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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."

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Late News

1. Announcement

Simplified Spelling Society

The Annual General Meeting of the Simplified Spelling Society will be held at noon, on Sat. 21st, October, in Pitman House, London, thru the curtesy of Sir James Pitman, K.B.E.

- Election of officers

President: Our President, Professor Daniel Jones, wrote a few weeks ago sending his kind regards to all members and regretting that he could not be with us at this year's meeting.
Chairman: Sir E. Graham Savage, our Chairman since 1950, wishes to retire after this meeting.
Hon. Treasurer: Sir James Pitman, K.B.E.
Hon. Secretary: William J. Reed

- Election of one third of Committee. The following are due to retire this year and are eligible for re-election: Peter A.D. MacCarthy, M.A, Prof. Harold Orton, W. Tolme Maccall, M.Sc, Rodger Kingdom, M.A.

Other Committee members are: Miss Audrey Bullard, LRAM, N. C. Scott, B.A., B.Sc, Dr. John Downing, Miss Edna Jackson, M.A, Prof. David Abercrombie, Maurice Harrison, M.A., M.Ed, and H.S. Wilkinson, ACIS.

- Recommendations from the Committee.
- Progress and influence of i.t.a.
- Report on the discussions between S.S.S. and S.S.A. concerning proposed amendments to New Spelling.

Report of the Secretary

Letters about spelling reform have appeared in "Times Educational Supplement" or in "The Teacher" from Sir E. Graham Savage, from Maurice Harrison, and from Marjorie Chaplin. Two letters from the Hon. Secretary have been printed in "Times Educational Supplement" and one letter in "The Teacher". In addition, the *Head Teachers Review* published a full length article from him and also a letter. *The Sunday Express* published, complete with cartoon, an authorative article by William Barkley, which was reprinted in the Summer S.P.B. The Spelling Progress Bulletin also printed an important article by Brenda Johns on the Key to Better Education.

After many years of research, Mr. Herbert Wilkinson has completed his book *"Wurld Inglish"* which will be published in December.

The Hon. Secretary is grateful to members, including the following, for many letters containing important aspects of spelling and reform: Marjorie Chaplin, Rosemary Gwinnell, Brenda Johns, Mrs. C. Hornsey, Robert Craig, Godfrey Dewey, John Downing, Sinclair Eustace, Frank DuFeu, Clarence Hotson, David Howard, William Maccall, Leonard Mugford and Newell Tune.

Your Hon. Secretary has written 373 letters in answer to enquiries about the Society's policy and activities. He has also sent 328 circulars to members. Membership has increased by more than 30%.

A conference has been arranged at which representatives of the American SSA and representatives of the British SSS will meet to consider certain points where the two Societies have not hitherto been completely in agreement. A report of the proceedings is hopefully to be available for the A.G.M.

We owe a deep debt of gratitude to our Chairman, Sir E. Graham Savage, for the way he has continued to administer the Society's affairs. My personal thanks are due to him for his prompt solution of all problems submitted to him, and they are also due to Sir James Pitman.

William J. Reed, Broadstairs, Kent.

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Jonathan Holdeen, Lawyer, Educator, established the Holdeen Foundation for Research in Spelling Reform.

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2. Errors Children Make in Reading, by Raymond E. Laurita

*Schroon Lake Central School, Schroon Lake, N.Y.

The opportunity for observing at first hand some of the marvelous subtlety of the human mind presents itself when one works with the disabled reader in close and continued contact for a protracted period. On hearing the errors of these unfortunate children, the first impulse is to attribute them to a lack of intelligence or even some form of mental aberration. The linguistic monstrosities these children perpetrate appear to be without semblance of logic or consistency.

Perhaps the most difficult problem of the remedial therapist lies in resisting the temptation to become discouraged or worse, to fall prey to the evil of pre-judgement, a curse that places unbearable pressures on the disturbed child. But for those fortunate teachers who have the patience, understanding and inquisitiveness to observe and seek out meaning amidst the jumble of inaccuracies and confusions that are the legacy of reading retardation, the reward is considerable. It has been my experience that in the great majority of cases there are simple and extremely logical explanations for most of the errors children make.

The primary cause of reading difficulties in virtually all of the over 700 cases of reading disability I have treated over the years was related to difficulties the child encountered in attempting to cope with the problems imposed by whole configurations. This has been true not only for those children exposed to a predominately whole word approach but also for many children who have had considerable exposure to linguistic and phonics approaches. Children who are experiencing difficulty with whole configurations will persist in this difficulty until they have developed a degree of perceptual maturity which will enable them to see, hear and remember total configurations.

A cardinal rule educators profess to follow is the theory of readiness-of never exposing children to learning experiences before they have developed sufficient maturity and skills to cope with the new learning experience. Unfortunately for millions of illiterates, this rule has been broken consistently in the past and continues to be broken today on a national scale. Each year, we in education persist in the practice of asking children in the earliest stages of their learning experience to perceive letter groupings in the form of whole words before they are adequately prepared for this most complex of perceptual experiences.

When a child is exposed to a whole word configuration such as "could" for example, without sufficient preparation, we are literally opening a Pandora's Box of possible confusions. Prior to asking the child to learn this highly irregular and abstract word, certain precautions should have been taken. For example, these questions ought to have been answered. Is the child viewing the word in a consistently left-right manner? Is he aware of each of the individual letters which comprise the word? Has he some understanding of the nature and usage of this word? Is he aware of the fact that altho the word has five individual letters, it is composed of only three distinct sounds? Has he the capacity to perceive "gestalt" with regard to total configurations? If we have been remiss in discovering the child's readiness in these areas of essential preparation, then we have failed to find out if the child is indeed capable of performing the task set out for him.

To the immature child who hasn't developed adequate visual and auditory identity and association between individual language symbols and the words they form, the word "could" will undoubtedly be confused later with a variety of configurations; among them: cold, called, cloud, canned, cooled, clawed, cord, would, should, etc. The progression that a confused child follows in reachinga state of complete frustration is inversely proportional to the speed with which he is able to develop exceptional powers of visual discrimination, and visual memory in order to cope with the increasingly complex needs of learning whole word configurations. It isn't difficult for the more than casual observer to understand why so many children become reading problems. They simply cannot cope fast enough with the need to learn numerous and unrelated whole word configurations on a purely visual basis.

It must be remembered that children who learn by the sight method, and this constitutes the majority of children in the United States, have been scientifically conditioned during the initial exposure period to a learning experience which by its very nature elicits a purely visual response to a configuration without assistance from auditory clues. No sincere educator can pretend that this initial exposure period hasn't a most profound and enduring effect on the immature child, for by a series of carefully arranged stimulus-response activities, he has been literally conditioned to a visual, configurational attack on language. The result is inevitable.

The claim that auditory elements are systematically taught *later* by means of an analytical approach has very little meaning for the child who has been conditioned to responding automatically to visual configurations. There is very little instruction in phonics in the first year of school when an analytical method is used that is of any real value, for the practice factor has to be missing. Most books the child is exposed to are not structured to consistently elicit responses to auditory clues but rely instead on the use of learned visual configurations. Auditory association practice is isolated and limited to unrealistic exercises not associated with the "real" reading done in the classroom, at least not in the mind of the child.

The argument of those who persist in exposing all children indiscriminately to a visual configurational attack is usually based on post-facto reasoning, for they tend to cite the large numbers of children who have learned to read without first making auditory and visual associations with the individual letters of the alphabet. It is my belief and that of others that children who learn to read using a gestalt approach which exposes them to whole word configurations at the outset, are children who have had either *prior preparation* which prepared them for the experience or are those children gifted with *better than average* capacities of visual perception, discrimination and memory. And further, that they develop intuitively, satisfactory powers of auditory sorting and organization which assist them in attacking unknown configurations.

Alex Bannatyne writing in *The Disabled Reader,* [1] states "This latter method, commonly called look-and-say, may be effective with those two thirds of first- and second-grade pupils who are sufficiently gifted in the realm of language to be able to learn to read quickly. I believe that these verbally capable children rapidly teach themselves to analyze words phonetically in spite of a deliberate nonphonetic approach on the part of the teacher. That this is so can easily be tested by asking children who have learned to read well using the look-and-say method to sound out difficult words; this they usually do quite competently. Incidently, because these capable children learn

phonics anyway, all beginner classes might as well learn through a phonetic technique from the outset. While the rapid learners may gain only a little, there is no doubt that the less competent could be saved a lot of prolonged difficulty and perhaps much unhappiness."

The subtlety and infinite diversity of the errors that the child becomes subject to in his developing confusion have to be seen to be believed. A few examples here from the many observed each day will serve to illustrate the point. In a recent lesson, a child who had been receiving remedial instruction for an extended period by means of a structured synthetic approach continued to make numerous errors of substitution, attesting to the persistence of early confusion. He responded to the configuration "loud" with the response "long" Because of the child's long history of discrimination and reversal difficulty, an explanation for this mistake was easily deduced. The total configuration of these common words is very similar; in addition, the child had made two discrimination errors in reversing the *u* to an *n* and the *d* for the *g.* The latter reversal may be difficult to understand until it is remembered that the manuscript form of the *g* is the vertical reverse of the *d.* The same child later responded similarly when he referred to the name Chub as Chug, this time rotationally reversing the shapes of *b* and *g.*

Another example saw a child respond to the word "grab" with the response "drag." This is an extremely common type of error for it has in addition to the visual confusion an overlay of confused auditory association. The consonant blends *gr* and *dr* are extremely difficult to differentiate for the child with inadequate auditory perception and discrimination. The two sounds are very similar as are the lip movements which are made to create them. In addition to the auditory confusion and the close configurational pattern of the two words, the child was also reversing the initial and final consonants. This child also referred to a "furry" animal as a "funny" animal and read about a character who went swimming in the "winter" instead of in the "water." Both of these errors had a configurational base with the error involving the words furry and funny complicated by a discrimination confusion between the *n* and the *r.* This child also made the following progression in mistaking the word "Oh." He went from *oh* to *on* to *no* and finally concluded the series with *not.*

These confusions are not extreme examples of severely disabled children but are instead rather common samples that every remedial teacher will meet on a given day if the time is taken to record the mistakes children make. A more complete and comprehensive compilation of errors of this kind can be found elsewhere **[2]** but anyone wishing to develop his own list need simply find the first available remedial student, have him read a few passages and a new and different set of confused yet logically explainable responses will be forthcoming. Because of the inadequate nature of the traditional alphabet, the irregular spelling of the language and the almost universal use of a visual, configurational approach as an initial teaching technique, the number of variations is infinite.

There is another variation to the multitude of possible errors children are forced into by too early exposure to whole configurations. It is an error associated with all gradations of reading difficulty, even cropping up in the reading of capable students. It isn't generally considered serious by most parents and teachers but it is actually either a residual manifestation of earlier difficulty or may portend future problems in the area of word attack.

Often a child will read a sentence such as: "The little boy went into the jungle and saw a big giraffe." and substitute for the last word: *elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus* or even *dinosaur.*

Most adults fail to realize the subtle yet logical cause for this kind of mistake. It is really very logical for the child who has been conditioned to respond to visual stimuli. He isn't thinking in terms of auditory clues, rather he is sure only that the little boy has seen some kind of large jungle animal. Unless he is a capable, linguistically talented child, his auditory associational training hasn't prepared him for a total attack on the word, thus why shouldn't it be a hippopotamus, elephant, rhinoceros or even a dinosaur. They are all "big" words in terms of size; they are all large animals and to the small child the possibility of a dinosaur residing in the depths of the jungle is a distinct possibility.

A different situation occurs when children with adequate vision are exposed to increasingly smaller print and more involved vocabulary in the form of new and more complicated material. Often children when placed in this situation will make responses which seem to have no relationship with the material being read. On close examination the mistakes do not appear to be reversals, substitutions or discrimination errors. When seeking explanations for this kind of problem, the wise teacher will begin focusing attention on the area of print directly above and below the point of the error. It has been my experience that many children have not developed sufficient visual maturity to remain visually fixated at all times and often substitute words or phrases of similar configuration from as far away as three or four lines above or below. These errors are often difficult to detect since the child is unconscious of what has happened and usually returns to the original point of reading without any apparent interruption in the flow of the material being read. The child simply slips from one line to the other, taking a word from here, a phrase from there until he has lost the thread of what he is reading and consequently appears to have poor comprehension.

This type of error tho difficult to detect is relatively simple to correct. Of course, if the difficulty is gross or persists after attempts at correction, then an eye examination is in order, but in most cases the use of a line marker for a brief training period until the child has developed improved control and stability is sufficient therapy. For more severe cases tachistoscopic training has proven useful with certain students. The notion that the child will become dependent on a line marker appears to have little substance in practice. Close observation and occasional testing will be adequate for almost any teacher to discover when the training period has been completed. I have found that large numbers of disabled readers need some kind of line marker or guide to assist them in maintaining place into the second grade and sometimes beyond.

A final example of difficulty that remedial children have been observed to manifest is one that probably has its inception somewhere in the earliest language experiences of the child but which has been found to be present in large numbers of remedial children. Many problem children find it difficult or nearly impossible in some cases to remember, unfamiliar auditory configurations. These children appear to have been deprived of linguistic experiences at a crucial developmental period which would have assisted them in developing the facility most normal children manifest with new words. To the child who has not an almost absolute facility with individual auditory components and who hasn't had vast and varied experience in putting them together in varying combinations, words such as Canaveral and Caribbean can prove to be both baffling and frustrating. Children with this kind of difficulty can be taught a word numerous times, observe and hear it frequently throughout a story or lesson and yet continue to be unable to remember its exact auditory configuration and consequent pronunciation.

A recent example will serve to illustrate. A child who has been undergoing therapy for almost two years came to the name Clarence in a paragraph. Being unable to solve the word, I attempted to help by breaking it up into smaller components and then have the child pronounce the individual parts as a whole. First I wrote the letters *Clar* on the board and had the boy pronounce them, which he did exactly. Then to try and simplify the final group of letters, I broke them into the parts *en* and the final *ce* pronounced with the s sound. Again the boy responded perfectly. Yet when he attempted to recreate the entire word, the best he could come up with was *Clarsen.* The boy had made an auditory reversal between the sound of *en* and the s, pronouncing the final syllable *sen* instead of *ence.* Typical of children with this form of disability, he perseverated in his error and at the conclusion of the lesson, after having pronounced the word correctly numerous times, he once again referred to the *Clarence* in the story as *Clarsen.*

Remedying such a problem is most difficult and the longer therapy is delayed the less chance there remains of complete rehabilitation. Once again, methods which delay assisting the child in associating individual sound components with specific visual representations and the giving of extensive and meaningful practice in combining these units, isn't in the best interests of the child, especially those with the kind of difficulty just described. The more practice children have in combining round symbols, even in combining them into nonsense units, the better. Methods which focus attention on individual sound units prior to or simultaneous with instruction in visual configurations and which give consistent practice in this activity are vastly superior for children with poor auditory facility.

Observing a child who has lost some of this marvelous human capacity to respond with reasoning and logic, is a terribly depressing sight, and when one considers the number of times that human frailty in the form of faulty teaching and inadequate methodology has been the cause of this loss, the situation takes on the aspects of a tragedy.

When it becomes impossible to observe logic in the errors normal children make, it may be assumed with certainty that they are severely disabled and recovery will come only when complete and comprehensive rehabilitation has been administered for a long time. That facilities for this kind of rehabilitation are grossly inadequate to cope with the problem of reading retardation in the United States is a national disgrace.

Bibliography

[1] Money, J., Editor, *The Disabled Reader.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. 1966

[2] Laurita, R., A Basic Sight Vocabulary – a Help or a Hindrance?, *Spelling Progress Bulletin,* Summer, 1966

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[Spelling Progress Bulletin Fall 1967 pp4–7 in the printed version]
[r should have an approach stroke. Letter pairs marked in green, e.g. ee should be joined.]

3. The Remedial Reading Program for Basic Adult Education at Oregon State Penitentiary by William H. Pahrman

The Reading Program
The i/t/a readers in the Pitman program provide both an introduction to reading for functional illiterates who do not yet have the skills which they need to unlock words as well as a useful tool in the presentation of reading to those who have not found success in the regular (traditional) reading program. Before slower students are able to apply any phonics skills, they can achieve the satisfaction of a reading experience by memorizing a limited number of words and "reading" them in a book.

