Moore. "Others may take the daily work in their stride but dread examinations or tests of any kind. "As much as two hours' homework a night is sometimes expected of children of 10 and 11. When difficulties arise, parents find themselves in a quandry. **"To offer help is sometimes to interfere and perhaps to confuse. The way help is offered is often the cause of the difficulty. Diplomacy and tact are needed when after the days' work and play, the child is required to knuckle down to study and research to write a report. In this they often need help, encouragement and guidance.**

Discipline

"To withhold it may let fatigue and frustration make learning impossible. To call a halt and write to the teacher is a step often stoutly resisted by the child, who would rather fail than be made an exception."

Dr. Moore points out: "Children cannot learn effectively if they are frightened, angry, bewildered or bored. Yet these states are too often produced and even condoned in the name of discipline or requirements of the syllabus. **And children are unlikely to learn good manners and respect for others by being shouted at, slapped, or made the butt of sarcastic remarks-however, one sympathises with teachers faced with conditions that make their task almost impossible."**

Fastidinous

"The fastidiousness of children; their personal modesty, even at nursery school age, as shown in the desire for privacy in the toilet; and their sensitiveness to the opinions of others about their appearance, behaviour and work – any of these can become excessive, but in a normal degree they are social assets which are too often ignored and trampled over because of adults' misconceptions."

Dr. Hindley adds: "A lot could be done to help children to adapt more easily to school, particularly by closer cooperation between teachers and parents. In many schools there is still little contact between them."

According to Dr. Moore's observations, the competition fostered among children in most British schools as a means of learning-including marks, grades, points, and position in class-does less than justice to their natural thirst for knowledge. Such a competitive system, he feels, "exalts the desire to beat one's neighbour at a time when the world's need surely is for practice in co-operation, and adds unnecessarily to the problems of those children whose sense of personal worth is insecure." [1]

The findings confirm that the essential qualities for a good teacher boil down to sheer teaching ability together with a combination of firmness and respect for the child as an individual. "These qualities, or their lack, can make or mar a child's happiness and progress in school."

[1] Editorial note: Why are children sent to school? Is it the John Dewey theory – to make him into a happy, well-rounded individual, or to make him into a successful adult worker?

This editor does not agree that a lessening of the competition for marks in school is desirable. The no-grade (pass-fail) system encourages mediocrity, and discourages diligence in class-work. It is better that the child learn at an early age that competition for grades is preparation for competition for advancement in the working world after graduation. The pupil that fails to recognize this early in life and fails to knuckle down to serious study, is the worker who in the future will have to be content with the poorer paying jobs, frequently losing his job because of an unwillingness to knuckle down to serious work. The school drop-out of today is the transient worker of the future. When should they have this brought brutally to their attention? – in grade school, or after they lose a job for the fourth time?

8. Advanced Techniques Aid Retarded Readers*

*From Rhodesia Herald, June 18, 1969.

White Rhodesian children, in spite of being above the norms of intelligence of children in Europe and South Africa, suffer from the same incidence of reading retardation about 20 to 25% – says a government educational psychologist, Mr. Harry Hall.

The Rhodesian education authorities are well to the fore in dealing with this problem, says Mr. Hall.

In the Salisbury region, which takes in Mashonaland and Manicaland, there are six full-time remedial tutors and 20 part-time reading tutors (attached to all country schools). They are helping 1,000 European children.

In Bulawayo, there are four full-time tutors and a number of part-time tutors in other parts of Matabeleland. Defining reading retardation, Mr. Hall said it was the matching of a mental age with a reading level. Thus a child of 9, with a mental age of 14 and a reading level of 10 years, was, in his opinion, in need of help.

The Rhodesians, he said, were using locally made equipment and books specially written so that all descriptions would be familiar to the local child. The British books tended to deal with conditions that were unfamiliar, such as sleet, ice and snow.

The books specially written for the courses had eliminated words like "beech," as few Rhodesian children knew the tree and this tended to confuse the reader and poor speller, he said.

An attack was being launched on the problem among children aged between 8 and 10 in Standards II and III, to "nip the problem in the bud."

Reading retardation was causing concern as it affects children at all levels, including some in senior classes.

There were three main groups of reasons responsible for the condition, said Mr. Hall. The physical included such deficiencies as poor hearing and faulty vision, some of which were undetected.

Left-handedness caused reading problems for the child unable to adapt in the right-handed world. Brain injuries caused perceptual difficulties which sometimes were manifested as word blindness or dissociation.

Emotional disturbances could be found as reasons for bad readers and poor spellers. He said a girl who had poor relations with her mother might go to school and transfer her resentment to the teacher and would therefore fail to make satisfactory progress.

Immaturity

He said immaturity and instability formed a third group of reasons for retardation. A child who went to school before he was emotionally ready for the experience would suffer. He said children who had too many changes of home or school would not achieve the maximum benefits of education.

Illustrating the serious consequences which would result from reading retardation, Mr. Hall gave the example of a nurse who was described by her tutors as being an excellent practical nurse but hopeless in examinations.

After being tested by an educational psychologist, she was taken out of nursing and put on to a remedial reading course for some months. She is now back at the hospital and will be taking her finals in a few weeks' time.

The difficult child, said Mr. Hall, was often one whose emotional insecurity stemmed from his reading inability. Educationally, the child was stymied: he was unable to absorb or communicate to the full.

Once he had been given remedial treatment-which usually lasted a year – he was not only helped scholastically but given a boost to his morale and usually became highly co-operative.