While the i/t/a *Early-to-Read* Program develops phonetic analysis skills in a systematic manner, the introductory readers in i/t/a allow early participation in a reading situation and, at the same time, lay the groundwork for phonic as well as other skill development. Frequent exposure to sight words whose phonemes are consistently represented through i/t/a leads the student to an awareness of sound-symbols and phonetic patterns. Therefore, in the course of his reading, he begins to build phonetic concepts in his own mind.

The i/t/a readers present 152 words at a carefully controlled rate of introduction with repetition necessary for reinforcement. The mean readability of the i/t/a series is 1.9. This is supplemented with both Dolch List (220 basic words) and the words found in the Word Development Lab. 1964, which are in neither the i/t/a lists nor the Dolch List.

Materials
Auditory Discrimination Cards provide pre-reading practice with the 44 phonemes. The student becomes familiar with the sound without encountering the character.

Large Word Flash Cards, 500 cards, one for each word in the Dolch List, the i/t/a list, and the Word Watching set.

Word-Word Matching Cards give practice in recognizing whole-word shapes through pairing of a word on a tile (a small card) with its double on a multi-word card. i/t/a sends seven cards in three sets, which handle the first 52 words in the beginning readers. We have added the Dolch List to these to bring the total to the basic 220 words needed in beginning reading.

Large Wall Picture Book and Large Sentence Book -14 full-color 24"x 26" pictures which can be used for demonstration with each of several sentences. The original group of 65 sentences has been enlarged to 90 sentenced cards.

Picture-sentence Matching Cards-8 sets of cards, two for each of the first four books, useful for developing and gauging comprehension. Set of 32 cards and 32 matching characters.

Character-Matching cards with a set of characters to match with the same characters in a word or words from the 44 phonemes. i/t/a packet covered 16 characters and we added the other 28.

Word-Building Cards – illustrated, lists of words lacking one of the 44 phonemes are presented. The students supply the missing phoneme by using the character cards. The practice is useful in

developing phonetic analysis in reading. This practice is carried on of the student's seat or on the flannel board.

How to use the Readers

The i/t/a Readers are best read at each pupil's individual rate, in accord with the teacher's general plan for group or the class. The material has been prepared in story-units of varying lengths. At the beginning of the series, as the students are just becoming acquainted with the i/t/a alphabet, the story units are two pages long, and each of these comprises a reading lesson. At the end of Book 2, and whenever students have mastered a new group of words, the story-units expand in length to provide an opportunity for fluency development and to encourage pleasure in reading. The longer story-units are review lessons with little or no introduction of new vocabulary.

Each story-unit may serve as a lesson unit for your class, but you may find it necessary to divide some of the longer stories, or to include more pages in easy lesson lengths to best suit your own class, but always take care to provide all the review that is needed. It is essential that the basic sight vocabulary be learned thoroly at each and every lesson.

Because the brief story-units do not depend upon lengthy plot continuity, undue emphasis is not placed on concept development and motivation purpose. The purpose for reading may be offered in a few sentences whenever this is appropriate to the units. If you are using this series with a kindergarten or first grade class, you may wish to expand the motivation material. You will find that with success and confidence in reading, the motivation to read is self-generating to a far greater extent than formerly. This is also true in the remedial situation.

Using the *Early-to-Read* i/t/a system of teaching aids developed to accompany the readers is helpful, but if they are not available, you can prepare substitutes.

Teaching Suggestions

Gauging readiness: Standards for determining reading readiness are the same for i/t/a materials as for the traditional materials. Students should be started as soon as they have adequate pre-reading experience. However, i/t/a does simplify the process of learning to read, and is therefore appropriate for adult illiterates as well as children.

You will find the Auditory Discrimination Cards provide valuable practice before beginning the Readers. Presenting the vocabulary: This is a suggested method of presenting the vocabulary that you may find useful for each lesson, along the specific suggestions given for each. Emphasize the word in context, rather than in isolation, by showing it in sentences whenever possible.

1. Call attention to the new word by showing the Large Wall pictures. Ask the pupils to guess the word. Volunteer it if the answer is not given soon.
2. Emphasize the context of the word by talking about the picture. Use the new word as many times as you can in discussion, giving pupils the opportunity to use the word. It is important at this stage that the pupils always use complete sentences.
3. Point out the word as it appears in the sentence which you have on a large sentence card. Read the sentence and let the pupils read it. Always frame the new words with your two hands and as each pupil reads the sentence have him frame it too.
4. Place the large word flash card and several others in a line. Give the pupils practice in identifying it. Point out any and all phonetic elements which will make the word easier to recognize and remember, such as an initial sound already met in several words, or rhyming vowel sounds.
5. Use the character-matching cards to help the pupils identify the elements within the word.

6. Have the pupils use the Word-Building Cards to show they can build the word and identify its phonemes.
7. Give flash card drill to reinforce the word until it is learned thoroly.
8. Use flash cards and the flannel board to construct sentences for the building of context use of the word.

The use of Experience Stories or Charts

Altho the i/t/a program has designated stories for reading and for easy motivation, the use of experience stories and charts as used in writing should not be forgotten. It is in this area that i/t/a far out-strips the traditional method. With only 44 phonetic elements to learn, the pupil writes and expresses himself much earlier and with far more fluency.

These experience stories speed up the development of an understanding of the written language as it relates to speech. It also provides more than adequate opportunity for unlocking those here-to-for written language codes. Furthermore, experiences develop a more meaningful sight vocabulary and maintain considerable interest and motivation toward learning both to read and write.

Therefore, any interesting event is made the basis of a short story. It is dictated by the students to the teacher who writes down the story. It may be written on the chalkboard or put on the flannel board and later transferred to newsprint or may be initially written on newsprint. (We do not have a supply of newsprint, so each individual pupil has his own notebook into which he copies these stories. The teacher also maintains a copy in his notebook. Sentence cards are often made from these stories.) Through this method, the developmental reading program begins to cover the needs and interests of the pupils, which is of great benefit when dealing with the emotionally, the culturally, or the mentally deprived.

The teacher should naturally call on common experiences for group participation in developing charts. This way, each pupil can recall his own similar experiences and associate appropriate language with it. As the teacher writes the statements of the students, the student sees his spoken words become printed words and may, on later rereading, recall those words with relative ease because of special interest in them. Also, this matter is written in phrases in language natural to the student and should certainly be vitally interesting to him because he helped write it. Motivation to read and reread for the development of sight vocabulary is therefore enhanced.

Once a story has been dictated and written, the teacher is expected to use it in a variety of ways to develop reading ability. A careful control of vocabulary is not necessary since the need for much repetition is largely supplanted by the intensity of the experience.

As experience stories are completed, they should be collected into a class storybook for further use and display. The class storybook should be one of several ongoing group activities. These stories should be turned to periodically to review and develop sight vocabulary. They maybe used by pupils as source material for correct procedure in capitalizing words or writing sentences. They should be used as writing models for copy work when pupils have developed skill in writing the sound-symbols. They can be duplicated and used as a supplementary reading material for a guided purposeful reading lesson. When pupils copy the stories for individual story books, they might also provide illustrations on the top of the page.

The beginning stages of learning to read and the early stages of learning to write are learned simultaneously. The pupil's task in reading is primarily one of determining which sound, or sound cluster, the symbols are intended to represent. In the writing activity, he is concerned with encoding

the sounds he wants to express in print. The emphasis in writing activities should always be on encouraging the pupil's creative tendencies.

In contrast to the conventional reading program in which the pupil is exposed to traditional spellings and may conclude that spelling has no system or that to be certain of accuracy every word must be learned individually by rote, the emphasis in the i/t/ a program is upon learning that there is a systematic relationship between spelling and speech sounds.

Everything should be done to develop interest and satisfaction in writing. The need for encouraging creative enjoyment must be tempered by the need for correct spelling. One way of developing correct spelling is to give the student a correct version of a part of his own writing to copy as an exercise in good writing. This way, the student's desire for self-expression is not undermined.

Individual and class dictionaries should be developed as on-going writing activities. Pupils should copy words they have learned to write onto the pages of their alphabet books and thus have an easily accessible source of reference. A class project to develop a dictionary of words used in class activities will serve as a comprehensive source for correctly written words to which pupils can be referred when a problem in writing arises.

The i/t/a Handbook for Writing and Spelling

Writing the sound-symbols or characters of the Initial Teaching Alphabet is similar in many respects to writing the traditional alphabet. The lines, circles and hooks of manuscript characters are changed only in that they often flow continuously from one to the other rather than being discrete elements. The additional characters of i/t/a necessitate only the addition of the arch and loop. The procedure used results in characters which are described as a form of print which is halfway between the manuscript and cursive forms. Students have no more difficulty in beginning to write with this print than they ordinarily do with manuscript and they make the transition to cursive writing much more readily than do students who start on regular manuscript.

Altho each symbol in the Initial Teaching Alphabet has a name, symbol names are not taught because the student becomes confused in analyzing or synthesizing words when he has a choice between a symbol name and a symbol sound. Therefore, only the sound which is to be associated with a given symbol is taught.

Altho such terms as letter, character and symbol can be used interchangeably when referring to items in an alphabet, the most accurate term to describe an item in a phonemic alphabet is the sound-symbol. Thus, the symbol name, which is very often different from its sound, is not emphasized and the student's attention is directed to the sound represented by a given symbol. A constant reference to the sound-symbol *a* or the sound-symbol *n*, etc. demands an emphasis on correct pronunciation of sounds. These are very often difficult, if not impossible to produce in isolation without to some extent distorting the sound by the addition of vowels, e.g., *b is* often pronounced *buh; d, duh; p, puh,* etc. Yet it is more correct to do so and to follow immediately with examples – words which direct the student's attention to the sound in word context than it is to teach letter names and then direct attention to the sound of the letter in word context. In the latter case, little similarity exists. In the procedure recommended, i.e., the sound-symbol method, a high degree of consistency is found.

The Initial Teaching Alphabet is not an attempt to supplant the traditional alphabet but rather is used as a traditional alphabet to aid the student in overcoming many of the difficulties he ordinarily encounters in beginning reading. It should not be confused with a phonetic alphabet which, in its

attempt to represent all the variations of a given sound, demands many different letters to show dialectic and regional differences.

The lack of phonetic perfection of the Initial Teaching alphabet is seen in the use of both *c* and *k* to represent the initial sound in cat and *kitten,* or *s* and *z* for the same sound in *is* and *zoo*. This compromise with perfection is one of the strengths of the Pitman system since it represents a careful compromise between a perfect phonemic alphabet and the traditional alphabet, in order to help the student easily make the transition to reading in the traditional alphabet.

Note in the following table of the 44 sound-symbols, the keywords of the alphabet book are listed beneath each symbol. These words should be used consistently and often so that the student learns to remember and refer to the keyword for aid in analyzing sounds in new words. It should always be used as the first word in any series of words given orally to demonstrate the sound in word context.

Spelling and the Initial Teaching Alphabet

The beginning stages of learning to read in the i/t/a program are simultaneously the early stages of learning to write. The two activities are learned at the same time. The student's task in reading is primarily one of determining which sound, or sound cluster, the symbols are intended to represent. In the writing activity he is concerned with encoding sounds, i.e., writing the symbols which represent the sounds he wants to see expressed in print.

The emphasis in writing activities should always encourage creative tendencies. Thus, the freedom he enjoys in speech should be parcelled by freedom in writing. This emphasis permits him a freedom in spelling using the Initial Teaching Alphabet – a freedom which should be inhibited only by the criterion of clarity of meaning both to himself and to his teacher.

The emphasis in the i/t/a program is on learning that there is a systematic relationship between spelling and speech. The student first learns to transcribe the phonemes of words in his large oral-aural vocabulary and then to notice how these speech sounds are written. At first the student spells, for the most part, as he speaks. By the time of transition to the conventional alphabet, the student has developed clear concepts of the phonemes of his spoken language and has learned how to spell.

Everything should be done to develop interest and satisfaction in writing. The need for encouraging creative enjoyment must be tempered by the need for correct spelling. One way of developing correct spelling which many teachers use is to give the student a correct version of a part of his own writing (or a model story the teacher has prepared) to copy as an exercise in good writing. Thus, the student's desire for self-expression is not undermined.

In using the i/t/a method, avoid using the word spelling until the transition stage in reading is reached. This prevents drawing too much attention to specific i/t/a spelling, since they are a

temporary convention. If the student for example, writes *bocs,* do not insist on correcting it to *boks,* since he will later on write it as *box.* Do, however, correct the student's error if he writes *cept* for *kept,* since this word does not change its spelling after the transition stage. The student is not really in error since he has given a correct alternative spelling for the first phoneme of the word, but the need for accurate spelling eventually merits a correction of this type of error.

As a matter of course, correct errors which show that the student has associated the wrong sound with a symbol, since such errors, if left uncorrected, will adversely affect his progress. If for instance, the student writes ov for hav, or *shout* for *shout,* promptly correct the error, since it indicates a confusion either in speech or in the sound-symbol association as well as inadequate learning.

Pronunciation and spelling standards for teachers in i/t/a, however, are generally the same as those established for publishers and printers to ensure that a consistent visual image of words and sentences is offered to the student.

Spelling of words should conform to the following standard:

Where phonetically feasible, traditional orthographic spellings are to be retained so that there is a close compatibility between the i/t/a and the traditional.

If a sound is traditionally spelled with a double letter, then it is also spelled with a double letter in the i/t/a.

Vowels which are influenced by r. i/t/a uses the character r in place of r to show its influence on the symbols *e, i, u, y,* (he*r*, si*r*, tu*r*n, my*r*tl, arthu*r*, muthe*r*) whether the vowel and r are found in stressed or unstressed syllables. However, in other cases (pœlar, car, ær, aural, beer, fier, rector, pictuer) it is not particularly helpful to depart from the normal spelling, and r (not *r*) should be used.

Use the symbols a, *e, i, o, u,* in the traditional positions in words where the sound of the vowel normally is identified phonemically as a schwa ə, the relaxed and unstressed vowel of colloquial speech (sœfə, thə, aeprəl, kingdəm.)

Keep *t* not only in postman and postcard, but also in all other relevant instances in which pronouncing dictionaries indicate that the symbol is sounded in the speech of some cultured speakers: Christmas, often, chestnut.

Keep both singular and plural possessives alike, differing only in the position of the apostrophe: boss'es, bosses'.

Altho the symbol *y* is specifically taught as representing one sound, and that a consonant sound, and altho *i* and *e* are taught as representing their respective vowel sounds, they remain understandable in their closely related uses, and thus allow the normal spelling to remain unchanged: p*i*ty, pit*i*abl, span*i*el, mill*i*on, committee, ær*e*a, event. Thus, *funny* would be spelled funny. The student would still be correct if he used any one of the other spellings.

Since some of the material the student may read will include the i/t/a spelling (arm) in a number of words, you may need to teach him that the *a* (arm) has two possible sounds. In most cases, it will be a, as in *arm*, but in others it will be a as in apple.

As already noted, the Initial Teaching Alphabet is not a perfectly phonetic alphabet and is not intended to be a system for exact phonetic transcription. Its purpose is to help in identifying a word in print with its related word in speech. It matters more that there should be only one invariable i/t/a form in all printed matter, and that the form should be that one which most closely resembles the traditional orthography, than that the idiosyncrasies of individual, or even regional, speech should be reflected by variety.

The major goal of the i/t/a program is to help students grow into mature and competent readers, to master the interpretative and appreciation skills essential to the enjoyment of good literature and to develop a lifelong interest in reading.

i/t/a provides an abundant and wide variety of childrens books of highest appeal. These books are selected from an outstanding collection of children's literature and are translated into i/t/a from traditional orthography. Therefore, children should engage in independent and recreational reading as soon as they are able to do so. But some of the i/t/a supplementary books are on a higher level of interest to older children or adult learners.

The workbook activity is an integral part of the lesson it accompanies. Therefore workbook activities should always be planned and used with the lesson. They provide students with independent practice for mastering specific skills.

Finally, the i/t/a program follows an organizational pattern that is similar to the traditional procedures; however, the program is organized to guide the student from the initial stages of learning to read to progressively higher levels of reading achievement. Thruout the i/t/a program the major emphasis is on helping the student to make continuous progress to the point where he can easily, confidently and successfully transfer the reading skills and abilities he has learned in i/t/a to the more complex aspects of our traditional orthography, i.e., English as it is conventionally printed.

Transition activities (changing from i/t/a to traditional) are made with very little formal instruction, but their efficiency in reading will be enhanced by the methodical phasing in of traditional orthography. The opportunity for teaching writing and recognition skills to aid the transition is carefully structured so that the student begins to use traditional spelling patterns in his writing activities and becomes accustomed to seeing traditional forms in his stories on a gradual basis.

It should be remembered that i.t.a. is not a new way to teach reading, but a teaching tool to make the initial stages of learning to read easier, more simple and less confusing for the beginner than our old traditional spelling. i/t/a is the designation of the Pitman Company in America for its books in i.t.a. i/t/a program emphasizes the simultaneous use of both reading and writing activities.

The i/t/a approach is to start students in a reliable, simple systematic teaching medium which makes success in the initial stages of reading development possible from the very start.

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[Spelling Progress Bulletin Fall 1967 pp8–15 in the printed version]
[errata noted in SPB Spring 1968 p16 have been implemented as far as possible. An apology was given.]
[i.t.a. letter pairs marked in green, e.g. ee should be joined. The base of t of th in *that* curls to the left and the crosspiece touches the h; the base of t in th as in *thread* curls to the right as in T.O. z should be reversed z. r should have an approach stroke.]

4. Teaching English as a Second Language, via two Phonetic Systems, by L. M. Fatti*

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1.0. Comparison of the two Alphabets.

Two different initial teaching alphabets are at present in experimental use in Africa: Sir James Pitman's Initial Teaching Alphabet in Nigeria, and Professor Lanham's "Pronunciation Spelling" in South Africa.

It has been suggested that Pitman's Initial Teaching Alphabet be used for teaching English reading to Afrikaans children in South Africa [1] and also that modifications along the lines of Lanham's "Pronunciation Spelling" be introduced into i.t.a. for teaching African children in Nigeria [2] A comparison of the two methods is overdue.

Pronunciation Spelling (p.s.) as its name implies, is a method of spelling designed as a guide to the *pronunciation* and the understanding of *spoken* English.

The Initial Teaching Alphabet (i.t.a.) was designed originally to help the "young illiterate English-speaking child" [3] to learn to *read.*

Both of these spelling systems, or orthographies, are works of genuine innovation. Their inventors are pioneers who have had to battle against prejudice before gaining acceptance of the idea that simplification of the orthography could be an aid of inestimable value in teaching written and spoken English. This idea has now been accepted by many teachers and educationists with enthusiasm and gratitude. In making this comparison of the two orthographies, the writer has been struck with the possibility of combining features of each in one orthography fulfilling the aims of both-and thus of wider applicability than either p.s. or i.t.a. Each of these orthographies is criticised on individual aspects, not in any spirit of denigration but to show that in particular instances either one or the other orthography provides the better solution.

1.1. The starting point in Lanham's approach is an extensive investigation of aberrancies in the pronunciation of English as spoken by Africans throughout South Africa. The chief finding of this research is that the major source of breakdown in communication between Africans and English-speaking South Africans is caused by the failure of the former to distinguish (in perception as well as in production, i.e. speech) many of the vowel sounds of English. [4] Contrary to the opinion of Pitman that "for most foreigners the formation of the actual speech sounds of English is unlikely to cause much trouble", [5] Africans (and indeed most foreigners) find certain of the vowel sounds highly elusive, not only when attempting to pronounce them, but also when listening to them. For this reason p.s. pays particular attention to the representation of the vowel system of South African English, attempting to represent it as economically as possible, but yet in such a way as to provide each vowel sound with a unique and unchanging symbol.

Pronunciation Spelling was first used to teach pronunciation to adult Africans (speakers of several of the Southern Bantu languages) who were often already literate in English – its use for teaching

reading to children was an afterthought. Thus, although it uses the unaltered Roman alphabet (plus three extra phonetic symbols), p.s. was not designed with a view to easing the transfer to traditional English spelling. Choice of a symbol to represent a particular sound was in some cases guided by the letter representing that sound in the orthography of one of the *Bantu* languages, rather than by the most common sound value of that letter in *English* spelling (e.g. the letter *u* was chosen to represent the vowel sound in *pull* rather than that in *but*). In another case the symbol /ə/ was chosen to represent the more common of two sound values in English of the letter *i*, in order to emphasise the difference between these two English sounds, the other of which can be identified with the sound represented by the letter *i* in the Bantu languages. (see paragraph 3.2.1)

It will be shown below that p.s. has a strictly one-to-one relationship between symbols and sounds and thus provides a simple and unequivocal guide to the complexities of English pronunciation. It should be remembered that the pronunciation represented by p.s. is that of South African English which differs from Standard British English (Received Pronunciation) at several points in the vowel system, but not to such an extent as to be misunderstood by speakers of English in other parts of the world.

1. 2. Pitman's i.t.a. was. designed to eliminate the inconsistencies of traditional spelling, and yet to depart so little from traditional English orthography that anyone who knows English at all well would be able to transfer without difficulty his ability to read in i.t.a. to the traditional alphabet and spelling. It has been used with great success in many schools in the English-speaking world. It is now proposed to extend its use, in the form of "World i.t.a.", to children already literate in their own language, who are learning English as a foreign language.

It is claimed that i.t.a. has "unambiguous, one-to-one relationships between the printed symbols and the spoken sounds" [6] which eliminate all false clues to pronunciation and make it an adequate guide to the foreigner in learning English. It will be shown below that i.t.a. *does* in fact allow variation in the relationships between sound and symbol. It will be suggested that the variations allowed in the representation of *consonant sounds* [7] are unambiguous and even valuable, since they contribute to the high degree of similarity of i.t.a. to T.O. The variability in the representation of vowel sounds is, however, sometimes extremely misleading.

1.3. Both p.s. and i.t.a. use only lower case letters: i.t.a. does have `majuscule' characters – larger forms of identical shape to the lower case letters – as the counterparts of capital letters: p.s. has no such counterpart. This is not due to any theoretical reason, but because most of the material written in p.s. has been produced on standard typewriters, which have no provision for variants of the lower case letters.

1.4. An important property of p.s. is the fact that it can be reproduced by a standard typewriter. In the introduction of modern methods of teaching English and in research on such methods, it is essential to be able to provide teachers who are not mother-tongue speakers of English with teaching matter both on tape and on paper. This must be related to the particular problems produced by mother-tongue interference, and must obviously vary with the mother tongue of the pupils. It is therefore essential for research workers to be able to turn out such materials as they need them, and this can only be done by typewriter.

2.0. Representation of Consonants in the 2 Orthographies.

To distinguish between traditional English alphabet and spelling, i.e., T.O., p.s. and i.t.a., the following conventions will be used:

Italics	indicate T.O.	e.g. *that*
Slanted brackets	indicate p.s.	/that/
An asterisk	indicates i.t.a.	* that

Reference will be made to the *letters* of T.O., the *symbols* of p.s., and the *characters* of i.t.a.

2.1. P.s. and i.t.a. have in common the following consonant symbols, with the same sound values:
b, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, z.

2.2. In p.s. the symbol /y/ has the value of the first sound in *yes.* In i.t.a. the character * y has two values: at the beginning of a word it occurs as a consonant with the above sound value; elsewhere it represents a vowel, with the value of the last sound in *any.*

	p.s.	i.t.a.
e.g. *yes:*	/yes/	* yes
any:	/eni/	* eny

The two sound values for one character should not cause confusion, since the position of the character in the word determines which value it will have.

2.3. Sequences of letters (digraphs or trigraphs) are used in p.s. to represent some of the single sounds for which single letters are not available in traditional orthography, e.g., /th/ represents the first sound in *that* **[8]**. In i.t.a. the use of a sequence of symbols to represent a single sound is avoided by the invention of "complex characters" – characters made up of two letters joined together in various ways, e.g. * th represents the first sound in "that". The following sequence of symbols in p.s. correspond to single characters in i.t.a.:

p.s. – /th, sh, tsh **[9]**, zh, ng/ i.t.a. – * th, sh, ch, ʒ, ŋ. compare the representation of the following words in p.s. and i.t.a.:

	p.s.	i.t.a.
that :	/that/	* that
shred :	/shred/	* shred
chat :	/tshat/	* chat
measure :	/mezhə/	* meʒuer
sank :	/sangk/	* saŋk

2.3.1. Digraphs are not, however completely avoided in i.t.a., e.g. *dj, *dʒ, *di, *due are alternate representations of the sound usually represented by *j. **[10]**
E.g. *adjust, judge, soldier, procedure*
*adjust, *Judʒ, *soeldier, *proseeduer
Also *tch *ti, and *tue may represent the sound usually represented by the complex character *ch **[10]**.
e.g. *match, question, nature,*
* match, * kwestion, * nætuer.

2.4. P.s. uses the phonetic symbol /θ/ to represent the initial sound in *thread.* This sound is represented in i.t.a. by the complex character *th

	p.s.	i.t.a.
thread :	/θred/	* thred

2.5. P.s. has no alternative symbol for any sound. A useful principle in i.t.a. allows the use of alternative characters *c, *z, and *wh, with the same sound values as
*k, * z, and *w, respectively. **[11]**

2.5.1. *C occurs with the same sound value as *k, wherever *c* occurs with this value in traditional spelling.

	p.s.	i.t.a.
e.g. *cat :*	/kat/	* cat

2.5.2. *z occurs with the same sound value as *z*, wherever *s* occurs with this value in traditional spelling:

	p.s.	i.t.a.
e.g. *beds :*	/bedz/	* beds

2.5.3. *wh occurs with the same sound value as *w, wherever *wh* occurs with this value in traditional spelling. [11]

	p.s.	i.t.a.
e.g. *when :*	/wen/	* when

These alternative characters for one sound cannot cause any difficulty or confusion in reading, and contribute (as does the use of * y) to the acceptability of i.t.a. to the eye accustomed to traditional spelling, and to the ease of transfer to traditional orthography for children trained on i.t.a.

2.6. The use of double consonants, wherever these occur in traditional spelling, is another feature of i.t.a. which contributes to its similarity to traditional spelling.

	p.s.	i.t.a.
e.g. *happy:*	/hapi/	* happy
sick :	/sik/	* sick

3.0. Representation of Vowel Sounds in the two Systems.

It is in the representation of *vowels* that the difference in approach between p.s. and i.t.a. is most evident. It must be understood that altho English has a large number of different vowel sounds, these can be analysed as being made up of a small number of basic *simple vowel sounds.* **[12]** These simple vowel sounds occur both singly and in certain regular combinations to form *complex vowel sounds* or dipthongs. There are important advantages in presenting English pronunciation as a simple system of this kind when teaching English as a foreign language. While Pronunciation Spelling clearly does this, i.t.a. makes no attempt to do so.

3.1 *Representation of Vowels in Pronunciation Spelling.*

South African English (S.A.E.) has seven *simple* vowel sounds. These simple vowels combine in regular ways to form 13 *complex* vowel sounds. In order to speak and to understand spoken S.A.E. it is thus necessary to distinguish a total of 20 different vowel sounds. British Received Pronunciation (R.P.) has a slightly more complex vowel system, with a total of at least 21 contrasting vowel sounds.

The way in which p.s. represents the vowel system of S.A.E. is shown in the following table. The 20 contrasting vowel sounds are exemplified by the following words:

T.O. -tin, turn, tail, toe, tick, teak, deer, deck, dare, took,

p.s. /tən, təhn, təil, təu, tik, teek, diə, dek, deh, tuk/

T.O. -too, tour, tock, talk, toy, tuck, tar, tie, town, tack.

p.s. /too, tuə, tok, tohk, toi, tʌk, tah, tai, taun, tak/

Table 1. The Vowel System of South African English

Simple Short vowels	Corresponding long vowels	Glide to /i/	Glide to /u/	Glide to /ə/
/a/ (1)	/əh/ (2)	/əi/	/əu/	
tin	*turn*	*tail*	*toe*	
/i/	/ee/ (2)	*deer*		/iə/

tick	*teak*			
/e/	/eh/ (3)			
deck	*dare*			
/u/	/oo/			/uə/
took	*too*			*tour*
/n/ (4)	/ah/	/ai/	/au/	
tuck	*tar*	*tie*	*town*	
/o/ (5)	/oh/	/oi/		
tock	*talk*	*toy*		
/a/				
tack				

Notes to Table 1

1. The most noticeable difference between S.A.E. and British R.P. is seen in the first word on the chart (see also paragraph 3.2.1). The vowel in *tin* and both vowels in *bitter* are all three pronounced in very nearly the same way in S.A.E.: the final vowel in *bitter* differs from the other two only in being "weak" or unstressed, and all are written /ə/ in p.s., i.e. /tən/ and /bətə/. (Readers unfamiliar with S.A.E. should try to pronounce the word *turn* with a very short vowel – the result will be close to S.A.E. *tin.)*

This vowel sound- the "neutral vowel" (or "schwa") does not occur in any of the Bantu languages, but it has not proved difficult to teach it with the aid of p.s.

2. Note' that two different conventions are used in p.s. to represent long vowels:
(i) double vowel symbols /ee/ and /oo/ represent long /i/ as in *teak* and long /u/ as in *too* respectively. These double symbols were chosen – rather than /ih/ and /uh/ – for their frequency of occurence in T.O., in words like *seek* and *soon.* (This disregards the frequent use of oo in T.O. to represent the short vowel sound in *look, took,* etc.)
(ii) the corresponding short vowel plus /h/, viz, /əh, eh, oh/: /ah/ is an anomaly, since it represents *not* long /a/ but long /ʌ/. (Note also that /oo/ is not long /o/, and /ee/ is not long /e/.)

3. The vowel sound in *dare is* pronounced in S.A.E. as a long vowel, not a glide as in British R.P. (See paragraph 3.2.2)

4. The vowel sound in *tuck* does not occur in the Bantu languages; Bantu speakers invariably substitute the first vowel sound of the Zulu word 'abantu' (almost exactly the same as that of Italian *a)* and this does not lead to misunderstanding.

This has the corollary that the long vowel in the word *tar* /tah/ becomes the long equivalent of the short vowel in *tuck* /tnk/. Thus *dark* /dahk/ and *duck* /dʌk/ differ only in the length of the vowel in Bantu English pronunciation, and this is regarded as acceptable. Notice that the symbol /a/ is also used in the complex vowels /au/ and /ai/ where /ʌ/ would be needed to symbolise the vowel *system* which p.s. sets out to represent.

5. The short/long relationship between the vowel sounds in *tock* and *talk is* another concession to Bantu pronunciation. These two vowel sounds are taught as differing chiefly in length, though with more lip-rounding in the formation of the long vowel /oh/. (In the complex sound represented by /oi/ the first vowel has the sound of /oh/.)

African children learning p.s. are required to recognise and to produce only 7 basic vowel sounds, corresponding to the 7 single vowel symbols of p.s. All the other vowel sounds of S.A.E. are seen to be combinations of these 7 sounds. The choice of individual symbols may be criticised on various

grounds, but the fact remains that p.s. provides a simple guide to an apparently complicated subject, a guide which has enabled the children who have learned to read by it to speak an acceptable version of English with none of the mispronunciation of vowels which Lanham found to be the major cause of breakdown when Africans attempt to speak English and to understand spoken English.

3.2. *South African English P> British Received Pronunciation.* **[13]**
Any comparison of the way in which p.s. and i.t.a. represent vowel sounds must take into account the fact that the two orthographies are based on different varieties of English.