This goes to show that reading failure is an important cause (if not the only cause) of classroom tantrums which", are caused by emotional disturbances. When remedial reading treatment is effective, the pupil (now a reader) is unlikely to become a drop-out.

9. New Reading Plan for Los Angeles City Schools*

*Los Angeles Evening Herald, June 16, 1970.

Outline of a unique reading program aimed at improving the reading skills of students was presented to the Board of Education for adoption for the Los Angeles City Schools.

The developmental reading program is based on a systematic process of building and mastering certain skills. It was reviewed for board members here by a special task force following a 6 month study on ways to raise the reading level in our schools.

The report stresst the necessity of determining the appropriate achievement level of each student by writing a prescription to meet his individual needs and then frequently evaluating his progress by a carefully planned sequence of comprehension tests.

The various skills the students are expected to acquire and develop include: development of experiences through the senses, decoding skills through phonetic and structural analysis, vocabulary skills, learning of exact meaning of words, and organization of materials through an ability to select and utilize information.

District Administrative Coordinator Walter J. Lansu, who headed the 17-member task force, recommended the new reading program be started next fall in kindergarten through third grade at 10 schools, and be expanded to grade 4 through 6 in the same schools in February, 1971.

Most of the schools involved would be in the disadvantaged areas, altho the program is planned for eventual district-wise use Cost for the initial implementation next year would be almost two million, or about $101 per pupil said Lansu.

25 teachers from each elementary school undergo specialized training to supervise the program and will be aided by ed. aids.

-o0o-

[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1979 pp13,14 in the printed version]

10. Touching all the Bases, by Lewis H. Boyle.*

*Calipatria, Calif.

"And Jesus said unto them, No man having put his hand to the plow and looking back, is fit for the kingdom of God." Luke 9:62.

The speaker was said to be a carpenter, and must have known that a house, table or plow should be constructed in an orderly manner and be completed. That should be true in the 20th century as well as in the first. We still have a very productive class of people, and also another group that has been called the leisure class, which may obstruct or destroy, rather than complete.

In the California election held on June 1, 1970, over 3,000,000 votes were cast against Proposition 8, which would have given more state aid to schools. Also Proposition 1 and many bond issues and overrides for the benefit of schools were beaten.

But in Calipatria in Imperial Valley the school people made house to house calls upon the voters and the proposed tax override carried by a majority of over two to one. They feel that the local teachers are their kind of people, speak their language, are trying to do their jobs, and deserve higher salaries.

They are no sure about the "top brass" in education and the authors of some textbooks; but are certain that they cannot pay much more for the present product. of education.

A year or so ago a writer in the *Saturday Review,* a literary publication, made the generalization that there were two sorts of people, the "random" and the "sequential." He complained that most education was "sequential" and therefore nothing to him.

The teaching of the sciences is generally sequential, or "organized," if a more familiar term is preferred. Many coherent lists, tables, etc. are given, and from them students learn from what went before; so a plowman or any good workman makes his work better and easier by having continuous and contiguous.

The normal boy fixing his bike, doing a problem in arithmetic, or playing a card or ball game, does things in order and according to rules, and learns all the terms for things. The proper time for random capers and diversions is after the job, the lesson, or the game is finished. Then joy can "be unconfined." Johnny in victory is exultant, even tho weary, bloody and bruised.

The teaching of reading and spelling is not generally so sequential or organized, nor is joy in it always unconfined. It may be studied at random all the way, with nothing being completed or definitely accomplished and little won. Learning spelling is a seemingly endless task.

If the student can speak and understand ordinary English sentences, the main problem in reading is learning that the spelling does not always indicate the pronunciation of new words. Meaning and pronunciation is best taught in spellers in which separate words are discussed individually, and where the pronunciation is supposed to be inferred from the spelling.

Some of our spellers do give the meanings of the words listed, but most of them are words which the average student has known and used for years; and what little teaching of the pronunciation is given leaves much to be desired, for few of the speech sounds are named, and words featuring troublesome sounds are not grouped together.

As an example, an eighth grade speller printed in 1955 by Macmillan and authored by prestigious educators, begins with a listing of unorganized and random but simple and supposedly familiar words:

theft	streak	inn	darkness	shone	silence
holly	silent	lover	marriage	thunder	earlier

The list was made because these words were needed to be presented in the next story.

The text is concerned with the *alphabet,* which first graders knew during the 19th century, and with the parts of speech and meaning of those common words, which normal American-born fourth graders should know now.

Hardly any reference is made to spelling practices except with respect to changing *y* in *early* to *i* in the comparative earlier. That treadmill task must be repeated year after year because without the simple rule being given that final *i* and medial *y* are rare in native English words; medial *y* is common only in words from Greek.

If some students are more familiar with some foreign language than with English they might not know the meaning of some of those words, bin they would also have trouble with the accentuation of many English words. That serious problem is ignored in this speller: lesson 6 has the word *informed*, while lesson 7 has *information,* with no suggestion of the baffling change in the accent and the change in the sound of the important second syllable.

The students are solemnly asked to "write the 4 words with double letters," but the reasons for doubling the consonants are not given. That could hardly be done without naming the kinds of speech sounds, which those "educators" do not do. *L* is doubled in *holly* to show that the *o* is short, rather than long, as in *holy;* and *s* is doubled in *darkness* both to show the short vowel and that its sound is voiceless *s*, rather than voiced, with the *z*-sound, as it often is in final *-es.*

There is much madness in English spelling, but there is far more regularity in it than in that of the *teaching* of spelling. Some of this regularity could well be taught by rules. We have about 2,000 familiar words ending in unaccented *-ess,* and the pronunciation is regularly *-is,* but that is not taught.