3.2.1. One point of difference should be discussed in detail. The vowel sound in *tin* and *did* and that in *tick* and *dig* differ less obviously in British Received Pronunciation than in extreme S.A.E. (where the "neutral vowel', ə "schwa", occurs in the first two words.) It is nevertheless an important difference, and it is particularly important that foreigners, who do not have this distinction in their own language, should be taught to recognise it since failure to do so is the source of much misunderstanding. The following series of words will illustrate this point.
(a) *teak, seem, reed, deed.* These words have a long vowel sound, corresponding to the short one in:
(b) *tick, sing, carried, hurried, candied.* (This vowel sound occurs predictably in stressed syllables before *k, ck, g, nk, ng,* and also elsewhere with weaker stress as in *carried,* etc. above.)

Compare the vowel sound in (b) with the clearly different pronunciation of *i* in the following list:
(c) *tin, sin, arid, rapid, horrid, candid.* **[14]**

Obviously different again in British R.P. is the final vowel sound in:
(d) *Arab, salad, carat, manner, horror, candour.* (This is the neutral vowel "schwa.")

In extreme South African pronunciation, however, there is no difference in the final vowel *sounds* in (c) and (d), (though some of them differ in stress). The final vowel sound in *arid is* the same as that in *Arab;* that in *candid* is the same as that in *candour*, i.e. both are schwa.

P.s. reflects this feature of S.A.E. by using only one symbol (a) where two symbols would be necessary to represent British R.P.

I.t.a. recognises no difference between the two pronunciations on *i* in (b) and (c) and thus uses one symbol to represent these two sounds.

Each orthography thus provides, tho for different reasons, only 2 symbols where 3 would be necessary for full discrimination of the vowel sounds in R.P., for example:

T.O.	p.s.	i.t.a.
candied :	/kandïd/	* candid
candid:	/kandid/	* candid
candour :	/kanda/	* candour

3.2.2. Another obvious point of difference between South African and British Received Pronunciation is the vowel sound in *dare, stair, mare, Mary*. This is simply a long vowel in S.A.E. whereas in British R.P. it is a distinct glide or diphthong. If the word *merry*, p.s. /meri/ is pronounced with a long vowel the result is South African *Mary*, p.s. /mehri/. If British R.P. pronunciation of *Mary* were to be symbolised in the notation of p.s. it would be /meəi/.

3.2.3. The other differences between S.A.E. and British R.P. mentioned in Table 1 need not be enlarged on. The points mentioned above should be sufficient to show that these differences are not so great as to make comparison of p.s. and i.t.a. difficult.

3.3. Representation of Vowels in i.t.a.
I.t.a. has a total of 15 vowel characters, 7 simple and 8 complex, to represent the 21 vowel sounds of British R.P.

3.3.1. The 7 "simple" characters:
(The first 3 characters have the same sound value as in p.s.)

	T.O.	p.s.	i.t.a.
*a represents the short vowel sound in	*tack:*	/tak/	*tack
*e represents the short vowel sound in	*deck:*	/dek/	*deck
*o represents the short vowel sound in	*dock:*	/dok/	*dock
*u represents the short vowel sound in	*duck:*	/dʌk/	*duck
*ω represents the short vowel sound in	*took:*	/tuk/	*tωk
*i, as was shown above, represents)	*candied:*	/kandïd/	*candid
2 vowel sounds: that in)	*candid:*	/kandid/	*candid
*a represents the *long* vowel in	*calm:*	/kahm/	*cam
(This same sound is also represented by **a*r, as in	*tar:*	/tah/	*tar

3.3.2. The 8 "complex" characters:

*æ represents the vowel sound in	tail:	/təil/	*tæl
*ee represents the vowel sound in	tea:	/tee/	*tee
*ie represents the vowel sound in	tie:	/tai/	*tie
*œ represents the vowel sound in	toe:	/təu/	*tœ
*au represents the vowel sound in	talk:	/tohk/	*tauk
*ω represents the vowel sound in	too:	/too/	*tω
*ou represents the vowel sound in	how:	/hau/	*hou
*oi represents the vowel sound in	toi:	/toi/	*toi

Unlike the digraphs of p.s., the complex vowel characters of i.t.a. give no indication of the various ways in which the complex vowel sounds of English are made up of simple vowel sounds. Thus the sound values of *a in *tack and of *e in *deck give no clue to and are indeed irrelevant to the pronunciation of *ae in *tael, etc.

3.3.3. *One character* represents a *sequence* of consonant plus vowel: *ue is described as being equivalent to a sequence of *y plus *u.

	p.s.	i.t.a.
e.g. in *use*:	/yoos/	*ues
and in *tune*:	/tyoon/	*tuen

This character is nevertheless used at other times to represent the vowel *u alone,
e.g. in *June*: /joon/ *juen

It also has a completely different value in,
sure: /shuə/ *ʃhuer

The foreign student has to cope here with one symbol which has three different sound values-with no indication which value is the correct one in any particular case.

Similarly with a number of other characters which have one or more *secondary* values. The vowel characters *æ, *ee, *o, *ω, and *u usually, but not always, have a different value when followed by

the character *r. Note too, that in some of the samples given below the *r is pronounced, in others it is not. Thus a South African child learning to read i.t.a. not only has a misleading clue to the vowel sound, but also no clue to the value of *r. Compare the different values of:

	p.s.	i.t.a.
*ae in: *may, mare, Mary:*	/məi, meh, mehri/	*mae,*mær,*maery
*ee in: *bee, beer, year:*	/bee, biə; yəh/	*bee, *beer, *yeer
*o in: *sorry, sort:*	/sori, soht/	*sorry, *sort
*w in: *pull, poor, poorer:*	/pul, puə, puərə/	*pɯll,*pɯr,*pɯrer
*ɯ in: *you, your*	/yoo, yoh/	*yɯ, yɯr
*ai in: *saw, sausage*:	/soh, sosij/	*sau, *sausage

3.3.4. In some instances the same vowel sound is represented in different ways, e.g.

pour, your, saw:	/poh, yoh, soh/	*por, *y(wr, *sat
dear, idea:	/diə, aidiə/	*deer, *iedea

A foreign child learning i.t.a. is required to learn 16 unrelated symbols and to match these in various conflicting ways with 21 apparently unrelated sounds. These are hardly "unambiguous, one-to-one relationships between the printed symbols and the spoken sounds." **[16]** Hence, it is obvious that i.t.a. does not eliminate all false clues to pronunciation and that it is thus not, as it stands, an adequate guide for foreigners learning English.

4.0 World i.t.o. has been designed to overcome some of the difficulties which a foreign student encounters with the regular i.t.a. It retains the same characters and spelling as i.t.a. but sets out to represent "stress, rhythm and changes in vowel sounds." **[17]**

Whether this additional information actually compensates for the ambiguous way in which vowels are represented is discussed below.

4.1. World i.t.a. provides information about three degrees of stress, by the following conventions:
a) printing in semi-bold type syllables which are pronounced with strongest stress;
b) printing in ordinary type syllables pronounced with secondary stress;
c) printing in smaller type syllables spoken with weak stress. This small type is either raised above or lowered below the normal type line in order to indicate the sound value of the "weak" vowel.

The first two are valuable devices for indicating a very important aspect of pronunciation. The third is, however, not only confusing to the eye, it also confuses the ways in which stress occurs in English.

4.2. Weak stress occurs in two different types of words:

4.2.1. A limited number of very common, usually monosyllabic words vary in pronunciation along a scale from formal to colloquial. These are usually *grammar indicating* words, conjunctions, prepositions, verb auxiliaries, etc. When the stress on these words is reduced, the quality of the vowel changes to a "neutral" vowel sound, symbolised below by "ə". In conversation:

ham and eggs may be pronounced:	"ham ənd eggs"
or	"ham ən eggs"
or even	"ham 'n eggs"
cup of tea may be pronounced:	"cup əv tea"
or	"cuppə tea"
could have gone may be pronounced:	"could'v gone"
Saturday may be pronounced:	"Saturdi"

The more formal pronunciation is in every case always correct, and though it might sound rather stilted in the mouth of an Englishman in ordinary conversation, it could never lead to misunderstanding when so pronounced by a foreigner.

Since p.s. concentrates on prevention of misunderstanding, it does not represent this type of variation in pronunciation. It is considered to be not only unimportant for the foreigner but an unnecessary complication to the learning task. Therefore, p.s. represents words like the following as they occur in formal speech: "and, of, for, at, can, have, to, Saturday."

In i.t.a. traditional spelling is used in most of these words; World i.t.a. prints the unstressed syllable in small type to indicate that it is pronounced with weak stress.

4.1.2. A very large number of words, all di- or polysyllabic, contain a vowel sound which in virtually all styles of speech is unstressed, i.e. pronounced with a weak, neutral vowel. These words are usually nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives. The first syllables in the words *about* and *before* are always pronounced with a neutral vowel. These are not examples of a vowel "change." It would never be correct to pronounce the first vowel in *about* in the same way as that in *abbot* nor that in *before* in the same way as in *better.*

P.S. recognises this, and uses the symbol /ə/ to represent the neutral vowel in these words.

I.t.a. uses in some cases the vowel character of traditional spelling, or arbitrarily one of the complex vowel characters, and World i.t.a. prints it in small type to indicate that it should not be pronounced as it is spelt.

T.O.	p.s.	i.t.a.
about:	/əbout/	*about
before:	/bəfoh/	*befor
balance:	/baləns/	*balans
palace:	/paləs/	*palæs
injure:	/injə/	*injuer

It is not possible to reproduce on a typewriter the variations in size and thickness of the characters in World i.t.a. The characters *a in *about, *be in *befor, *ans in *balans, *æs in "palæs and "uer in "injuer are written in *small type* in World i.t.a. and aligned with the *base* of the normal type line. This indicates that the vowel is the "low" or "wide" neutral vowel, schwa, as opposed to the "high" or "narrow" neutral vowel to which Pitman has given the name "schwi." Schwi is the weak neutral vowel in *orange, captain, respect* – a sound almost identical to the stressed vowel in *tin,* and to the vowel bearing secondary stress in *candid.*

South African English does not have this sound: schwa occurs wherever schwi would occur in other varieties of English. P.s. thus needs only one symbol /ə/ to represent the one neutral vowel sound in S.A.E.

T.O.	p.s.	i.t.a.
respect:	/rəspekt/	*respect
orange:	/orənj/	*orænj
captain:	/kaptən/	*captæn

In these words the neutral vowel schwi is represented in World i.t.a.:
a) by *small type* characters to indicate that it is weakly stressed, and
b) aligned with the *top* of the normal type line to indicate *how it is pronounced.*

This seems to be a very involved convention. Surely, the use of one symbol to represent schwa and of another symbol to represent schwi would have saved a great deal of complication and expense in printing and of difficulty in reading? Alternatively, is it indeed necessary to distinguish schwa and schwi at all, when teaching English as a foreign or as a second language? This *question* will be discussed in paragraph 6.2.2.

5.0. Assessment of the Suitability of Either p.s. or World i.t.a. as a Medium for Teaching English Speech and Reading.

5.1. P.s. is tied (in choice of symbols as well as in the dialect represented) with the Southern Bantu languages and with the South African dialect of English. It is not designed for teaching English either to speakersof other languages, or in any area outside South Africa.

5.1.1. Another feature of p.s. makes it inappropriate, even in South Africa, for teaching *reading.* Its use of symbols with sound values other than those most common in T.O. is likely to impede transfer to T.O.:

e.g. p.s. /aim/ represents not *aim* but *I'm*
/wait/ represents not *wait* but *white*
/look/ represents not look but *Luke*
/kud/ represents not *cud* but *could*
/haul/ represents not *haul* but *howl,* etc.

5.2. On the other hand, i.t.a. fails to provide *for foreigners* an unequivocal guide to pronunciation at that point where difficulty and misunderstanding most often occur, i.e. of the *vowel sounds* of English **[18]**. It must be emphasised that this criticism applies in the situation when i.t.a. is taught to *foreigners,* and especially when they are being taught by teachers whose own pronunciation is faulty. It implies no criticism of i.t.a. used as a medium for teaching *reading* to English-speaking children – nor necessarily when foreign children are taught by English-speaking teachers, provided that the children are surrounded by a population speaking good English.

5.3. Both p.s. and i.t.a. have been found to be very valuable in the fields for which they were designed; p.s. for teaching English *pronunciation* to Africans in South Africa; i.t.a. for teaching *reading* to English-speaking children in English speaking communities. An orthography combining features of both systems could well provide the advantages of both while eliminating many of the disadvantages of each.

5.4. Such an orthography should symbolise its vowel system in a simple yet comprehensive way, similar to that of p.s. It should also strive for a close similarity to traditional orthography like that of i.t.a. It should select its symbols, as i.t.a. does, in such a way as to increase the similarity of the learning medium to the final reading medium (i.e., T.O.). It should reject Lanham's principle that symbols and spelling should be chosen in the' light of the relationships between sound and symbol in the orthography of the home language of the pupils. If a child has eventually to learn that a certain symbol has a certain value in T.O., it surely increases the difficulty of transfer to give that symbol the value which it has in the orthography of the child's home language, only to have the child unlearn this value when transfering to T.O.

5.5. Lanham's insistence that a different orthography would be needed for every major language group to which English is taught, in order to counteract mother tongue interference, is surely a counsel of impossible perfection. The following suggestions for an orthography for teaching English *pronunciation and spelling* are put forth in the hope that the orthography be tried in various parts of the world, and that information derived from its use with students of different language

backgrounds be collected with the aim of devising *one* orthography which would serve for world wide use in place of the "eight, nine or ten" which Lanham now thinks is necessary.

6.0. Outline of a Compromise Orthography, Combining Features of both i.t.a. and p.s.

The following suggestions for an orthography are put forward to demonstrate that the aims of i.t.a. and p.s. are not incompatible. It is possible to combine the approach of the linguist who seeks to provide an exact guide to *pronunciation* with the approach which concentrates on easing the task of learning English *reading.* Both these aspects are essential in an initial teaching orthography used for teaching English as a second language or as a foreign language.

This orthography is based on one of the most widely recognized forms of English, i.e. R.P. The symbols of the proposed orthography will be distinguished here by slanted brackets and preceded by an asterisk: */that/.

6.1. *Representation of Consonants in the Compromise Orthography*
6.1.1. Those consonant syllables which are common to p.s. and i.t.a. will be retained.
6.1.2. */y/will be used (as in i.t.a.) with 2 values: */yes/ and */eny/.
6.1.3. Four of the consonant sounds which p.s. represents by digraphs or trigraphs i.e. /th, sh, zh, ng/ [19] and i.t.a. by single "complex character-shapes" i.e. *th, *ʃh *ʒ, *ŋ should be represented as they are in p.s: for three reasons, one financial, one theoretical, and one empirical.

Financial: By limiting the creation of extra symbols, the proposed orthography could, like p.s., be reproduced on standard typewriters. The importance of this factor was indicated in paragraph 1.4.
Theoretical: H. Lewin has shown (quoted by Downing *the i.t.a. reading experiment,* p. 29) that some variability in a training medium is an advantage when the final medium to be learned is a variable one. It is suggested that the "unalphabetic" use of the symbol */h/ (which also represents the initial consonant in *hand),* in these digraphs would provide an element of such variability.

Empirical: There has been no indication in the experiment held in Bantu Primary Schools that digraphs and trigraphs are a source of difficulty or confusion in learning P.S.

To check how often the above symbols would occur as special sequences representing one sound and how often as separate characters in normal sequence, the 3,000 word i.t.a. Word List has been checked through and it has been noted that, for example, altho *ʃh occurs in about 164 words, the letter sequence *sh does not occur. Examples of this sequence can, of course, be quoted but such sequences are obviously rare; and since they seem to occur only across morpheme boundaries, it is suggested that a hyphen be used in these cases, e.g. *mishap* */mis-hap/.

The *sequence* *th occurred in only one word (sweetheart).

6.1.4. The sound represented by p.s. /θ/ and i.t.a. *th should also be represented by a digraph */?h/. (An extra symbol is needed here as part of the digraph).

6.1.5. As in i.t.a., alternative ways of representing consonant sounds should be allowed, i.e., */c, z ,wh/ as alternative ways of representing the sounds otherwise represented by */k, z, w/ respectively, wherever c, *s, wh,* occur in T.O. (Note: the letter sequence *wh does not occur at all in the 3,000 words in the i.t.a. Word List.

6.1.6. The principle of allowing alternative ways of representing sounds could even be extended to allow for
a) */ç/ as an alternative symbol for the sound otherwise represented by /s/, wherever *c* occurs in T.O., e.g.*/ çent succçess/,
*/sç/ would be regarded as a double consonant, e.g. */ cresçent/.

b) */dj/ and */dg/ as alternative symbols for */j/, whenever *dj* and *dg* occur in T.O.
(Note: The sequence *dg does not occur in the 3,000 words of the i.t.a. Word list. As before, a word like *mudguard* could be written with a hyphen in the compromise orthography).

c) */ch/ and */tch/ as alternative symbols for the same sound. (*ch does not occur as a sequence in the Word List – this is of course i.t.a. *ch. In T.O., *ch* occurs with the value of i.t.a. *k in about 104 words, with the value of i.t.a. *k in 19 words, and with yet other values in three words).

d) It is also suggested that the single symbol */x/ be used to represent the *sequence* */ks/, wherever x occurs in T.O. (Note: In the T.O. versions of the 3,000 words in the Word List, x occurs 38 times with the value *ks, only 4 times with the value *gz).

e) Another possibility: */qu/ as an alternative to */kw/.

This extensive use of the principle of allowing alternative ways of representing one consonant sound, which i.t.a. uses only as in 6.1.5 above, is suggested for two reasons:

(a) to increase the similarity of the proposed script to T.O.;
(b) to increase the variability which Lewin found to be advantageous in a training medium.

6.2. *Representation of Vowels in the Compromise Orthography.*
6.2.1. Seven symbols representing the short stressed vowels
*/a, e, o/ as in both p.s. and i.t.a. for the vowel sounds in *tack, deck, dock.*
*/u/ to represent the vowel sound in *tuck* */tuck/. Since the letter *u* in T.O. occurs roughly three times more often with this sound value than with the value of *u* in *full.*
*/ʊ/ to represent the vowel in *took */tʊk/.* The symbol
*ω which i.t.a. uses for this sound is attractive. The symbol used here has one advantage over it; the same symbol can be used for the corresponding long vowel in *tool */tʊʊl/.*
* /i / i n *tin, did, candid,* */tin, did, candid/,
*/i / in *tick, dig, candid,* */tick, dig, candid/

6.2.2. The symbol */ə/ representing the low unstressed neutral vowel schwa:
*/ə/ in *about, before, injure,* */əbout, bəfɔr, injə/.
The high unstressed neutral vowel schwi could possibly be represented by */i/, e.g. in *respect, captain, orange,* */respect, captin, orinj/.

However, the question arises whether it is indeed necessary for foreigners learning English to distinguish at all between the two weak vowels. This is an extremely subtle difference. Is the pronunciation of *orange* indeed */orinj/, or is it */orənj/? And would it matter if a foreigner, speaking otherwise intelligible English, were to say */captən/ instead of */captin/ or */rəspect/ instead of */rispect/?

In a very few words, the difference between schwa and schwi is important, e.g. *allusion, illusion.*

To simplify both learning and the problem of symbolising stress, it is suggested that the compromise orthography symbolise all neutral vowels by */ə/. This symbol would indicate *both low*

neutral vowel quality and weak stress. This identification of weak stress with low neutral vowel quality would have the corollary that where it is necessary, to prevent misunderstanding to indicate the "high" weak vowel, this would be indicated by the symbol */i/, and pronounced with *secondary* instead of weak stress. This is a very minor departure from native English pronunciation, and not a great price to pay for a considerable simplification in both learning and symbolising English pronunciation.

6.2.3. Two single symbols representing long vowels:
*/a/ in ask, father (as in i.t.a.), */*a*sk, fathə/.
*/ɔ/ in tall, talk, */tɔll, tɔk/.

6.2.4. A symbol similar to i.t.a. r would be used in preference to p.s. /h/ to indicate length:
*/arl in *bird, her, burn, world,* */bard, har, barn, world/ The symbol */r/ could also be used following */*a*/ and */ɔ/, when in t.o. *r* occurs.
*/ar/ in tar, */tar/, i.e. */ar/ and */a/ would be alternative spellings for the *same sound.*
*/ɔr/ in tore, */tɔr/, i.e. */ɔr/ and */ɔ/ would also be alternative spellings for the same *sound.* A further possibility would be */ɔw/ as a third way of symbolising this last sound, e.g. lɔw, *dɔwn,* */lɔw/, */dɔwn/.

6.2.5. Three double symbols representing long vowels (of which the first two are postulated by p.s.),
a) Long */ïi/ as in *teak,* */tïïk/,
b) Long */ʊʊ/ as in *too,* */tʊʊ/,
c) Long */aa/ as in */baad/.

Experience in attempting to teach the difference between */e/ and */a/ in Bantu Primary schools has led to the conclusion that greater success would be achieved if the orthography took cognisance of the fact that whereas the difference between *bet* and *bat* is a difference only of quality, the difference between *bed* and *bad* is one of length as well as of quality, */bed, baad/. (Recognition of a difference between */a/ and */aa/ increases to 22 the total number of vowel sounds symbolised in this orthography: 21 stressed and 1 unstressed.)

6.2.6. digraphs representing diphthongs:
Glide to */i/. *əi, ɔi, ai/, as in *tail*, **[20]** *toil, tile,* */təil, tɔil, tail/. (Possible alternatives here are: */əy, oy, ay/ where *y* occurs in T.O., e.g. *bay, boy, buy,* */bəy, bɔy, bay/ **[21]**.
Glide to */ʊ/, as in: *toe, how*, */təʊ, haʊ/.
Glide to */ə/, as in: *deer*, *dare, tour*, */diə, deə, tʊə/.

6.2.7. The above proposals are summarised in the following table, which also illustrates the vowel *system* as analysed in this orthography. This analysis is similar to that of p.s. but more flexible in that it is not tied to one dialect of English, though it is broadly based on British Received Pronunciation. The 21 stressed vowel sounds distinguished by this orthography are exemplified by the following words:
tin, deer, turn, tail, toe, tuck, tar, tie, town, tock
*/tin, diə, tərn, təil, təʊ, tuck, tar, tai, taʊn, tock

tore, toy, took, too, tour, tick, teak, bat, bad, deck, dare
*/tɔr, toy, tʊk, tʊʊ, tʊn, tick, tïïk, bat, baad, deck, deə/

Table 2. Vowel System in Compromise Orthography.

Simple Short vowels	Corresponding long vowels	Glide to */i/	Glide to */ʊ/	Glide to */ə/
*/i/ *tin*				*/iə/ *deer*
	*/iʊ/ *turn*	/əi/ *tail*	*/əʊ/ *toe*	
*/u/ *tuck*				
	*/ar/ *tar*	*/ai/ *tie*	*/aʊ/ *town*	
*/o/ *tock*				
	*/ɔr/ *tore*	*/ɔ/ *toy*		*/ʊə/ *tour*
*/ʊ/ *took*	*/ʊʊ/ *too*			
*/ĭ/ *tick*	*/ĭĭ/ *teak*			
*/a/ *bat*	*/aa/ *bad*			
*/e/ *deck*				*/eə/ *dare*

6.2.8. In the pairing of short: long vowels, which is an aspect of *system* relevant to teaching English as a second language, these proposals (by the creation of the two symbols */a/ and */o/) avoid tying the orthography to S.A.E.

6.3. *Representation of Stress in the* Compromise *Orthography.*
Three degrees of stress should be represented: strong, secondary and weak stress. If, as has been suggested above, the symbol */ə/ is used to represent simultaneously weak stress and neutral vowel quality, it is necessary only to devise a convention which indicates the difference between the syllable which bears primary and that which bears secondary stress.

It is suggested that as in World i.t.a., the syllable which bears secondary stress be unmarked and only the syllable bearing strongest stress be indicated.

The importance of using in a teaching orthography only features which can be produced on standard typewriters has been emphasised above. Possible ways of indicating primary stress are thus limited to the use of a stress symbol or accent or to underlining. Underlining would lead to confusion when typewritten scripts are prepared; an accent on the stressed syllable thus remains the only practical solution: e.g.

recognise	*/récəgnɑis/
arithmetic	*/əríthmətic/
arithmetical	*/arithméticəl/
illusion	*/illʊʊ'zhən/
allusion	*/əllʊ'ʊzhən/

6.4. *Use of the proposed Orthography to represent American speech.*
A feature of i.t.a. which has not yet been mentioned, is the way in which it deals with dialectal differences of pronunciation in words like *after, ask, bath, grass.* In America and in parts of Britain, these words are pronounced with the vowel *a as in *and,* whereas in R.P. they are pronounced with the vowel *ɑ as in *father.* In these words i.t.a. uses an additional character *à which is pronounced either *a or *ɑ depending on the variety of English spoken by the pupil.

There are however, other differences of pronunciation between American and British English, e.g. in words like *clerk, foreign, tomato*.

Alternative *spellings* for all the above words are possible in the orthography proposed here:

	British	American
ask	*/ask/	*/ask/
clerk	*/clɑrk/	*/clack/
foreign	*/forən/	*/fɔrən/
tomato	*/təmɑtəʊ/	*/təməitoʊ/

The spelling used in any particular script or publication would depend on whether British or American speech is being taught. When first teaching English reading to foreign students, they would of course be exposed only to one or the other spelling. Duplication of all materials in this orthography would however be unnecessary since once a child is reading fluently, there could be no harm in allowing him to read literature in the alternative spelling. Indeed it would be a valuable introduction to the two chief types of pronunciation which he will meet in real life. Children taught American pronunciation would, if informed that British pronunciation differs in certain words, have no difficulty in reading the "British" spelling with pronunciation approximating the "British" version of those few words which differ in the two forms, and vice versa when children taught British pronunciation read the "American" spelling. The differences in spelling would not be numerous, the majority of words would be identical in the 15 two versions.

The dialect of American represented should be (as Pitman has recommended for the teaching of British English) "one of the most widely used forms or... a form that is a common denominator of the most acceptable forms." [22] All dictionaries or word lists should give both British and American spellings.

SUMMARY.

For the purpose of teaching English as a foreign or a second language, World i.t.a. does not provide a sufficiently reliable guide to pronunciation. "Pronunciation spelling" (p.s.), though it does give a completely reliable guide to South African English, is limited in usefulness by being tied to this one dialect, and by the fact that it gives little attention to the problems of transferring to traditional orthography after training in p.s.

It is therefore recommended that World i.t.a. and p.s. be merged in one compromise orthography which would be suitable for teaching both pronunciation and reading. An outline for such an orthography is given.

[1] At a seminar on English teaching held as part of the Congress on English as Communication at the Univ. of Witwatersrand in July, 1966.
[2] Miss Marion Loring, in a letter to *Teacher Education,* vol 6, No. 3, 1966.
[3] Sir James Pitman, K.B.E., *The Assault on the Conventional Alphabets and Spelling,* (Pitman Press, Bath, Eng. 1964) p.13.

[4] L.W. Lanham, `Teaching English Pronunciation in So. Africa' *Language. Learning,* Vol XII, Nos. 3 & 4; p. 155, 1963.

[5] M.S. of an intended publication by Sir James Pitman, Chapter 15.

[6] M.S. of an intended publication by Sir James Pitman, chp. 15

[7] To avoid using the technical term "phoneme", the phrases "Consonant sound" and "vowel sound" are used throughout this article. The latter is used to include diphthongs.

[8]. It may seem that this convention invalidates the claim that p.s. has a strictly one-to-one relationship between sound and symbol. In practice /th/ is taught as one symbol having no relation to either /t/ or /h/.

[9] The choice of a trigraph was made here since *tsh* occurs in Zulu with this sound value; and also, since some Bantu speakers confuse /sh/ and /tsh/, to emphasise that /tsh/=/t/+/sh/.

[10] J. Mountford, Short notes for reference on i.t.a. transliteration: Reading Research Document No. 3 (Univ. of London, Institute of Education, 1964), p. 5.

[11] Neither p.s. nor British i.t.a. recognises a difference in the pronunciation of the following pairs of words: which, witch; wheel, weal; whether, weather; why, wye; whoa, woe.

[12] The analysis used here is similar in concept to the "overall pattern" of Trager and Smith in *An Outline of English Structure*, (Washington, 1956).

[13] The description of i.t.a. in this paper is based on the Reading Research Document #3, *Short Notes for Reference on i.t.a.* Transliteration by John Mountford, pub. by the Univ. of London Inst. for Education, in which i.t.a. "is related to the pronunciation properly known as R.P."

[14] In advanced R.P. (particularly with the formal style of speech) the pronunciation of *i* may be identical in (b) and (c). The teaching of this value for *i* in words like those in (c) should be avoided at all costs when teaching English to foreigners. This pronunciation of *i* is the source of the confusion by so many foreign speakers of words like *ship/sheep, dip/deep,* etc.

[15] In Scottish English and Mid-Western American the *r is always pronounced.

[16] Sir James Pitman, M.S. of a proposed publication on i.t.a. chapter 15.

[17] Op. cit.

[18]. Th- f-ct th-t -ngl-sh sp--k-ng ch-ldr-n c-n l--rn t- r--d w-th --t d-ff-c-lty – scr-pt wh-ch m-sr-pr-s-nts v-w-ls -s n-t s-rpr-s-ng c-ns-d-r-ng th- w-11 kn-wn --s- w-th which pt-nt-d m-tt-r -n wh-ch v-w-ls -r- n-t r-pr-s-nt-d c-n b- r--d by fl--nt -ngl-sh sp-k-rs.

[19] The choice of */ng/ may be unwise because of the fact that *nge* occurs frequently in T.O. with the value */nj/ in *change, danger,* etc.

[20] This vowel sound is nearer */ei/ in "refained" British speech and is usually so symbolised in phonemic notation. */əi/ is chosen here for two reasons: it is nearer to unaffected R.P. speech and it avoids identification with the letter sequence *ei* which occurs in T.O. with completely different sound values as in: *seize, weight, heir, height, heifer, forfeit*.

Note that this orthography does not dictate the phonetic value of its symbols. It only says that the beginning of the vowel sound in *tail* */təil/ is the same as the beginning of the vowel sound in *toe* */təʊl/ and that this is the same as the unstressed final vowel sound in tailor, */təilə/.

The phonetic value of */ə/ is approximately [ ] in R.P. and approximately [ə] in some dialects of American English and in S. A. E.

(If it is not apparent that the initial vowel sounds in *tail* and *toe* are the same, it should be remembered that the articulation of the second vowel in each diphthong influences that of the first and that this accounts for the slight difference.)

[21] The similarity in appearance of the symbol */*ɑ*-/ to the italic and longhand versions of the letter *a* could lead to confusion. A better "shape" for this symbol might be something like */D/.

[22] Sir James Pitman, M.S. of a proposed publication on i.t.a. Ch. 15

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5. Those Repeated Objections to Spelling Reform, by David Cowell.

*Blanton, Tucson, Arizona.

Every person who has been actively working to reform the spelling of the English language has run into people who are opposed to reform. There is no problem in this, for one must meet and talk with others in order to change their minds.

The problem is that the reformer is often unprepared for some of the objections he must face-many of which the objector would laugh down if they were applied to reforms he would want. The reformer has much constructive evidence, but little evidence for destroying arguments against reform.

There are about six categories that objections might be separated into:
Literature would be destroyed,
Forms would be confused,
Etymology would be obscured,
Reform is esthetically undesirable, and
Reform would be troublesome.

Literature would be destroyed
Many intelligent people believe that, by implementing a more rational spelling, we would make it more difficult for the future generations to read today's literature.

This may be disproven by showing that, ever since the 1940's, children have been taught to read English traditional orthography (T.O.) with phonemic initial teaching mediums-some of which were not well suited for such a purpose.

Some of the mediums did not take advantage of the fact that there are fairly regular spellings of some sounds for instance, the voiced th-sound is spelt in only two ways one of which is very uncommon – the letters *th* and *y* (as in the English shop signs – ye). Even tho there is a very consistent spelling for this sound, the alphabets used as i.t.m.'s during the last century often used a digraph: dh, to show this sound, being more concerned with phonetic discrimination than compatibility with T.O.