We have in English several hundred familiar words with the unaccented suffix *-age*, which is pronounced *-ij*. This Macmillan speller lists *marriage* in one lesson, and *baggage* in another, and *managed* in a third, and the pronunciation is not shown except in the dictionary in the back.

That is a good example of random education; the random people detest lists and rules, apparently having computer *memories* for isolated words, even when the spelling is far from phonetic. They think that teaching the pupils to read and spell should not be much of a problem.

The opposite type traditionally has trouble in that area but prefers arithmetic, in which learning is by association, sequence and rules. There it is necessary to learn to work but a few numbers as examples, and innumerable other numbers can then be mastered accordingly.

Likewise, if Johnny is told how to pronounce *-age* in *marriage, baggage,* and *manage,* he should be able to lick *voyage, package,* etc. Of course, the fewer words like *en-gage'* and *mi-rage',* with different accents and sounds of *a,* must be considered and treated as exceptions; some spellers very commendably divide the syllables and indicate accents.

Still, we are afraid that even bright students may attend our elementary schools nine years and never learn the ways of spelling one vowel sound, or of reading one vowel digraph, like *ea.*

To remedy the situation, we beg to offer a method that differs from the practice of the British educator, J. M. Smith, as explained in the Spring issue of this magazine. He would ignore the letter groups that represent one sound in less than 40 words, (which we might regard as "bugs").

Farmers and most producers of crops try to get rid of bugs, weeds, culls, impurities, etc. by hand if necessary, and then handle the good product by labor-saving methods. Just look at the fine and orderly display of crops and packaged foods in markets that can be bought and used with confidence. When farmers packed their fruit at random, it was not wise to eat it in the dark. Would you buy random mixed fruit whether it was washed or not?

The use of *ea* in English is a "bearcat," but Johnny might lick it if he were taught properly. In only a few dozen words is *ea* sounded as in *bear, heard, heart, bean, steak, guinea, ocean* and *beauty.* These could best be taught by calling attention to them as groups of exceptions. *Ea* represents short *e* in a number of words ending in *d,* or to which *th* is added, as *bread* and *health.* When the *e* and *a* are in different syllables, they should be separated and accents shown when first taught, as in *RE-al, re-AL-i-ty,* re-ARM, and *RE-ar-RANGE.*

It should not be impossible to learn to read *ea* in those 12 ways, if taught systematically. And with all that out of the way, it should be easy to read long *e* in *streak* and *dear,* and most other words. The only problem is: what sound should a pupil give to *ea* on encountering a new, unfamiliar word? Words now have to be taught one at a time – retail, instead of wholesale – in large quantities – which could be done if it were 'all spelt phonetically. If Americans are ever taught the quantity of irregularities in our English spelling, they might see the need for changes.

It is not likely that printers and typists will accept an enlarged alphabet with special letters for every vowel sound. The spelling of some of them may be confused with that of others, but the most glaring examples occur in few words which could easily be taught. The vowel in *put, sugar, de luxe, woman, wolf, foot* and *would* occurs in hardly 50 basic words, all familiar and used in a first-grade pupils vocabulary. They could surely be taught in a few weeks time if concentrated efforts were made. Students should then have less trouble reading various other sounds that may be spelled in the same ways, and not have *auto* sound like *Otto,* as some speakers do. Or have the *good* and *food* sounds reversed. We would call the vowel sound in *foot* and *put* "medium" *u*, to contrast with short *u* in up and long *u* in *use.*

We feel strongly that the current methods of teaching spelling are archaic – even animals and insects show more common sense and gumption in their actions. Even a mule will follow a plow furrow, a donkey will always walk – straight to a water hole, and a butterfly will lay her egg carefully where her offspring will prosper.

Normal English speaking youngsters should be able to learn to read our commonplace words long before they finish eighth grade, if they are taught sensibly. Then they should be able to learn the technical and abstract terms that they must know in other subjects and in high school.

Some authorities now hold that 50% of Americans are "functionally illiterate." Most of them whom I know can readily read the kind of words that they were taught in elementary schools; but they are not taught words like *sequential* or *functionally,* with that connotation.

Our intellectuals now seem to have a jargon of their own, and rhetoric in which words have changed meanings, like *ghetto* for *slum.* A similar class of people a short few centuries ago gave us the worst of our spelling, and they wrote in Latin and in very illegible Black Letter or Old English. They did not want the common people – the productive class – to understand the written language. It was their way of keeping the common people in bondage – serfdom – so that they would not rise above their ancesters' menial servitude. And so that the richer, well-educated land-owners and employers could be assured of a supply of cheap common labor.

There must be changes in that mental attitude or we are in trouble. We must overcome the imaginary obstacle that everyone does not need a good education; and that our present spelling was handed down from high heaven and is sacrosanct.

-o0o-

[Spelling Reform Anthology §15.2 pp212–214 in the printed version]
[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970 pp14–16 in the printed version]

11. Automation for Libraries, part 2, by Ivor Darreg.

According to the article by John C. Kountz and Robert E. Norton in the Feb, issue of *Datamation,* automation is already in use in the Orange County (Calif.) Public Library System, which consists of 26 separate branches and a central headquarters.

In Jan. of 1966, there was a partial automation of centralized acquisition of books, called BPP for Book Procurement Program. It is even possible to transfer the automation system from one computer to another by re-compiling it, and then in a third step transfer it to a third machine.