Yet the overwhelming majority of educators who came into contact with these insufficiently-T. O.-coordinated mediums expressed a great deal of enthusiasm – stating that children could learn to read in T.O. in less time than they would have if they started with books in our traditional spelling.

A modified alphabet devised by Dr. Edwin Leigh was well praised by the teachers in St. Louis who used it, claiming that children learned to read in half the time it took with T.O. as the initial teaching medium. According to a Bureau of Education circular (No. 8, 1893), "Sumwhat similar results may be obtaind by using any fonetic alfabet with beginners and passing from it to common reading." This has also been well documented by the results of experimentation with Sir James Pitman's i.t.a., which have been shown previously in this magazine.

It has been stated, and there is little reason to believe otherwise, that there would be less a problem reading T.O., after learning a rational spelling, than there is now for a person to read the writings of authors, as recent as Spencer, in the original editions.

Another objection that falls into this category is the objection that poetry would be destroyed, because the subtle differences in meaning between words would not be shown on the page.

"A poem," said Professor C. H. Page, "certainly loses nothing in being well read or spoken. Only then can it attain its real existence as poetry. Yet when it is read or spoken, what becomes of the spelling and of the sentiment which is alleged to be more or less dependent upon the spelling?" Who can disagree with this?

Poetry was, as was all other literature, first spoken. When we wish to show a double meaning (a pun perhaps) we usually emphasize that word in speech. Why not use another type font to show the emphasis in writing, instead of falling back on the use of different spellings?

Forms would be confused.
This brings us to the argument that forms of words are sacred and that changing them would put us into a terrible chaos, resembling the state of speech after the Tower of Babel incident.

First, the objector states, we would not be able to distinguish words in writing which we now distinguish by spelling. Admittedly, this is true, as is shown with the words: *by, buy, bye*. But these words are not distinguished in speech, and there we run into little, if any, problem in comprehension.

A counter to the argument that words should be distinguished in print is two-fold.

On the one hand, there are words which have many meanings, and which are written the same way – with little confusion of meanings. Take, for instance, the word: box. In my desk dictionary there are 26 definitions for the word, and 27 derivative words and phrases (having a total of 36 meanings). Would the objector ask that we change the spelling of this sequence of sounds, to show that the particular sequence has different meanings? For instance, would he want us to spell the English holiday, Boxing Day as Boxing Day, and the day of a prize fight as Bhouxhuing Day (B*h* ang, lo*u*gh, ex*h*ibition, b*ui*lding, thi*ng*), thus showing that Boxing Day is not a day when Englishmen have street brawls?

The objector has even a more difficult case in trying to prove that *tear* (teer, taer) should be spelt the way it is, considering that children run into sentences like "The paper cup had a tear in it," which are quite ambiguous. *Primer* means a different thing to a first grade teacher than to a painter. *Read* must await the context of the rest of the sentence before one can know how to pronounce it.

The second argument of the objector is that there would be a multitude of forms if we employed a sound spelling system, since we all have slight differences in pronunciation of certain words.
This makes few holes in the argument for reform, since most of the reform systems set forth are not based on strict *phonetic* transcription, but *diaphonic* transcription, i.e., a transcription showing *diaphones,* which might be expressed as follows: the Southern mountaineer and the person who has lived in Brooklyn for all his life probably do not pronounce the word *I* the same way, but since the sounds they use get across the same idea, and since they are in free variation, they may be considered the same, and are termed a diaphone.

The Yorkshireman will possibly pronounce (IPA) /ri:t ruəd/ for T.O. "right road," and the author would say something like /rəit roʊd/for the same – but both would write "riet roed" in one system of reform, since the sounds in each representation would be members of the same diaphone. Generally, both would use the standard literary dialect of their areas when they wrote, so there would be little

difference in forms. Incidentally, this is rather an extreme example, since the Yorkshire dialect is almost a language in itself. The Received Standard pronunciation of British English is, except for several conventions such as dropping their *r*'s, close to the American literary dialect, diaphonically speaking. There would be very few confusing forms, if a diaphonic notation were to be adopted, and these would be comparable to the problems like centre (center), honour (honor) and others.

Etymology would be obscured
Another argument employed by the objector is that which states that etymologies would be obscured.

There are three answers to this type of objection.

Assuming that the responsibility of spelling is the showing of derivations of the words represented, in order to be consistent, we should determine exactly which year we should take as our basis, so that we may use the most predominant spelling as an etymological basis for spelling.

What year shall we chose? Should we say that the spelling of the year 1500 A.D. is our etymological basis? If so, we should spell the verb now written *ache* as *ake*, which was then the prevailing spelling, But it may be better not to chose this year, since it doesn't tell us much about our Anglo-Saxon, Latin, or Greek words.

Let's go back to the original form of these words. Should we write ðæt mann is humilis" for "That man is humble?"

Or should we go back as far as we can and write "To men es ghethem," a surely absurd spelling.

Very few people spend their time thinking about word derivations, to be liberal, perhaps one per cent. Should we sacrifice reason to aid a small portion of the people (who don't really need the help), and hurt the 99%? As will be shown below, our spelling does not always show accurate etymology, an etymological dictionary is by far a better guide to word origins.

The objector would do well to remember the words of Sir James Murray, one of the editors of the New *English Dictionary* "My dictionary experience has already shown me that the ordinary appeals to etymology against spelling reform utterly break down upon examination. The etymological information supposed to be enshrined in the current spelling is sapped at its very foundation by the fact that it is, in sober fact, oftener wrong than right, that it is oftener the fancies of pedants or sciolists of the Renaissance, or monkish etymologers of still earlier times, that are thus preserved, than the truth which alone is ἑτυμολογία.

Several examples of the non-etymologic spellings are: *debt* (was spelt *dette),* ghost (was spelt *goste*), *could* (was spelt *coud),* and *perfect* (was spelt and pronounced without *c*, spelt *perfit*).

Reform is exthetically undesirable.
There are several arguments based upon "esthetic" judgment.

One of the objections is based upon the assumption that a reformed spelling looks ugly. This is a matter of opinion. The reason this objection is made is that we are creatures of habit who do not like change, and will not adapt unless we must.

The objector will have to agree, assuming that beauty of design is to be a criterion for choice of letters, that every word should be designed with utmost care, so that the form of spelling should not

offend anyone. Since tastes vary and are constantly changing, an esthetic spelling would be an invitation to chaos-since what is beautiful to one person may be revolting to another.

The strangeness of a system of spelling or of an alphabet is not ugliness; the Russian, Hebrew, Armenian, and Arabic alphabets have their beauties to their users – however strange the alphabets may seem to us. This may also be disproven by asking the objector the question, "Which is the more beautiful, a garden grown wild with weeds and anything nature provides, or a well-tended formal garden?" To extend the metaphor, "The weedpatch does not have pathways running thru it for people to examine it, so people consequently run into thistles and briars when examining. On the other hand, a formal garden would have paths to help the viewer get a better picture of its beauty."

Another of the objections in this category is the idea that reformed spelling looks illiterate.

Why does it look illiterate? Could it be that the illiterate expects something logical, and thus writes the way he does – and that his way of writing, having some degree of sound-to-letter correspondence, is more like reformed spelling?

If we were to adopt a better spelling, it would make learning to read so easy that there would soon be very few illiterates. Is it not worth more to changes our present spelling system to the advantage of the illiterate, thus giving him the opportunity to become literate, than it is to keep about a quarter of the English-speaking adults in a state of functional illiteracy?

It should be noted that at one time the Russians had a spelling system that employed four unnecessary letters (a hard and a soft sign) to indicate a "hard" (non-palatalized) pronunciation of the previous consonant – even tho such a pronunciation would have been natural, since all consonants were hard unless indicated by the "soft" sign or certain other letters to be "soft" (i.e., palatalized). This is the alphabet that Dostoevsky, Pushkin and Chekhov wrote in. After the Russian Revolution, the four letters were removed from the alphabet and the hard sign was only kept where it would have some good use, thus making Russian, by estimate of Dr. Ralph D. Owen, retired Professor of Education at Temple Univ., 90% phonetic. But still, even tho the spelling might look illiterate to Pushkin, there are since then many good Russian writers, Sholokhov, Pasternak, and Yevtushenko, among others, who took the changes in their stride. At the same time, illiteracy fell from 60% of the adult population to a very low percentage.

Another objection, which is plainly prejudice, is the saying, "I don't like it." This position cannot be answered in a way to persuade a person to change his mind. By his own admission, he is impervious to reason.

You can answer him by telling him that, since he reserves the right to spell the way he wishes, he should be good enough to allow other people the right to spell as they please, without giving any judgement to their character, wit, or sanity.

Reform would be an attack on the language.
There are probably a few objectors left who would say that a reformation of spelling would be an attack on the language. This is plainly untrue.

Language can exist without spelling, since language is speech and since spelling is based upon speech. Speech is not based on spelling, except in the practice of those who wish to appear learned-but aren't. A language need not be written to be used-for example, many of the Amerind languages were not put into writing until quite recently, but they were used by the speakers for transacting business with fur-traders and among themselves.

If anything, reform would prove to be an improvement on the English language, tending to stabilize pronunciation instead of undermining it by not representing it.

What is proposed for spelling is the same thing which is done with clothes. We normally do not wear uncomfortable parkas in the summer, nor do we wear bathing suits in the winter. Even tho we change our clothes, we do not change our character.

Reform would be troublesome.
The last category to be considered in this article is that of those objections that reformation would be troublesome.

There are two types of argument under this heading, the first of which usually runs something like "But I've learnt to spell, why should I change my spelling habits?

Most of the practical reform schemes which have been proposed are easily read, even by people who have no training in the system read. Since the objector could read the reformed spelling, and since, as was shown in the reply to the objection that literature would be destroyed, T.O. could be read without too much difficulty by a person who knows reformed spelling, so there would be no real problem in communication in either direction. The person who either cannot or will not change his spelling will not need to, altho he may find it convenient to do so.

The second of these arguments is the claim that such a reform would be difficult to bring about. Benjamin Franklin, in a letter to Miss Mary Stevenson in 1767, wrote:

"The objection you make to rectifying our alphabet, 'that it will be attended with inconveniences and difficulties,' is a natural one, for it always occurs when a reformation is proposed, whether in religion, government, or law, even down to roads and wheel carriages.

"The true question, then, is not whether there will be no difficulties, but whether the difficulties may not be surmounted, and whether the conveniences will not, on the whole, be greater than the inconveniences."

There are many expansions to be made to this argument, e.g., the efficiency of files would be undermined, setting of type (hot or cold) would be made more difficult, transition would baffle many people, and so forth and so on.

Let us look to other countries to see if these objections to spelling reform are really valid.

In 1928, the Turkish Republic adopted a Romanic alphabet, which of course differed greatly from the somewhat unphonetic alphabet of Arabic characters, which was used prior to that time. In spite of the great difference between the two alphabets, something which is not present in most of the suggested, reform alphabets for English, the changeover was effected in two and one half years.

In this short time, printing establishments changed over, people became accustomed to seeing signs in the new alphabet, and, most important, people gained the opportunity to become literate. The literacy rate rose from 9% in 1925 to 35% in 1940.

The example of the Turkish reform may be used against most objections to practicality of a change of alphabetic habits in any way – it proves that the change may be done, if it has the backing of the country's leader.

There have been several plans suggested for bringing about the reform of English spelling. Basically, it appears reformers are agreed that a quick change-over must be effected in order to reduce the time in which there would be two spelling systems extensively used.

Also, reformers are agreed that any proposed revision must be well publicized and prepared in advance-newspapers, magazines and other media informing the people of the changes and how they will be effected. Only then, at a certain predetermined time, may a complete changeover to the rational spelling of our language be implemented.

By usage of such a plan as this, the inconveniences involved in a reform would be greatly reduced. The benefits of reform are well-known among reformers, and should be more widely publicized in order that the people would be able to determine whether the inconveniences would be offset by the conveniences. Of especial importance is the great help to future generations of children-those who would benefit the most have no voice in the matter.

In the preceeding paragraphs, the 11 arguments made against reform have been shown to be based upon either misinformation or prejudice. There are many variations on these arguments, but the variations may be shown, by these refutations, to be inconsistent with logical and objective thinking.

The reformer who remembers that misinformation and prejudice are the two things he must fight against, and who plans his fight against them, can do a great deal of good for the cause of reform – and against illiteracy, both among little children and among foreigners needing to learn English.

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Studium levitas

As you probably know, some of the Y.M.C.A. Indian Guides tribes study indian handicrafts, some play games and go on field trips, but our tribe has been studying American history. Let us show you what we have learned:

This was given as a skit (accompanied by appropriate gestures) at the campout on Jan. 21, 1967 at Camp Arbolata, Calif.

"George Washing machine crosst the Dela where river with the decoration of Indepants in one hand and the stachoo of Liberachy in the other."

by Chris Tune and Jack Sherin

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[Spelling Progress Bulletin Fall 1967 pp1,21 in the printed version]
[i.t.a. r should have an approach stroke.]

6. The Initial Teaching Alphabet in Reading Instruction, by Albert J. Mazurkiewicz, Ph.D.

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This article is a condensation of the introduction to the final report on the Lehigh Univ. Initial Teaching Alphabet Evaluation-Demonstration Project. The complete report should be read by every person interested in a conscientiously well-written report on the results of this important i.t.a. project.

Altho elementary school graduates are supposed to have at least a fifth-grade reading ability, reports indicate that one-third of the seventh grade population is below this level.

Studies have indicated that the greatest number of poor readers is found in the first grade, but that only a slightly smaller number is found in the second grade; 99% of first-grade failures, 90% of second-grade failures, and 70% of third-grade failures are due to poor reading ability.

Even when reading instruction is continued in junior high school on a mandated basis and in the high school on a voluntary basis, data suggest that-while improvement should have been expected-general reading achievement seems to have deteriorated a bit.

Untold numbers of graduates of accredited high schools score below the tenth-grade reading level on national norms when they enter college.

The National Council of Teachers of English estimates that four million elementary school pupils have reading disabilities. Other reports indicate that reading is a handicap for 25% to 35% of all high school students and that our nation has a minimum of eight million adult functional illiterates. We are required to introduce remedial reading instruction in elementary school, beginning in the second grade, and to continue it through high school and college and university.

What appears to be wrong? Our methods have been of proven excellence for we *do* develop a high degree of reading skill in the population. While no single factor can be isolated which limits learning, current studies show the *spelling of our language to be a significant factor.*

Depending on which source is accepted as authoritative (because there's little agreement among linguists, phoneticians, or lexicographers), the English language has 35 to 47 phonemes or sounds. The *American College Dictionary* shows that the 44 phonemes of English are represented by 251 spellings. This makes English about 11% phonetic. This fact appears to be a major factor in the reading difficulties noted.

It's recognized that there are many irregularities in the relationship between sound and symbol in English. Almost every phonic rule that children can be taught, or led to discover, has exceptions. This makes the teaching and learning of English phonics considerably more difficult than it would be if each letter represented just one sound, as is true or nearly true of several European languages.

In looking at the reading process, we seem to have been looking too long at *comprehension* as the basis of a definition of reading English; however, comprehension is primarily the *goal* of the reading activity. Meaning is less important as a clue to word recognition in other language systems; in English, comprehension turns out to be one of the major clues to word recognition. In effect, the

definition of reading under which we've operated has focused on *the purpose of reading* rather than on its nature. We quite naturally stressed meaning, which is the goal of reading, at the expense of the process.

The variety of material available for reading instruction indicates the numerous attempts to solve the difficulties children ordinarily have in achieving reading skill in the first grade. Each of these programs can be evaluated as an attempt to meet the motivation with which the child enters school: to learn to read and write. Altho numerous shortcomings in the timing of programs as embodied in materials have been noted, it has been observed that when at last the child begins to be exposed to learning, *the inconsistencies in spelling of the English language* for the average child produces a small element of daily failure which cumulatively undermines the child's self-confidence. The result by the end of the first grade year, ego-satisfaction repeatedly denied, is that the child's self-concept, his ego-strength, is damaged and a general *negative attitude toward school, learning, and reading in particular,* has been developed.

One of the basic problems connected with learning to read in traditional orthography (t.o.) is suggested here and has been related to the theory which states that, when stimuli are the same but responses different, retroactive inhibition is usually obtained. Thus, it has been seen that if the child is first taught the letter æ, then a bit later that the same symbol represents *a* (calm), then *a* (apple), etc., each subsequent learning *interferes with the previous learning* to some extent and *confusion* in responses to the stimulus becomes evident.

Linguistic solutions recently developed have attempted to simplify beginning reading materials *by using regularly spelled words* to avoid the orthographic complexity of English. Such linguistic solutions have not received much recognition because they seem to offer solutions which are no better than those provided by the basal reader insofar as the earliest materials are concerned: story content devoid of interest and the rudiments of the program lacking in significance for the beginner. The attempt to simplify phonics toward the end of developing word recognition skill as early in the first grade as possible has been stymied largely by the complexity of the spellings of English. Linguistic solutions as suggested by Godfrey Dewey in the United States and others in England in terms of simplifying the alphabet in prior years achieved little recognition in that a degree of spelling reform was suggested in the proposals.

Sir James Pitman's more recent proposal suggested that the value of a simple and reliable alphabet lies only in its appropriateness for learning to read and offered a design of an interim teaching alphabet *to be used only* until the pupil is ready to transfer to conventional orthography. Since the Initial Teaching Alphabet (i.t.a.) as an orthography approximates traditional orthography while being highly consistent, he felt it could, serve as an introduction to the complex orthography normally used in writing the English language.

Wide-scale studies of the effect of the change in the orthography that a child sees and uses in reading achievement produced significant results early in the experimentation conducted in England. Results which were available from comparable populations suggested that t.o. was a significant source of difficulty in beginning reading, that children could learn to read more rapidly and with less observable frustration using the i.t.a. form of simplification, and that reading achievement post-transition was significantly better than that achieved by a comparable population using comparable traditional alphabet materials.

Thus, the use of a one-to-one grapheme-phoneme rotational system such as i.t.a., as inferred from the British reports, appears to get at the heart of the difficulty a child has in learning to read and eliminates the factor of retroactive inhibition in early learning.

When a phonemic alphabet (or an alphabet which more nearly provides for a one-to-one sound relationship) is used, an operational definition of the reading process makes it a decoding process; writing can be considered to be an encoding process. These are opposite faces of the same coin and in a phonemic alphabetic structure reading and writing could be, and indeed *should* be, taught simultaneously. The usual clues used when teaching reading from a traditional point of view (language rhythm clues, picture clues, configurational clues, structural analysis clues, meaning clues, etc.), in such a system would be of secondary significance, for the symbol itself becomes the *most reliable clue for word recognition.*

Before the work with i.t.a. began, it was postulated that if English were regularly spelled, then the normal curve of learning (which we have seen exists in virtually every facet of the curriculum as a reflection of the normal distribution of learning potential) would undoubtedly also exist in that aspect of reading called word recognition. Therefore, one of the purposes of the evaluation of i.t.a. which was undertaken with Bethlehem children was to determine if this theory would in fact be substantiated. Table 1 shows that by the ninth month of instruction in i.t.a. the normal learning curve in i.t.a. is indeed demonstrable and that it contrasts markedly with the skewed distribution of an equivalent group working in the traditional alphabet. We might, therefore, conclude at this early point that if English were regularly spelled or *more* regularly spelled (not necessarily perfectly encoded) then learning to read and write would be essentially a simple process, that the mean of word recognition ability for a normal population might very well be at a fifth grade or fifth reader level by the end of the first grade, and that it would be a simple process to isolate those children who are having significant learning-not necessarily *reading* – difficulties, problems of learning related to intellectual potential, emotional or neurological disturbances, etc.

If such a regular English orthography existed, we might conjecture that the amount of reading disability and the variety of significant reading handicaps existing in the general English-speaking population could be dramatically reduced.

Since few, if any, educational leaders see a complete reform of our orthography as possible in the forseeable future, we can then ask whether we should keep trying for a simplified orthography if a temporary i.t.a., such as Pitman has constructed, can be used successfully to introduce the child to the complex world of English orthography. Thus, the design of i.t.a. is *not* a design for a spelling reform; rather, the Initial Teaching Alphabet is just what its name implies. In this context, it seems to be the most serviceable pattern that up to now has proven workable in introducing the child to the reading and writing process: i.t.a.'s design was intended to encourage early reading as much as possible on a frustration-free basis. When a child develops efficient reading skill, he makes an effective transition from i.t.a. to the traditional orthography. This usually occurs in the first grade.

An examination of i.t.a.'s use shows it to epitomize a psychologically valid principle which we follow in other areas of life: that learning proceeds from the simple to the complex. It parallels our treatment of another familiar area of the curriculum: handwriting. In our present writing system we go from manuscript to cursive, and we demand a transition which seems to be more difficult for a normal child in a traditional alphabet than the transition in reading which moves from i.t.a. to t.o.

Related Background.
The Initial Teaching Alphabet by Sir James Pitman as described to the Royal Society of Arts in 1960 (at that time described as the Augmented Roman Alphabet) was a 43 character notational system. He described the alphabet as follows:

> "(i) it is wholly lower-case; (ii) all but two of the Roman alphabet characters have been retained; (iii) there are 15 augmentations, which are linked manually and auditorially to T.O. *(traditional orthography)*.... In all there are retained 24 Roman lower-case characters, and there are 19 augmentations.
>
> Lower-case characters have been chosen because they are those with which the child will be most frequently confronted in books; and because the presence of ascenders and descenders evidence each printed word with a more discriminating characterization and makes them more legible than would capitals."

14 of the 19 augmentations are "digraphic" (e.g. æ, e) Those of the remaining five augmentations are similar to familiar forms in cursive writing and two are unusual forms. The 34th character *r*, was added by the linguistic committee reviewing the first year of research. Pitman's i.t.a. as described by Downing appears to make a direct attack on those two features of the standard alphabet which appear to be the root of failure in learning to read the Phonic way:

(1) i.t.a. has enough characters to provide one printed symbol for each of the phonemes of English.
(2) Each character in this alphabet carries only one sound value for phonic word-building.

The fulfillment of the aims of look-say teaching can be achieved because:
(1) There is no disturbance of the visual image thru the presentation of alternate patterns.
(2) Every possibility for repetition of the look-say pattern of the word is utilized because there is no competition between alternative patterns.

Mazurkiewicz qualified this statement and noted that Pitman's aim of providing a simple systematic medium for beginning readers *without permanent spelling reform* called for a compromise in his design of i.t.a., a compromise between, on the one hand, the need for simplification and consistency for the beginning reading code and on the other hand the need to make i.t.a. compatible with conventional orthography so that transition from i.t.a. to standard print should be less traumatic for children when they reach the transfer stage. For example, *c* and *k* have both been kept to represent the same single phoneme in order to reduce the number of words whose spellings, and hence visual clues, have to be changed at this transfer stage. Similarly, double letters are retained to help preserve the overall patterns of words, e.g. *rabbit, letter.*

The alphabet, moreover, is redundant and, in the sense of correspondence of sound to symbol, is 91 to 95%, phonetic. Since several letters correspond to the same sound values, a degree of ambiguity is reflected in the alphabet from the beginner's viewpoint. As described by Mazarkiewicz:

> Further ambiguities result from the use of y as both consonant and vowel, the rules of spelling, the need to choose alternatives in word forms for transitional values, and conventions in spelling words such as *been,* and words ending in *age.* The resultant orthography is imperfect in a phonetic sense. However, the reduction of ambiguity in sound-symbol correspondence is the major factor which accounts for the ease of development of beginning reading and writing, while its imperfections are in agreement with research which describe the need for establishing for the learner a readiness to accept the inconsistencies of the traditional alphabet.

Research in the use of a simplified spelling in reading instruction, however, can be found as early as 1852. An extensive experiment in Waltham, Mass. inagurated by Dr. Thomas Hill, used Isaac Pitman's Fonotypy with "marked results." William T. Harris sponsored investigations in the St. Louis schools as early as 1867 using a system devised by Dr. Edwin Leigh [1] and reported that

from 18 to 24 months could be saved in learning to read through a systematic spelling. While Maurice Harrison [2] details a variety of experiments in the early 20th century, all of which report improved reading skill, little attention was paid to this research by reading experts as attested to by the lack of reference to such work in the many professional books that have been published on the subject of reading in the last 20 years. The work of the Simplified Spelling Society in England largely went unnoticed.

The early reports on the use of Pitman's i.t.a. in British schools, however, appeared to stir the imagination and came at a time when linguistic solutions to reading instruction were being given serious consideration. The research in England, reported by Downing, in its early form suggested that a major departure from approaches to reading instruction in fashion at the time were being initiated. His reports appeared to confirm earlier findings that reading achievement *was induced earlier, was easier to attain,* and *was attained by a vastly larger percentage of a population* than classes using the same books in t.o. Later reports appeared to confirm the early results, and he concluded that i.t.a. "does accelerate the acquisition of basic reading skills, and this primary training in i.t.a. is transferred to t.o. in such a way that a very substantial saving is gained in learning to read t.o."

His early reports noted that:
(1) "young children get through their beginning reading program faster when their books are printed in i.t.a.
(2) They can recognize more words in print when they are in i.t.a.
(3) They can accurately read continuous English prose more readily when it is printed in i.t.a.
(4) They can comprehend more continuous English print if i.t.a. is used.
(5) They can read faster when the medium is i.t.a.

These seem to have been borne out by later results.

For Evaluation of the Initial Teaching Alphabet.

The evaluations established for this study are as follows:
(1) Is there a difference in reading achievement in the tenth week and in the eighth month (April 15th) of school as reflected in instructional level achievements when the same method is used but the medium (t.o. or i.t.a.) is different?
(2) Is there a difference in reading achievement of i.t.a. and t.o. groups at intermediate points in instruction when the groups are tested on identical material but printed in the orthography used in instruction?
(3) Is there a difference in reading and spelling achievement on a t.o. standard between the i.t.a. and t.o. matched groups in the ninth month of instruction in the first, second and third year?
(4) Is there a difference in reading achievement of the i.t.a. and t.o. groups in the ninth month of instruction in the second and third year on t.o. measures of oral reading accuracy and word recognition?
(5) Is there an observable or measurable difference in writing behavior of i.t.a. and t.o. taught groups at the end of first, second and third grade years?

Recommendations for Teachers

The requirement of a course in phonetics as a prerequisite to courses in reading instruction has been difficult to implement since phonetics and/or the international phonetic alphabet are difficult to master. The use of i.t.a. in a course of basic reading instruction for the same purpose, however, has decided advantage in that it is relatively easy to teach and few teachers have difficulty in using it for encoding sound. While instruction in i.t.a. proceeds, whether or not the teacher will use i.t.a. in the classroom, relevant history of the English language can be introduced to show the development of

the traditional alphabet, the metamorphasis of spelling patterns, and current influence for change in the language. As instruction in i.t.a. proceeds, the student becomes aware of the sounds of English, his own dialect and how it differs from the norm, and the spelling patterns usually representative of the sounds of English.

Thus, basic reading courses could utilize Pitman's i.t.a. to advantage in remedying many pronunciation inadequacies currently noted while providing a natural basis for learning about methods of teaching reading. Initial reading instruction for teachers should, however, include the elements noted above so that the basic information a teacher needs is easily learned and less cumbersome in utilization. Such an initial program of instruction would include the following:

1. History of the English language.
2. Analysis of the spelling patterns for English sounds. 3. Knowledge of and ability to use i.t.a. to transcribe sounds.
4. Knowledge of and ability to use i.t.a. to transliterate print (words and short selections).
5. Relationship between i.t.a. symbols, the sounds of English, and the most frequent English spellings for given sounds.
6. Approaches to teaching reading based on the above relationships which in turn should be related to learning theory and child development.
7. Modification of behavior in the use of materials of published reading programs to meet the needs, abilities and interests of children.

Additional elements of such an instruction course should include:
1. Phonic approaches to t.o. reading, their advantage and limitations based on the spellings of English.
2. Whole word approaches to teaching reading, their advantages and limitations based on learning theory, discovery procedures, and the spellings of English.
3. The need for eclectic procedures.

Workshop training for the inservice teacher in the use of i.t.a. for reading and writing instruction follows the above pattern but eliminates a lengthy recitation or illustration of approaches or methods of instruction. However, a review of methodology using film clips provides a basis for illustrating good teaching technique.

The elements of the program for training in-service second grade teachers for post-i.t.a. instruction need further study and evaluation. Such teachers appear to need additional instruction on methods
- to provide for individual differences by differentiating instruction in reading,
- to encourage differentiation of instruction in spelling,
- to provide for the continuation of writing behavior of i.t.a.-taught children, and
- to provide far curriculum change related to the increased reading skill and improved work habits of i.t.a.-taught children.

Teacher behavior thus far indicates that some second grade teachers cling to old ways, for instance, expecting children to write only once a week or demanding perfection in t.o. spelling commensurate with the child's writing and reading skills. Such patterns were not readily corrected and procedures for teacher-change require further evaluation and study.

A question on the "best" time for the introduction to cursive t.o. writing resulted in the trial of various times for the introductions of such activity (2nd month through 8th month). No timing seemed optional. The recommendation which seems most desirable reflects concern for the elimination of possible inhibiting factors on the child's writing behavior. Thus, delay in using

cursive writing as long as possible seems the wisest course of action, yet no negative effects were observable when the early use of cursive writing post-i.t.a. was permitted.

Conclusions and Implications.

Among the many characteristics of the educational milieu in America, there are several that deserve emphasis here: an unfortunate formal and artificial compartmentalization of the curriculum, widely disparate views concerning the most desirable methods for teaching reading and writing, an extensive need for remedial measures to increase literacy, and widespread sense of discouragement along with the conviction that there are dim prospects for making significant changes. The three-year demonstration of the use of i.t.a. has made a very clear contribution toward improved procedures for teaching reading and writing to children. In addition the demonstration has brought to attention the need to break down artificial curriculum compartments and the ease with which the curriculum can become integrated. It is further indicated that the purpose of achieving skill in reading and writing can be used also to bring into play a flexibility in approaches to the use of learning methodologies for teaching and the variant sense-modes and rates of learning. Finally, it points up the the prospect that there can be a significant diminution of illiteracy among first grade children and consequently among any group subsequently ordered from those having had i.t.a. experience as first grade children.

The use of the i.t.a. medium has been of significant value in eliminating some of the frustrations that have characterized the teaching of teachers to meet the educational needs of children. At the same time it has shown effective and rapid development of reading and writing skill.

This demonstration has evaluated a teaching model for transition from i.t.a. to t.o. Over three years, two distinct populations in one school system have been studied. The second group effectively provides a two-year replica of the initial three year group. The model
a) used consistent methodology,
b) controlled teacher-behavior, curriculum and time spent on teaching the language arts, and
c) met individual differences by using a variety of printed materials.
Obviously, also, the evaluation included comparison between i.t.a. and t.o. taught samples.

The three-year evaluation shows that children in i.t.a. materials:

1. Advance more rapidly in reading and writing experiences; achieve significantly superior reading skill at an earlier time; read more widely; and write more prolifically, more extensively, and with a higher degree of proficiency, than their t.o. counterparts, and have no difficulty in making a reading transition to t.o. materials when they are allowed to develop sufficient confidence and efficiency.

2. Develop very high spelling skill in i.t.a. (better described as encoding) fairly early. The transition to spelling in t.o. appears relatively easy in the two years subsequent to initial reading when directed instruction and guidance are given, and the achievement in spelling on standardized tests and in creative writing is significantly better than the achievement of t.o. taught children at the end of the second and third years under such an instructional program.

3. Achieve word recognition in t.o. at the end of the first and second years significantly better than t.o. taught children but this superiority is not retained at the end of the third year.