In Mar. 1967, upon reevaluation of the library system's goals, these were stated to be:

An aquisitions program
Book catalog
Circulation control system
Public information retrieval system

Judging the initial automation effort in this new light, one became conscious of the inadequacies, from a library's point of view, of the contemporary systems for use with computers, which were, of course, *business*-oriented. Obviously, some way of re-orienting the available or known systems to meet library requirements had to be found.

In mid-1968, a private software firm was engaged to form a project team to create a modular system for the Library. The system is designated by the acronym BIBLIOS, for Book Inventory Building and Library Information Oriented System.

Kountz and Norton's article goes on to describe details of this system, reproducing a typical form, and showing also a sample of the computer printout. We have space only for some highlights here.

For instance, there is a special *subsystem* which interfaces with the Machine-Readable Cataloging File produced weekly by the Library of Congress. This procedure has certain advantages: It standardizes subject-headings, which have been assigned by the Library of Congress. It eliminates the manual searching effort usually associated with determining and verifying data about the books. It provides an additional and quicker book-selection tool. When coupled with a circulating record computer, it will tell if the book is out or in.

Another aspect of the BIBLIOS system takes some of the manual clerical tedium out of the process of ordering books. It can well be imagined that for a library system of any size, the issuing of purchasing orders and all the numerous record forms that have to be made out for the files can become an enormous, repetitive task.

One of the further advantages of an automated system of this kind, is that special reports and abstracts can be compiled, once the necessary data has been stored. It increases the use of stored information, by being able to reprocess it and issue it in forms which would have been impractical under a manual clerical-work system.

Future plans of the Orange County Public Library include an automated catalog. Perhaps information on this will be available later on.

(For the benefit of readers outside Southern California it should be pointed out that Orange County,

which lies immediately south of Los Angeles County, is one of the fastest-growing areas in our nation and forms a continuous Megalopolis with Los Angeles and its environs. Thus what the Orange County Public Library accomplishes may ultimately affect a very large number of people, and be copied and adopted with necessary modifications by other library systems and educational institutions in Calif.)

Let us now turn our attention to the Library of Congress, a truly tremendous respository of knowledge and information, and certainly a challenge to the constructors of any automation system. Paul Reimers and Henriette Avram, writing in the June, 1970 *Dalamation,* report on the 1970 status of automation in the Library of Congress.

As a gradual process of sharing, the Library of Congress has become in effect the National Library of the American People. It thus sets the pace for many other libraries, large and small.

When the future need for automating libraries became apparent, an in-house committee was formed within the Library of Congress, and in turn this requested funds for a feasibility study from the Council of Library Resources, Inc. This resulted in the publication in 1963, of a report entitled, "Automation and the Library of Congress" by Gilbert W. King and others.

This report concludes that the automation of cataloging, searching, indexing, and document retrieval is technically and economically feasible, even tho the intellectual content of a large collection cannot now be retrieved. It set a target date of 1972 for implementation of the system, but unfortunately it now seems this will be delayed awhile.

From other reports and work done on the subject, it appears that only some 25% of library activity is devoted to reference and search – there are many other activities usually not taken into consideration which would have to be automated in order to improve the functioning of the library system as a whole. This explains why progress in actually implementing tire recommended automation programs has been slow.

There are upwards of 60 million different items in the Library of Congress, and the official Catalog contains some 16½ million records. About 1260 different files are used in the Library's operations. 20 distinct alphabets are used to write some 125 different languages in which the incoming materials are printed.

The cataloging during fiscal year 1969, to choose a typical example, took care of some 200,000 items.

Because of its unparalled scope and comprehensiveness the Library of Congress has taken on many activities which assist other libraries. Since the United States, unlike most other countries, does not have a National Bibliography of some kind, the Library of Congress has had to assume this function. It has a most extensive card-printing service which furnishes catalog cards to other libraries. The Library also maintains the National Union Catalog which has nearly 13 million titles, each entry telling libraries have this title.

Project MARC (Machine-Readable Catalog) has also been implemented by the Library of Congress. This is a weekly service, and its second, revised version was started in March, 1969, for the benefit of other libraries having suitable data-processing facilities to make use of it. A 300-foot minireel of magnetic tape containing some 1000 items, recorded in a digital code, is sent to each subscriber weekly.

Because of the magnitude of the card-printing operation just mentioned, it is hoped to automate this

also. Photo-composing machines and offset printing will be used to produce the cards, and automatic, highly sophisticated methods will take care of the addressing and mailing. 50,000 orders a day are received from 25,000 subscribers for cards, which added up to 63,000,000 cards sold during the fiscal year 1969.

The U.S. Copyright Office is connected with the Library of Congress, so the Herculean task of automating copyright procedures must also be kept in mind by the Library of Congress officials.

Congress itself uses the Legislative Reference Service, which was the first service selected for on-line input and access. 2741 terminals were installed for this purpose. By means of the machine-stored information, a *Digest of Public Bills* is compiled and printed.

If the Library had waited for the Perfect System before proceeding, little if any progress would have resulted. Instead, they went ahead, with careful planning, even tho it was fully realized that so large an enterprize way never get completely automated.

At the Los Angeles (City) Public Library, computer printouts of new book titles have been made available for readers to consult. There has been little publicity about this new service, nor about other plans, but perhaps something will be written about it later on.

Like many other libraries thruout the country, the Los Angeles Public Library uses a partially-automated micro-photographic system for charging books. The reader's card is photographed together with a due-date-and-transaction-number card and a title card kept in the book pocket. Thus who borrowed what book when can be traced, and since the due-date cards are punched in the standard IBM fashion, the circulation statistics and the fines that should be collected can be automatically tallied.

Various inventions have been suggested for automating the detection of book thefts from libraries, which has become a most serious problem. It deserves the public's concern, since most libraries are tax-supported and can ill afford to lose books. Often certain titles are irreplaceable.

12. Appendix – Concerning Spelling Reform

A standard, classical objection to reforming English spelling, has been the stupendous problems involved in the transition or changeover, and with the co-existence of two orthographies. To support this kind of argument, it has become customary to appeal to all kinds of economic and financial obstacles, such as the tremendous cost of reprinting all the books, or of scrapping all typewriters and Linotype machines.

In connection with the subject we have been discussing, the automation of libraries and their various procedures and functions, the impact of any reform in English orthography would obviously be far-reaching. If there is even the slightest chance that such a reform would go through, even partially, within the next century, any plans to automate certain procedures in libraries will have to take it into account by providing for it.

For instance, let us take the problems in cataloging. Suppose, for the sake of argument, that an often-proposed form of "simplified spelling" went through: dropping of most silent letters, reduction of most doubled letters to single, and the substitution of *f* for *ph* and *gh* when these digraphs are pronounced *f.* Many librarians and their assistants refuse even to think of such a "frightful" possibility: it would mean that all entries under *Philosophy* and *Philology* would go back in the alphabet under *f*, and that *Psychology* cards would have to be refiled under *s* – which might involve thousands of cards. Usually the mere mention of this possibility and its consequences is administered by a stern, unanswerable rebuke, and the innovator or reformer is expected to retire in

meek cringing silence and forever after hold his peace – or else be considered an idle dreamer.

Inevitably, there would have to be a transition period, during which both orthographies would be in use: this entails extensive cross-references, such that the old alphabetical places of the subject-headings could not be neatly abolished; they would have to be retained or cross-referenced for a time – perhaps for years, e.g. *Philosophy,* see *Filosoli.* Indeed, this is no new *problem – economics* was once *oeconomics,* and *aesthetics* and *esthetics* are still fighting it out now. Some of the earlier accounts of the Dewey Decimal classification system for libraries carry a half-simplified spelling, *Philosofy,* which hedges on this very thorny point to avoid relocating these words under f.

Different libraries which must have some communication with each other would not change their files at the same time, and it is unrealistic to expect that the entire English-speaking world would ever agree to the *same* spelling reform at the *same* time – unless by international conference. One has only to consider the numerous gradual reforms in Portuguese orthography, which were not synchronized in Brazil and Portugal. In the case of the new Russian orthography altho many words were changed very few *initial* letters had to be changed, so that the effect on directories, catalogs, and such was quite small.

However, there are compensating factors. So long as maintaining a library catalog was a manual, clerical task, the job of implementing any spelling reform would have been most formidable. But with the new problem, how to automate library cataloging, also comes the solution: the transcription or transliteration between the old and new alphabets can be handled automatically, with only a minimum of human editing. Thus the serious, threatening problem of 1900 or 1935 becomes a pseudo-problem, a mere ghost or shadow of itself. It would even become feasible to create duplicate catalogs, one in each orthography. This might be desirable in order to alleviate the "uncontrolled feedback" or "merry-go-round" situation that would result from certain spelling-reform schemes – for instance, if the letter *i* is given its European sound in the new orthography, then our present *seat* becomes *sit*, while *heat* becomes *hit,* which means that 99% of the words with the long-*e* could be confused with regularly spelt words with short-*i*. This would not be right even if no old-orthography cards or cross-references remain in the old spelling, but intolerably confusing if both old and new entries were to be merged into one alphabetical sequence in the existing catalog drawers. Not only would human catalog-users be confused, but all machine-readable records would have to contain built-in indicators to show whether such a word as *sit* or *hit* were in the old or new spelling. If this were not done, these words would get re-transliterated into whatever the new spelling for the short-*i* sound was. The merry-go-round effect – automatically re-transliterated by the mindless computer. And complete with pseudo-cross-references also generated automatically. Consequently any reform using the continental sound values for *i* (as in machine) and *e* (as in *fete)* is unthinkable for English. Also let all spelling reformers beware of creating a monster – a system that, for instance, spells *full* as: *fool.*

Almost since the first proposals for a reform of English spelling, most reformers have conceded without any argument or struggle or hesitation that they would not touch any proper names. But how is such a proper-name taboo to be implemented in terms of automation programs? It could be very costly indeed. The argument for preserving the traditional spelling of all proper names has a certain persuasiveness to it – until you consider the new possibility on the horizon of automatic speech recognition and automatic reading-out-loud machines. When these new developments become feasible, a proper name-taboo instantly will become impractical. But we recognize that changing proper names must be done through the courts, to be legal and maintain correlation. Until that time, the taboo seems quite necessary.

Actually, the wall has already been circumvented – with a filing scheme called *Soundex.* This is a method for bringing together similar-sounding names even those that differ slightly but not

materially, such as Andersen and Anderson, or Shafer, Schafer, Schaefer, and Schaeffer, etc. Many business firms which maintain enormous mailing lists or personnel files find this system very useful in preventing loss of data due to misspelt names or names misunderstood over the telephone. Similarly, it could be useful in libraries where titles or author's names have to be searched for when one is *not sure of the spelling.* With certain modifications, it might be extended to foreign language variants of common names and to homophones and certain words which occur frequently in book titles.