4. Show lack of the inhibitions in writing which are commonly found early in the first year, and this expressiveness continues into the second and third years. Significant accomplishments are found in these children's creative writing in terms of the number of running words and the

number of polysyllabic words used. No differences in the use of the mechanics of reading were found between the i.t.a.- and t.o.-taught populations.

5. Have higher comprehension as this is indicated by instructional levels and reader level achievement in all years. Standardized tests in comprehension shows that the i.t.a. population does not differ from the t.o. population.

6. Have experienced no deleterious effects on such measures as rate of reading or accuracy of reading, suggesting that the i.t.a. to t.o. procedure establishes no negative characteristics, no hinderances on later achievement.

The above findings were generally confirmed by the two-year replication study. No significant differences were found on the word meaning subtest between the second year populations of the first replication study. Measures of word recognition, such as the Fry list, showed significant achievement differences in favor of the i.t.a. population.

Because it can reasonably be expected that most of the achievement differences will diminish in time when no unique post-i.t.a. procedures are used, a lack of positive longitudinal effects of i.t.a. at some future period does not negate its use, nor diminish its established values. We believe that i.t.a. has been demonstrated to provide an effective approach to the solution of a variety of educational problems.

[1] See S.P:B., Winter, 1965, p.5.
[2] See S.P.B., Summer, 1967, p.19.

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STUDENT INVOLVEMENT. Dr. G. Van Praagh of the Nuffield program emphasizes the old proverb "hear and forget, see and remember, do and understand" in describing implementation of the program in England's schools. Involving the students in the investigative nature of science is the goal.

FROM CHEMICAL & ENGINEERING NEWS, SEP. 11, 1967

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[Spelling Progress Bulletin Fall 1967 p23 in the printed version]

Book Reviews

7. Wurld Inglish, by Herbert S. Wilkinson, A.C.I.S, reviewed by Newell Tune.

Published by the author, at Halifax, Yorkshire, Eng. 279pp no price, Dec. 1967.

An advance copy of this book was sent to us for review prior to publication in Dec. 1967. The proof copy has two pages printed adjacent in a format 12" x 8½" instead of the final printing in which the book will be 6" x 8½". This unusual format has some startling advantages. Tables occupying two pages are laying flat together and are easier to read. Except for shelving such books in libraries, this format has much to recommend itself.

Wurld Inglish is, as the title implies, a book about a system of simplified spelling. One is immediately struck by the similarities and differences between this scholarly book and another such which came out 8 years previously entitled "Regularized English." Both books are comprehensive, scholarly studies of the subject of simplification of our inconsistent English spelling. Both refrain from adding any new letters to the system, staying within the Roman alphabet. Both use x for the ks-sound, but only Wijk uses q. Both try to make the new spelling look less strange than completely phonetic systems, by stressing compatibility with or nearness to our present spelling. Both feel that the reason why such completely phonetic systems have not been generally accepted by the public has been because of the greatly changed appearance of so many words on the printed page. Hence, in both of them one important consideration has been the percentage of words unchanged in a page of printed prose. And both were intended as initial teaching mediums as well as auxiliary international languages based upon English speech.

However, the major difference between the two authors and their two books has been in their judgment as to how far the simplification shall be allowed to extend – which factor shall be the dominant one?-nearness to traditional spelling or phoneticness? In Wijk's book, *Regularized English,* he makes paramount his objective: the fewest number of changed words, or rather the greatest number of words in T.O. (albeit the T.O. of a somewhat regular nature). In other words, his paramount consideration is *minimal change.* To do this, he resorts to several subterfuges Each sound has more than one (in some cases as many as 5) ways of representing it. He rejects only the rather infrequent letter combinations. He also allows certain digraphs to have two or three pronunciations, just as in T.O. By these means, he claims to have 90% of the 10,000 commonest words unchanged. But in running text-prose this amounts to only 70% of the words unchanged on the printed page.

On the other hand, Wilkinson does not make paramount the number of words unchanged, but stresses phoneticness as the primary consideration, with nearness to T.O. or words unchanged as a secondary consideration. His system makes all the letters of the Roman alphabet phonetic in use (except y which has two uses), and by allowing 10 T.O. words as word signs (chiefly one syllable words ending in e, to have the long e-sound), he achieves an average of 48% of words unchanged in running text. While this is appreciably less than the 70% achieved by Wijk, it still leaves a printed page that is very easy to read and what is far more important, a system that is easy to teach because it is, in the main, regularly phonetic and logical in its few deviations. In this system, the spelling tells the reader the pronunciation usually without any possible doubt, whereas in Wijk's *Regularized English,* one must know the spoken language fairly well to be sure of the pronunciation. (a knowledge of the written is also helpful!). Wijk's spellings are frequently only a guide if you know the several different ways in which T.O. spells a certain sound and in some cases the same letter combinations have two or three possible sounds.

It would not be feasible to go into details about how Wurld Inglish handles certain prefixes and suffixes, except to say that they are much more regular and phonetic in W. I. And that homographs are eliminated because the sounds in words control the spelling. To be sure, there are a few more homophones because these are words that are pronounced the same. But just as the word *bay,* with its 6 widely different meanings (and the dictionary lists 31 different meanings), does not require different spellings for the different meanings, we can take homophones in our stride in spelling as we do already in our speech.

Probably the best way in which to show how easy it is to read in Wurld Inglish is to give examples of its use:

Psalm 23

The Lord iz mie sheperd, I shal not wont;
he maeks me lie doun in green pastuerz.
He leedz me besied the stil wauterz;
he restoerz mie soel.
He leedz me in pathhs ov riechusnes
for hiz naem's sack.
Eeven tho I wank thhroo the valy
ov the shado ov dethh, I feer no eevil;
for thou art with me;
thie rod and thie staf, thae kumfort me.
Thou prepaerst a taebl befoer me
in the prezens ov mie enemiez;
thou anointest mie hed with oil,
mie kup runethh oever.
Shoorly guudnes and mursy shal folo me
aul the daez ov mie lief;
and I shal dwel in the hous ov the Lord for ever.

Hamlet

To be, or not to be; that iz the kweschon:
Whether 'tiz noebler in the miend to sufer
The slingz and aroez ov outraejus fortuen,
Or to tack armz agenst a see ov trublz,
And bie opoezing end them:
To die, to sleep, no moer;
And bie a sleep, to sae we end the hart-aek,
And the thhouzand natueral shoks that flesh iz aer to?
'Tiz a konsumaeshon devoutly to be wisht.
To die, to sleep – to sleep, perchans to dreem;
Ie, thaer'z the rub; for in that sleep ov dethh,
Whot dreemz mae kum when we hav shufld of
This mortal koil, must giv us pauz.
Thaer'z the respekt
That maeks kalamity ov so long lief;
For hoo wuud baer the whips and skornz ov tiem,
The opresor'z rong, the proud man'z kontuemly,
The pangz ov dispiez'd luv, the lau'z delae,
The insolens ov ofis, and the spurnz
That paeshent merit ov the unwurthy tasks,
When he himself miet hiz kwieetus maek,
With a baer bodkin? hoo wuud fardelz baer,
To grunt and swet under a weery lief,
But that the dred ov sumthhing after dethh,
The undiskuverd kuntry from hooz boorn
No traveler returnz, puzlz the wil,
And maeks us rather baer thoez ilz we hav,
Than flie to utherz that we no not ov,
Thus konshens duz maek kouardz ov us aul,
And thus the naetiv hue ov rezolueshon iz siklid oe'r
With the pael kast ov thhaut and enterpriezez
Ov graet oithh and moment, with this regard
Thaer kurents turn arie and looz the naem ov akshon.

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[Spelling Progress Bulletin Fall 1967 p23 in the printed version]

8. The Davis-McGuffey Fonetik Second Reader, by Leo G. Davis.
Reviewed by E. E. Arctier

L. G. Davis, Palm Springs, Calif.

There's one particularly nice thing to say about this little book. Its 72 pages include 16 child poems of a content, rhythm, rhyme to sing their vocabulary into the child's memory. Apart from that there's little one can do but repeat the criticism of its predecessor which Denham Court wrote in the Winter, 1966 issue of the S.P.B.

The printing, to be sure, is a little better than in the First Reader, but its single spacing gives the pages a crowded, laborious look. Especially, as from first to last they are unbroken by a single picture. To be sure, Mr. Davis considers this all to the good. "Inasmuch," he says in his preface, "as pictures are primary material which the second grader should have already outgrown, all pictures have been deleted to preclude distraction." Just possibly there's something to be said for that. But until Readers One and Two have had an adequate try-out with actual children in actual classrooms, the point is highly debatable.

But what appals this reviewer is the continuance of the perversion of the pronunciation of the definite and indefinite article to which Mr. Court called attention all that long ago. One can only repeat his question, "Have you ever heard a seven year-old remark that *'thee* dog and *thee* cat are asleep before *thee* fire." Or ask Mother for *'eh* cokky and *eh* glass of milk.' Yet up to the second to the last page of this Second Davis-McGuffey Reader this conspicuous mispronunciation is foisted on the children. This is not only a flagrant miseducation as far as the text book is concerned, but what would a teacher do with such a situation? Or a parent seeking help out at home? As for McGuffey, how many times would he turn over in his grave if he had the least inkling that his high reputation was being used for the furtherance of such an aberration as this?

All that Denham Court said of the symbol-spelling of Mr. Davis' First Reader holds true of this Second one. The use of A, E, I, O, U, to represent long vowels is an old dodge of the spelling reformer and permissable enough so far as printed matter goes. To be sure: *n0 rEzon for thOz flAgrant abUses was ever quIt frankly disklOzd* looks a bit queer, but we'd get used to it in time. But Mr. Davis doesn't use his caps at their proper height. He reduces them to lower case level and thereby lets his spelling in for trouble. You can cut down A and E to the height of a and e, give them the vowel sounds of *pate* and *Pete* and still have an *a* and *e* with which to print *pat* and *pet*. But when you cut down O to o and use it for the long vowel of *note* and *dote,* what are you going to do for the short vowel of *not* and *dot?* Davis solves this problem by lifting α from the written alphabet and spells these words as nαt and dαt. And follows this by transliterating: bought, thought, fought, wrought, into bαt, thαt, fαt, rαt. How's that for an alfabeteer forever crying out against any "radical change" in our present orthography?

As for U and I when cut down to lower case height, there is *some* difference between them and *u* and *i* but not enough for quick and easy recognition by the average beginner. But even were the symbols of the Davis readers the best that phonetics could provide, would the 72 pages of this Second Reader provide enough material for all of grade two? Apparently there are no workbooks, charts, card packs, such as i.t.a. provides, and not even the beginning of that large supply of supplementary reading – some 60 little volumes of stories and verse – with which i.t.a. keeps the book corners of its classrooms entrancingly supplied. For the moment, therefore, it looks as if Mr. Davis wants to sell his books to the schools, he ought to make some changes in them and supply some supplementary readers.

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[Spelling Progress Bulletin Fall 1967 pp23 in the printed version]

9. Universala Skribo, by Manuel Halvelik, Reviewed by Newell W. Tune

Universala Skribo, by Manuel Halvelik. Pub. by Roels, Hogeweg 12, Borgerhout, Belgium. 128 pp, 1967, $2.00. Distrib. by Sonorilo, Kerklaan 61, Brugge, Belgie.

This book, the title of which means: Universal Writing, is written in Esperanto. It was thought that Esperanto is more nearly a universal language than any of the natural or constructed languages. But even those who do not read Esperanto can get a lot out of this book. The glossary of terminology (in Esperanto, of course) is very helpful in deciphering many of the words which are just enough different from English to sometimes puzzle the reader.

This scholarly work of a phonetist who has a good knowledge of many foreign tongues (and who obtained information on those he did not know) is very comprehensive in its scope. Methods of use and symbols for the sounds of many languages are illustrated by short prose selections. The following languages are illustrated: Arabic, English (British & American), Armenian, Bengali, Czech, Chinese, Flemish, French, Greek, German, Hebrew, Hindi, Spanish (Spain & So. America), Hungarian, Italian, Japanese, Kimra, Kisuahilo, Persian, Polish, Portuguese, Rumanian, Russian, Sinhala, Finnish, Swedish, Tamil, Turkish, Vaska.

The International Phonetic Alphabet is compared symbol by symbol with his own set of symbols so that an advanced phoneticist can make useful comparisons and see the differences and advantages of Universala Skribo. His symbols are mainly Roman letters with some accent marks, and the addition of some Russian letters. Five I.P.A. symbols are used for the same sounds because they are especially well known for these purposes. A very comprehensive and clear table shows listing and descriptions of almost all foreign language sounds and tells how they are made – along with the languages in which these sounds are found.

The author claims it is a two way method which thus:
a) can be used as a graphic system for recording pronunciation in a more simple, flexible and rational way than any former system. (Universal phonemic notation)
b) can be used as an international set of standardized rules for reforming the spelling of any and all languages by delicately compromising between the conflicting needs of actual pronunciation, grammatical distinctions and ease of reading. (Universal phonologic orthography)

This revolutionary method runs along the general lines set out by the International Phonetic Association, but starts from a fundamentally different basis by using ordinary letters (mainly Roman) and arranging them according to auditory criteria instead of speech movements.

Altogether, one is impressed with the thoroness and vast extent of this project. Whether it will supplant the I.P.A. remains to be seen.

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> Sir James Pitman has called our attention to an appropriate quotation from Mark Twain: "Progress is nothing but the substitution of one nuisance for another." Yet we do like progress!

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10. Carlton Press Inc.

BOOK PUBLISHERS. 114 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK, N. Y.

Dear Reader,

Research has proved, conclusively, that use of stable orthografy, in primary grades only, enables the student to complete his education a year or more ahead of those struggling with the traditionally erratic from the beginning. It is no longer a matter of proving a theory, – but of implementing a proven innovation . Altho permanent reform is in order, it is not the issue at this time. However, if and when any special primary orthografy does come into general use, the primary spellings will gradually become standard thru common usage. Thus educators should make comparative study of the various proposals for simplified spelling, looking toward the adoption of a standard primary orthografy that would be most acceptable for everyday use. As "candidates" for such study, Leo G. Davis, a former teacher, – offers a series of basically fonetic texts.

Stabilizing lower-case a, e, i, α, u, as the short vowels, and small capitals A, E, I, O, U, as the long, Mr. Davis offers a ten-vowel alfabet which, az yu kan SE, iz sufishent for bASically fonetik speling,- no nU leterz, – no sILent leterz, – no nU kαmbinASHαnz,- no unorthαdαx yUS αv eny simbαl, – no dIAkritiks. .yet the REVIZd orthαgrafy SEmz tU hOld every advantAj over αl uther revαlUshαnARy notAshαnz within thE inglish alfabet, – in familyer paternz and OLd spelingz RETAnd, – in trULy fonetik spelingz, – in stability, – and in the simplisity αv brevity, – az wel az bEing qUIt sUtabl for jeneral yUS.

The *Davis-McGuffey First Reader,* – a fonetic transliteration of the original McGuffey text, – adheres to the time-proven "spelling" approach to reading, in contrast to the prevailing, but illogical, "whole-word" approach; thus it is probably the best primary English text ever published. The *Davis-McGuffey Second Reader* gradually introduces traditional irregularities until, – upon finishing this book, – the pupil is ready for his conventional third reader, – well ahead of those using current "basal" readers. *K-a-t spelz cat* is an amusing fonetic reader for teaching a child to read a third-grade vocabulary fluently, – without the usual frustration. 'The *davis speller* is, more properly, an author's "guide" for transliterating conventional literature into either of two revolutionary notations, – a five-vowel stable, or the ten-vowel basically fonetic, – each of which seems to hold every advantage over all other proposals within the alfabet.

Obviously, these innovating texts should be in the hands of all those interested in special primary orthografy, – in permanent reform, – and/or in promoting English as the de facto international language. . . Get your copies today!

Carlton Press – N.Y.
Please send me;
....copies *of the davis speller,* @ $1.95 per copy. ....copies of *k-a-t spelz cat* @ $1•95 per copy.
....copies of *Davis-McGuffey First Reader* @ $2.50 per copy.
....copies of *Davis-McGuffey* Second *Reader* @ $2.50 per copy.
My payment of ……. is enclosed.
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