Some of the new codes for alphanumeric data provide for additional characters. In library work especially, the total of diacritically-marked letters in the principal Roman-alphabet languages, such as French, German, Polish, Czech, Swedish, Spanish, Portuguese, etc., runs almost to a hundred, plus the Greek letters needed in mathematics. And then there are a number of scientific and technical symbols which must be accomodated. In some of these codes, there are blank or spare positions, so that introducing new letters into the English alphabet will be possible. In other codes, such as the 5-unit Baudot Code, most of the punch-card alphanumeric codings, and the like, there is no room for additional characters, and desperate expedients have been resorted to for expressing diacritics: for instance, French é, è, ê, and ë may get tendered as: El, E2, E3, and E4 respectively. This in its turn introduces a very serious problem of transliterating from one code to another. Incidentally, many of the so-called computer programming languages look like cryptograms because symbols like * and $ have to serve very strange, unusual purposes in the Fortran system: * is multiplication sign, **exponentiation (the following character is an exponent), $ various (in Russian, it is the soft sign, Ь.

A very important point is that any spelling reform (with no new letters) the cost would not be insignificant. In an alphabet reform, however slight or however drastic, it would cost about the same to implement, so far as data-processing equipment is concerned. We are no longer in the hardware age, when changes of this kind were a matter of scrapping existing machinery (typewriters, type for hand-setting, typesetting machines, etc.) or refitting or remodeling it some way. We are now in the *software* era, as the computer people put it, where the "programs" count as much or more than the apparatus on which these programs are executed. To put it another way, the coding is now given a very high price. There are first-, second-, third-, and higher-order codes involved, and the construction and corrections of these schemes requires many man-hours of highly skilled preparation.

In the case of spelling reform, this means that using accent marks over letters would not be cheaper than inventing new letters. Since such letters as theta, delta, sigma, etc. are already provided for use as mathematical signs, they might as well be put to work in an enlarged alphabet. As for digraphs, if the digraph has a different value than the two letters taken separately, it will become very costly or nearly impossible to have the machines and their coding schemes interpret digraphs in the easy way in which human readers can.

To summarize, the cost of any and all changes has itself been radically changed. Unless spelling reformers consult with data-processing experts, all their efforts will be useless. The conditions and parameters have been so gravely altered that any pre-computer-age schemes will have to be thoroly re-examined and re-evaluated.

-o0o-

[Spelling Reform Anthology §15.2 p214 in the printed version]
[Spelling Progress Bulletin Winter1979 p5 in the printed version]
[The following section appears in the Tune anthology as part of the above article, but in Spelling Progress Bulletin as part of an article by Helen Bonnema Bisgard, the main part of which is on p215 of Tune.]

By whose standard of pronunciation shall the computer spelling be established? By the same standard now used by a dictionary when it indicates the generally accepted punctuation. For example: *pheasant* is shown as (fez'-ənt). The pronunciation in parenthesis is a broad transcription and does not represent regional or individual practice. If, perchance, an Alabaman says (faz'-ənt), a Polynesian (fiz'-ant), or a lisper (feth'-nt), each of these speakers will nevertheless use the machine's standard spelling. He will unconsciously assign a modified sound just as he does now to the examples shown in the dictionary's pronunciation key. His pronunciation is not so different from the standard that he cannot read standard spelling, or conversely, that he cannot understand speech as presented in Voice of America broadcasts. Listeners throughout the world now tune into these newscasts. Travelers comprehend English whether spoken by native people in Asia, Europe, Africa, Ireland, Texas, or the Bronx. After the change which was triggered by computer technologists has been effectuated, the opposition of historical linguists and the man in the street will be forgotten. Economic urgency will determine what course is followed by technologists. It will determine whether they use a reformed spelling system or continue to be restrained in accomplishments by our discouraging spelling.

The foregoing speculative prediction about future developments makes the process sound predetermined, leaving little for us to do but complacently watch as our dream of sensible spelling comes true. However, as you have likely noted, there are IF's in the prognostication: *If* the inventor decides to market his computer regardless of its inability to spelling in the customary manner, and *if* the public adjusts to these unusual word forms. Then there's a possibility which I should like to only whisper. I am a bit worried that we may alredy be too late. A computer programmer tells me that simpler spelling will not be necessary because the machine will soon be able to handle traditional orthography.

Consider the phrase *to be*. Although there are six possibilities, three for the word *to*: (t-o, t-w-o, t-o-o) and two for the word *be*: (b-e, b-e-e), t-o-o can be eliminated since it is not good English, neither is *t-w-o b-e,* because after *two,* only the plural *bees* would be correct, not the singular *b-e-e*: so the machine can be programmed to write *t-o b-e* as the only correct spelling.

The task of organisations such as the Simplified Spelling Society and the Phonemic Spelling Council is to ensure the certainty of success in the use of a reformed spelling. They must recommend the most practicable improved system not only for the computer but also for the general public, and not forgetting that an initial learning medium will be useful for a long time. We must also present effective procedures for showing the desirability to business, education, and government.

We must immediately develop our strategy for becoming experts on computer linguistics.

[Spelling Reform Anthology §18.2 pp241,125 in the printed version]
[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970 pp17-19 in the printed version]

13. Readability – an analysis of what it is, by Newell W. Tune

Without doubt, readability is a multifaceted subject that has not often been explored because of the complicated factors involved. There are at least four quite different aspects to readability. But first, let us define the term. Miles A. Tinker's book, *Legibility of Print* (Iowa State Univ. Press, 1963-4) is an exhaustive treatment of the subject. On page 5, he says that "the recognizability of printed symbols is ascertained by a short-exposure technique that gives the speed of perception which shows the quickness and accuracy by which letters, digits, words and phrases can be perceived. This method has been found useful for *determining the relative legibility of the letters of the alphabet,* digits, mathematical signs and particular letters in different type faces, and the roll of word-form in the perception of materials printed in lower-case versus upper-case type." Naturally this same technique could be used to evaluate new alphabets in comparison with our Roman alphabet.

I would like to offer this condensed version of the above statement: "Readability is the ease and speed with which a reader is able to decode and understand the words on something presented to him for scrutiny." If anyone has another definition, we would like to hear it.

Print legibility is only one facet of readability. At least three other factors are also important: 1. subject matter or context, 2. grammatical construction, 3. spelling.

Considering first the subject matter, it should be obvious that words and subjects not in the reader's understanding vocabulary can be spoken if the reader knows how to decode the printed symbols but understanding is not possible. And after all, is the subject matter then readable to this particular reader? – obviously, no! You can test this on yourself by reading – or trying to read – any one of the highly technical professional journals, such as the American Medical journal, Electronic News, Datamation, Corrosion (journal of the Corrosion Engineers). After trying out this test, you may be able to understand why a set of primers designed for pupils in England, where snow, ice and sleet are mentioned, is not understandable to a pupil in central or South Africa. The same is true of urban dwellers' children who may never have seen a live pig, cow or sheep.

The second, grammatical construction, may not be so readily apparent to one who has never taught foreigners, especially those from some European countries where they have an entirely different order of noun, verb, adverb and adjective. One quotation I remember well because it struck me so funny at the time, was attributed to some Scandahoovian in Minnesota – fresh off the boat from the old country. It goes: "Throw the horse over the fence some hay." Perhaps you have come across similar ones?

While this does not seem like a big obstacle, it does mean that such a foreigner must reorient his thinking along a different and often opposite grammatical order of words. This will not be true to any extent of children born and raised here, as they learn grammatical construction from the speaking of their parents – usually the mother. But it does show how a mother's grammatical mistakes are perpetuated in her children. Also is her dialectic pronunciation. It takes a skillful teacher to correct these long-used speaking habits.

The third, our erratic spelling, has been castigated for centuries by spelling reformers as an important cause of the difficulty in learning to read. And certainly, a non-phonemic spelling is unreadable to a child who naturally expects that printed words should be indicators of the spoken words. No matter what the *method* of teaching reading, whether by phonics (direct or implied), or look and say (from which the pupil is supposed to infer that the printed word portrays the spoken

sounds), or a combination of these presented in either words, phrases or sentences, it is inescapable that the child must eventually (altho gradually) learn by heart (sight, or spelling) all the hundreds – nay, thousands of irregular spellings that should, but do not, accurately portray the spoken words. One group of letters alone /ough/ has so many different pronunciations that any foreigner wonders if the English-speaking people, who tolerate such idiotic inconsistencies, are as bright as they pretend to be. For example: The *slough* was like *dough,* but with a *thought,* a *cough* and a *bough* the *tough* driver got team and wagon *through.* Another showing /ou/, A *tourist,* poor *soul,* on a *journey* to a different *country*, took *recourse* to *roulette* but *found out* he *could* only *double* his *troubles.* 9 different pronunciations for /ou/ and 7 for /ough/. (Ref. Dr. Clarence Hotson).

Just how bad is our English spelling? In two articles in this magazine for Spring, 1969, with the titles, "How phonemic is English spelling?" and "How nearly phonetic is English spelling?," the conclusions were that our spelling is far from being either phonemic or reliable. The unweighted figure given was 22.3% phonemic. The other article gave the rough figure of about 1/4 phonemic. That means that roughly 3 out of 4 words a pupil tries to read in an ordinary 3rd grade reader are probably unreliable as to being true indicators of the child's spoken language. With such an unreliable tool to present to the unsuspecting child, is it any wonder the child rebels and sulks, or thinking he is stupid, gives up and drops out? Sir James Pitman recognized this handicap and wisely created a smoothly paved detour around the rock-strewn, chuck-hole pitted road to reading with T.O. presented with vain hopes by other learning-to-read publishers. They depend on using regular words in their beginning presentation. It does little good to clear away the smaller boulders at the beginning of the journey if the pupil has to stumble thru the pitfalls before he has gained confidence in his ability to decode new words.

Just how can these four handicaps to readability be overcome? Taking them in order:

1. The type for beginners should be only lower case serif, which is the most easily legible (and least confusable between symbols).
2. The subject matter must be tailored to include only words in the child's spoken vocabulary and in his familiar sphere of living.
3. The grammar should be simple, straight forward and uncomplicated.
4. The spelling should be as regular as possible and equally as important, as phonemic as possible, so that the pupil never encounters any irregularity until he has gained complete confidence in his ability to read. If this means at first using a new alfabet that is truly phonemic, then that is your inescapable answer. Q.E.D.

Now that you have learned about readability, you might like the opportunity to try out your knowledge with experience. On the next page is a passage in two radically different systems: one, a phonetic alphabet well-known and used in teaching the finer points of phonetics – the International Phonetic Alphabet. The other is probably almost as well known but not used so extensively. It is the combined result of the best phoneticians in England and America and has successfully stood the test of many transliterations. It differs greatly from the I.P.A. in that it is strictly Romanic spelling, using digrafs where needed instead of new letters.

Read both passages as best you can and then decide which is the easier to read. Try to decide *why* one is much easier than the other, using all the knowledge and help from the above article, as well as your experience. Next, encode the same text in your own system and make a word by word comparison with these first two – first to see that the transliteration is accurate, then to see if yours is clearly understandable with no possible points of confusion. Be honest with yourself or you will defeat your own efforts, which should be to improve the reliability of your system.

The final test of readability of your system will come when you encode the Nonsense Prose in it. See page 9, Spring, 1970, S.P.B. This will show up its weak points, if you are really looking for them. To a mother duck, her duckling isn't ugly.

[Spelling Reform Anthology §7.9 p125 in the printed version, omitting the IPA version.]
[Spelling Progress Bulletin Summer 1970 p18 in the printed version]

by Lilias E. Armstrong, 1927, Univ. of London Press in International Phonetic Alphabet.

14. AN ENGLISH PHONETIC READER

bət aɪ 'li:v hɪm tʊ ɪz 'ʌn'rarʧes ke'mju:niŋz. hi:z 'wʌn əv 'ðoʊz 'pi:pl hu 'hæv wɒt aɪ mei 'kɔ:l ən ʌm'brɛlə 'kɒnʃns. 'ju: noʊ ðə so:t əv 'pɜ:sn aɪ 'mi:n. hi d 'nɛvə 'pʊt iz 'hænd ɪn ə'nʌðəz 'pɒkɪt, ɔ 'fɔ:ʤ ə ʧɛk, ɔ rɒb ə 'tɪl – nɒt 'i·vn ɪf ɪ hæd ðə 'ʧɑ·ns. bət hi l 'swɒp ʌm'brɛləz, ɔ fə'gɛt tə rɪ'tɜ·n ə 'bʊk, ɔ 'teɪk ə 'raɪz aʊt əv ðə 'reɪlweɪ kʌmpənɪ. ɪn 'fækt hi z ə θʌrəlɪ 'ɒnəst 'mæn hu ə'laʊz hɪz 'ɒnəstɪ ðə 'bɛnɪfɪt əv 'daʊt.

'præps hi 'teɪks jʊər ʌm'brɛlə ət 'rændəm frəm ðə 'bɑ:bəz 'stænd. hi 'noʊz hi 'kɑ:nt gɛt ə 'wɜ·s ðən ɪz 'oʊn; hi 'meɪ gɛt ə 'bɛyə. hi 'dʌz nt 'lʊk æt ɪt vɛrɪ 'kloʊslɪ ʌntɪl hi z 'wɛl ɒn ɪz 'weɪ. ðɛn, "'dɪə 'mi:! aɪ v 'teɪkn ðə 'rɒŋ ʌm'brɛlə," hi səz, wɪð ən 'ɛər əv sə'praɪz, fə hi 'laɪks 'rɪəli tə 'fi:l ðət hi 'z 'meɪd ə mɪs'teɪk. "'ɑ:, 'wɛl, ɪts 'noʊ 'ju·s 'goɪŋ 'goɪŋ 'bæk 'naʊ, hi'd bɪ'gɒn. ənd aɪ v lɛft ɪm 'maɪn!"

ɪts ðʌs ðət wi 'pleɪ 'haɪd–n–'si·k wɪð aʊər 'oʊn 'kɒnʃuns

umbrela moeralz, bie Alpha of the Plow, frum Pebbles on the Shore; in World English.

but ie leev him tuu 'iz unriechus komueningz. hee'z wun ov thoez peepl hoo hav what ie mae kaul an umbrela konshuns. yoo noe the sort ov person ie meen. hee'd never puut 'iz hand in anuther'z pokit, or forj a chek, or rob a til – not eeven if 'ee had the chans. but hee'l swap umbrelaz, or forget tuu riturn a buuk, or taek a riez out ov the raelwae kompani. in fakt hee'z a thhoroeli onest man hoo alouz hiz onesti the beni – fit ov the dout.

p'raps hee taeks yuur umbrela at random frum the barber'z stand. hee noez hee kant get a wurs than 'iz oen; hee mae get a beter. hee duznt luuk at it veri kloesli until hee'z wel on 'iz wae. then, "deer me! ie'v taekun the rong umbrela, "hee sez, with an aer ov surpriez, for hee lieks reeli tuu feel that hee'z maed a mistaek. "ie, wel, it's noe ues goeing bak nou," hee'd bigun. "and ie'v left him mien!"

it's thus that wee plae hied-n-seek withh our konshuns.

Umbrella Morals, by Alpha of the Plough, from: Pebbles on the Shore, in Traditional Orthography.

But I leave him to 'is unrighteous communings. He's one of those people who have what I may call an umbrella conscience. You know the sort of person I mean. He'd never put 'is hand in another's pocket, or forge a check, or rob a till – not even if 'e had the chance. But he'l swap umbrellas, or forget to return a book, or take a rize out of the railway company. In fact he's a thoroughly honest man who allows his honesty the benefit of the doubt.

P'raps he takes your umbrella at random from the barber's stand. He knows he can't get a worse than 'is own; he may get a better. He doesn't look at it very closely until he's well on 'is way. Then, "Dear me! I've taken the wrong umbrella, he says, with an air of surprize, for he likes to feel that he's made a mistake. "I, well, it's no use going back now," he'd begun. "And I've left him mine!

It's thus that we play hide-n-seek with our conscience.

Transcribe the example in your system here: