

other insane words which no man addicted to simple Christian life can try to spell and not lose some of the bloom of his piety in the demoralizing attempt. Do not doubt it....

People say it is the spelling of Chaucer and Spencer and Shakespeare and a lot of other people who do not know how to spell anyway, and it has been transmitted to us and we preserve it and wish to preserve it because of its hallowed associations.

Now I don't see that there is any real argument about that. If that argument is good, then it would be a good argument not to banish flies and the cockroaches from hospitals because they have been there so long that the patients have got used to them and they feel a tenderness for them on account of the association....

[At the conclusion of his speech, Twain lampooned the opponents of reform by saying they charge that] Simplified spelling brought about the sunspots, the San Francisco earthquake, and the recent business depression, which we never would have had if spelling had been left all alone (cited in Iles, 1965, pp. 19-20).

So effective was the propaganda of the Simplified Spelling Board that the Board of Superintendents of New York City Schools in 1906 unanimously recommended the use of the 300 words for all New York City schools. The Modern Language Association of America in the same year, 1906, not only accepted the list of 300 words for its publication, but in some instances began to make other simplifications beyond the original list.

Some examples of the recommended changes spelled in simpler form are as follows:

abridgment	humor
altho	jail
antitoxin	judgment
bark	labor
behavior	lisens
caliber	mama

catalog	medieval
center	meter
clue	mold
controller	odor
defense	phenomenon
dike	program
draft	prolog
endeavor	quartet
envelop	rancor
esthetic	sulfur
ether	tenor
fantasy	theater
flavor	tho
gage	thoroly
gipsy	thru
good-by	vapor
hiccup	wagon
honor	whisky

(cited in Tauber, 1958, p. 176).

During his second term, President Theodore Roosevelt fought a losing battle for spelling reform. Encouraged by his friend, Brander Matthews, President of the SSB, Roosevelt, who was himself a weak speller, on August 27, 1906, issued the following order to the Public Printer, Charles Arthur Stillings:

My Dear Mr. Stillings:

I enclose herewith copies of certain circulars of the Simplified Spelling Board, which can be obtained free from the board at No. 1 Madison Avenue, New York City. Please hereafter direct that in all Government publications of the Executive departments the 300 words enumerated in circular shall be spelled as therein set forth. If anyone asks the reason for the action, refer him to Circulars 3, 4, and 6 as issued by the Simplified Spelling Board.

Most of the criticism of the proposed step is evidently made in entire ignorance of what the step is, no less than in entire ignorance of the very moderate and common-sense views as to the purposes to be achieved, which views are so excellently set forth in the circulars to which I have referred. There is not the slightest intention to do

anything revolutionary or initiate any far-reaching policy.

The purpose simply is for the Government instead of lagging behind popular sentiment, to advance abreast of it and at the same time abreast of the views of the ablest and most practical educators of our time as well as of the most profound scholars—men of the stamp of Professor Lounsbury and Professor Skeat.

If the slight changes in the spelling of the 300 words proposed wholly or partially meet popular approval, then the changes will become permanent without any reference to what public officials or individual private citizens may feel; if they do not ultimately meet with popular approval they will be dropt [new style], and that is all there is about it.

They represent nothing in the world but a very slight extension of the unconscious movement which has made agricultural implement makers and farmers write "plow" instead of "plough"; which has made most Americans write "honor" without the somewhat absurd, superfluous "u"; and which is even now making people write "program" without the "me"—just as all people who speak English now write "bat," "set," "dim," "sum," and "fish," instead of the Elizabethan "batte," "sette," "dimme," "summe," and fysshe"; which makes us write "public," "almanac," "era," "fantasy," and "wagon," instead of the "publick," "almanack," "aera," "phantasy," and "waggon" of our great-grandfathers.

It is not an attack on the language of Shakespeare and Milton, because it is in some instances a going back to the forms they used, and in others merely the extension of changes which, as regards other words, have taken place since their time.

It is not an attempt to do anything far-reaching or sudden or violent; or indeed anything very great at all. It is merely an attempt to cast what slight weight can properly be cast on the side of the popular forces which are endeavoring to make our spelling a little less foolish and fantastic (cited in Harrison, 1961, pp. 86-87).

Protagonist and antagonist forces formed battlelines, and spelling reform became a national and even international issue. American, British, and Canadian newspapers lampooned the reform attempt with

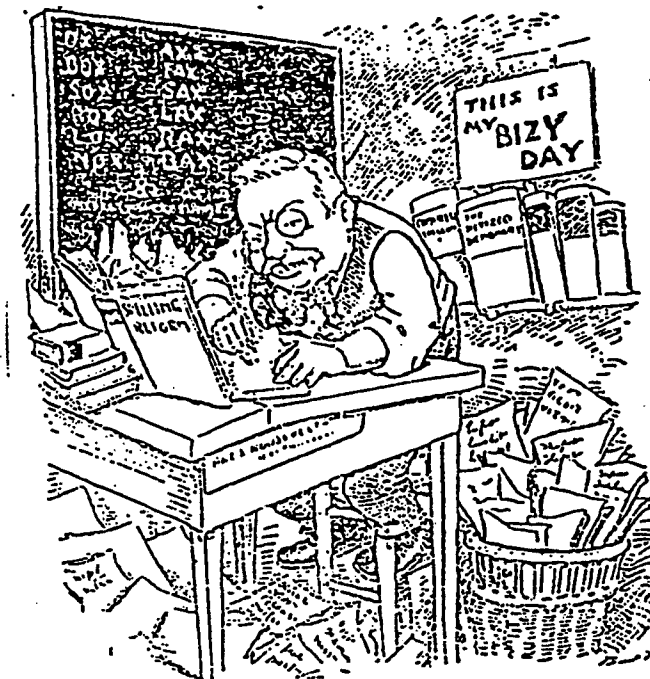
headlines such as "ROZEVULT AKSEPTS LATEST SPELLING RULES" (Vivian, 1979, p. 165. See Figure 17). The New York State Commissioner of Education declared that he "didn't believe in telling people how to spell" (Harrison, 1961, p. 88). Congress also took umbrage with the President's attempt. Massachusetts Congressman John A. Sullivan claimed that "old spelling" was good enough. He went on: "If the President of the United States has authority by imperial ukase to change the spelling of 300 words, it follows that he has authority to change 30,000 words, or every word in the language. The result may be that a new court language may be established by Executive decree for the new American empire. We got along very well with the customary form of the English language until the reign of the present Ruler" (Congressional Record 41, pt. 1:312; cited in Vivian, 1979, p. 171).

On December 12, 1906, Roosevelt's attempt to effect spelling reform was circumvented by Congress in the form of a rider to the printing money bill, which read:

No part of the compensation provided by this act shall be paid to the Public Printer unless he shall, in printing documents authorized by law or ordered by Congress or either branch thereof, conform in the spelling thereof to the rules of orthography recognized and used by accepted dictionaries of the English language (Harrison, 1961, p. 88).

On December 13, 1906, President Roosevelt accepted the inevitable and rescinded his order of August 27. While he was President, Roosevelt made no further efforts to carry out spelling reforms. He wrote to Brander Matthews on December 16, 1906, that "I could not by fighting have kept the new spelling, and it was evidently worse than useless to

Figure 17. An editorial cartoon lampooning President Theodore Roosevelt's attempt to simplify spelling.



The caption read: THIS DOES SETTLE IT.

President Roosevelt positively cannot accept nomination for a third term: he has undertaken the introduction of spelling reform, and that is trouble enough for one man.

Note. From "President Roosevelt and Spelling Reform," 1906,
The American Monthly Review of Reviews, p. 611.

go into an undignified contest when I was beaten" (cited in Dornbush, 1961, p. 238). Roosevelt accepted membership on the SSB, used some simplifications in his own correspondence, but said no more publicly about the matter (Mencken, 1945). When Roosevelt's term of office expired in March, 1909, the conservative newspaper, the New York Sun, published a one word editorial: "Thru." (Ives, 1979, p. 43).

The National Education Association, in 1907, approved the work of the Simplified Spelling Board and directed the use of the list of 300 words in its journal. In 1916, the National Education Association added the spelling t for ed in the past tense of English verbs ending in ed but pronounced t. Thus the NEA simplified the use of over 900 words in addition to the original list of the Simplified Spelling Board. Local teachers associations in all sections of the country began to follow the example of the National Education Association and passed resolutions in support of the movement.

Leading periodicals and newspapers, including the Literary Digest, Independent, Current Literature, Educational Review, The Chicago Tribune and the Minneapolis Journal were the first to approve of the idea of simplified spelling and to adopt the list of 300 alternative spellings (Iles, 1965). The spelling simplifications begun at the Chicago Tribune were used for a number of years, discarded, then reinstated in 1934, to be finally abandoned in 1975 (Vivian, 1979). In an editorial entitled "Thru is through and so is tho," which announced the abandonment of the reform attempt, the Chicago Tribune explained

that one reason for their decision was that "the writers of the spelling texts would not yield. When Johnny would write Tribune style, teacher sat him down" (cited in Ives, 1979, p. 51).

On January 30, 1908, a second list of words was promulgated. The new list added whole classes of words. There appeared in the 1908 list the following words:

ake	eg
aile	foren
agast	gastly
alfabet	gard
autograf	hight
biografy	iland
boro	ile
bild	lim
campain	fonetic
cifer	fotograf
curtesy	sissors
crum	siv
det	solem
diafram	telefone

To these were added:

docil	premis
facil	favorit
fertil	definit
hostil	exquisit
juvenil	activ
engin	captiv
famin	executiv
feminin	objectiv
practis	exclusiv

In January 1909, a third list was added. New classes of words included:

alredy	dreamd
bred	happend
brest	offis
breth	auspis
ded	servis

hed	absolv
lether	delv
def	twelv
wepon	cary
zelot	nerv
bagd	stary
speld	

(Tauber, 1958,, pp. 196-197)

Shortly after publication of its fourth word list, the Simplified Spelling Board resolved no further changes in spelling until the recommendations and lists already published gained general acceptance by the public at large. In an attempt to promulgate and legitimize its reforms, Funk and Wagnalls published A Dictionary of Simplified Spelling based on the rules of the APA and the SSB (Vizetelly, 1915).

After a while, it became obvious that the four progressive lists previously published and disseminated were unlikely to gain quick acceptance and, in fact, might even retard the spelling simplification movement. It was with this concern that in 1918 the Filology Committee of the Simplified Spelling Board, after long and arduous deliberation over a two year period, recommended the adoption of systematic rules for changing the spelling.

In 1919, the Simplififed Spelling Board brought out a Handbook of Simplified Spelling and in it summarized its successive recommendations. The list contained 32 rules wih ten exceptions.

These were as follows:

1. When a word begins with or includes ae or oe, substitue e: esthetic, medieval, subpena; but retain the digraph at the end of a word: alumnae.

2. When bt is pronounced t, drop the silent b: det, dout, dettor.
3. When ceed is final, spell it cede: excede, procede, succede.
4. When ch is pronounced like hard c, drop the h except before e, i, and y: caracter, clorid, corus, etc. But retain architect, chemist, monarchy.
5. When a double consonant appears before a final silent e, drop the last two letters: bizar, cigaret, creton, gavot, gazel quartet, program.
6. When a word ends in a double consonant, substitute a single consonant: ad, bil, bluf, etc. But retain ll after a long vowel: all, roll. And retain ss when the word has more than one syllable: needless.
7. Drop the final silent e after a consonant preceded by a short stressed vowel: giv, hav, liv.
8. Drop the final silent e in a one syllable word with short vowels: ar, gon, wer. But not when sounded as in there.
9. Drop the silent e in the unstressed final short syllables, ide, ile, ine, ise, ite, and live: activ, bromid, definit, determin, practis, hostil.
10. Drop the silent e after lv and rv: involv, twelv, carv, deserv.
11. Drop the silent e after v or z when preceded by a digraph representing a long vowel or a diphthong: achiev, freez, gauz, sneez.
12. Drop the e in the final oe when it is pronounced o : fo, ho, to, wo. But retain it in th inflections: foes, hoed.
13. When one of the letters in ea is silent, drop it: hed, bed, brekfast, hart, harth. But not in bead, read, real.
14. When final ed is pronounced d, drop the e: cald, carrid, employd, marrid, robd, etc. But not when a wrong pronunciation would be suggested: bribed, caned, filed, priced, used.
15. When final ed is pronounced t, substitute t : askt,

fixt, helpt, adresst, shipt, stopt, stuft, advanst, etc.
But not when a wrong pronunciation will be suggested: baked,
reduced, faced, hoped.

16. When ei is pronounced like ie in brief, substitute ie:
conci~~e~~t, deciev, iether, reciev, wierd.

17. When a final ey is pronounced y, drop the e: barly,
chimny, donky, mony, vally.

18. When final gh is pronounced f, substitute f and drop the
silent letter of the preceding digraph: enuf, laf, ruf, tuf.

19. When gh is pronounced g, drop the h: agast, gastly,
gost, goul.

20. When gm is final, drop the silent g: apothem, flem,
diafram.

21. When gue is final after a consonant, a short vowel, or a
digraph representing a long vowel, or a diphthong, drop the
silent ue: tung, catalog, harang, sinagog, leag. But not
when a wrong pronunciation would be suggested: rog for
rogue, vag for vague.

22. When a final ise is pronounced like ize, substitute ize:
advertize, advize, franchize, rize, wize.

23. When mb is final after a short vowel, drop b: bom, crum,
dum, lam, lim, thum.

24. When ou is before l and pronounced o, drop u: mold,
bolder, sholder. But not sol for soul.

25. When ough is final, spell o, u, or up, according to the
pronunciation: altho, thru, hiccup, do, donut, furlo.

26. When our is final and ou is pronounced as a short vowel,
drop u: color, honor, labor.

27. When ph is pronounced f, substitute f: alfabet, emfasis,
fantom, fonograf, fotograf, sulfur, telefone, telegraf.

28. When re is final after any consonant save c, substitute
er: center, fiber, meter, theater. But not lucer, mediocer.

29. When rh is initial and the h is silent, drop it:
retoric, reumatism, rime, rubarb, rithm.

30. When sc is initial and the c is silent, drop it: senery, sented, septer, sience, sissors.

31. When u is silent before a vowel, drop it: bild, condit, garantee, gard, ges, gild, gide.

32. When y is between consonants, substitute i: analisis, fisic, gipsy, paralize, rime, silvan, tipe (Paine, 1920, pp. 14-15).

Although the list of 32 rules was a "noble" attempt by the Simplified Spelling Board to eliminate many silent letters, it failed to obtain complete elimination of some of the more common silent letter combinations such as the gh in such words as sight, night, through, and slough. The rules were further weakened by the appearance of so many exceptions that they became hard to remember. Perhaps a fair evaluation of the results of these published rules was best summarized by Mencken, "The clumsy novelties [of the list of rules] gave the whole spelling reform movement a black eye" (Mencken, 1945, p. 403). The remains of the Simplified Spelling Board eventually merged with the Spelling Reform Association in 1946 and formed the Simpler Spelling Association, with headquarters at Lake Placid, New York (Dewey, 1971).

Frederick C. Wingfield's
Fwnetic Crthqgrafi

In 1928, Fred S.C. Wingfield, a Chicago printer, launched what he called Fwnetic Crthqgrafi. It is a novel system compared to other digraphic systems in that his system bears little resemblance to orthodox or traditional spelling (Pitman & St. John, 1969).

Fwentic Crthqgrafi is a system built upon what Wingfield describes

as "based on optimal English phonemes, reassignment of c, j, q, x and the use of standard digraphs" (Wingfield, n.d., a, p. 1). Originally intended to be a secondary or auxiliary language and proposed for use by students of English-American language, Fwentic Crthqgrafi was later conceived as a means of permanent reform for English.

Since its inception in 1931, Fwnetic Crthqgrafi has changed to Fonetic Crthogرافي. An example of how it appeared in 1944 is shown in the first sentence of the Declaration of Independence:

"Hwen in dh kors v huimn jvents, it bjkmz nesiseri for won pipl ta dizqlv dh politikl baendz hwitsh haev k'nektd dhem widh anvdr, and tu asuim amvng dh Pqwrz o dh rith, dh separeit and jkwal steishn to hwitsh dh lez o neitshr and v neitshrz Gqd entaitl dhm, a djsnt rjspekt tu dh openynz v maenkaind rjkairz dht dhei shwd diklai dh kcz'z hwitsh impel dhem tu dh separeishun" (cited in Mencken, 1948, p. 288).

The strangeness of his spelling system and the general lack of acceptance by the public has caused Wingfield to modify and change certain rules over the course of the years.

The following summary and transliteration of several of the current rules for Systematized Spelling will help understand his newer system.

1. The final e is silent, with the exception of the monosyllables: be, he, me she, thee, we. The final e lengthens the preceding vowel unless two or more consonants intervene. The suffix -ing also affects the preceding vowel in the same manner.
2. When e accompanies another vowel it causes that vowel to be long. From this rule six vowel digraphs are retained: ae (Gaelic), ee (see), ie (tried), oe (doe), ue (due), ye (xyelofone).
3. Two consonant letters following a vowel shorten the

vowel; thus, bigger, battle, gather, hopper, title, number, etc.

4. The letters a, o, u followed by -tion are generally long: donation, motion, solution, etc.

5. The final syllables -tion, -tio, -tial, -cial, -sial, -sion, -cion are retained.

6. The following words are retained without changes: all, already, also, although, alter, ball, call, wall, etc.

7. The letter o in unstressed syllables often has the short sound of u (i.e. kingdom, community, etc.): com, don, som, son, ton, won.

8. The u in the following words is pronounced as in bulletin, bushel: cud, ful, put, shud, wud, etc.

9. The er in the following words is pronounced as in very, kery, mery: bery (bury). ther, wher, etc.

10. A few conventional digraphs are preserved: ea (meal), aw (dawn), ei (vein), oa (road).

11. The following digraphs of conventional spelling are changed as follows:

- or as in vigor changed to -ur, vigor
- ir as in first changed to -ur, furst
- oo as in floor changed to -oa, floar
- ea as in break changed to -ei, breik

12. Unphonetic, and/or silent letters may be retained if there is sufficient analogical or etymological reasons for their preservation. Some examples are: of, off, sign,, signifi, benign, benignant, Gnostic, agnostic, symptom, sympathy, debt, debit, etc.

13. Some words are arbitrarily respelled as uce for use, noe for know, nue for knew, etc.

14. C and g immediately preceding e, i, y are soft: cent, city, icy, gentle, ginger, geology. In other positions, c and g are hard: electric, go, grand, big. For hard c write k: Kelly, kite, sticky. For hard g write gh: gherkin, ghetto, ghiv, gness, ghide, ghest, etc.

15. The letters l and r are doubled when immediately preceded or followed by vowels: errand, error, arrest, irradiant, jelly, mello, illegal. Exceptions to this rule are: araenge, arivel.
16. The letter s in initial position sounds as in see, so, stand. The s in medial position sounds like the sound of z as in present. The s in final position sounds like the sound of z in friends. Exceptions sometimes occur after the letters c, f, k, p, s, t: decs, mufs, caps, Bess, rests.
17. The letter x in the initial position has the sound of z; when intervocalic x has the sound of gz (exult); in the final position x sounds as in fix and box.
18. The initial y sounds as in yes, otherwise it sounds as in mystery. When y is followed by e it is pronounced like the long i as in xyelofone, tyre.
19. When z starts a word it retains its z sound (zebra). In other positions z is used as if there is familiar precedence for its use as in dazle, haze, alfabetize, buz, etc.
20. When in conventional spelling a final long vowel is followed by a single consonant plus -able, change to -eble; e.g. unmistakeble (Wingfield, n.d., c, p. 1).

In support of his list of changing rules and the assertion that his system is too radical, Wingfield relates the following imaginary anecdote:

Suppose one owns a house badly in need of a new paint job. A painting contractor is engaged; in due time the painter "completes" the painting and notifies the owner that he wants his pay-off.

The owner goes to inspect the painting job. He finds the house painted in front and on two sides, but the rear of the house is unpainted nor have the eaves been painted. The owner objects.

The painter: 'You are entirely too radical. Few people will see the backside nor notice the unpainted eaves!'

I think the owner would consider himself to have been short-changed and would bring an action against the painter

for breach of contract (Wingfield, 1978, p. 2).

The moral of Wingfield's story is that to change the appearance of English orthography is a major undertaking. It might be better to do the job correctly (meaning employing radical changes) in the first place rather than to make cosmetic changes.

The following is an example of Systematized Spelling in its latest (1978) form:

THE GETYSBURG ADDRESS

4 score and 7 years ago our fothers braut foerth on thiss continent a new nation, conceived in liburty, and dedicated tu the proposition that all men ar created eequal. Now we ar engaged in a graet civil waur, testing whether that nation or eny nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We ar met on a graet batlefeeld of that waur. We hav com tu dedicate a poertion of that feeld as a fienal resting place for those hu here gave their lives that that nation miet liv. It is altugether fitting and proprur that we shud du thiss. But in a larger sence, we cannot hallo thiss ground. The brave men, livving and ded, hu strugled here, hav consecrated it....(Wingfield, n.d., b, p. 1).

R.E. Zachrisson's Anglic

R.E. Zachrisson, professor of English at the Royal University of Uppsala, Sweden, and author of many books on English pronunciation, unlike most other spelling reformers, proposed his system of simplification of English spelling called Anglic as an international language.

In his book Anglic: A New Agreed Simplified English Spelling, Zachrisson asserts that "an international language would prove a most valuable assest toward the maintenance of the world's peace, the prosperity of the nation, and the spreading of culture and

enlightenment all over the world." Zachrisson claimed that no other language had a better claim to be the international language of the world than English which was spoken by a third of the world population. "For simplicity of grammar and a cosmopolitan vocabulary, English has no rival. It is the easiest language for the greatest number of people" (Zachrisson, 1932, p. 4).

The one big problem with English, however, is the fact that English is extremely difficult to learn due to the lack of consistent sound representations. Quoting Jacob Grimm, Zachrisson writes: "When we consider its richness intellectually, and condensed adaptability, not one of all other living languages may be placed next to English. Did not a whimsical antiquated orthography stand in the way, the universality of this language would still be more evident" (Zachrisson, 1932, p. 10). Zachrisson goes on to conclude that English has the most antiquated, inconsistent and illogical spelling of any modern spelling system - a true handicap for its adoption as a world language.

Zachrisson stated that the Roman alphabet can be adapted for a phonetic spelling of English if we use not only single letters but also letter combinations in order to represent each sound. The great problem, Zachrisson warned, "is to find an orthography which is phonetic in principle, but which at the same time bears sufficient resemblance to present spelling for the two systems to be used side by side for the same purpose" (Zachrisson, 1932, p. 12).

Anglic attempts to answer the need for a new phonemic alphabet for

English without adding any new letters to the alphabet and at the same time keep some continuity with conventional English orthography by generalizing the most common or serviceable of existing spelling variants. The net result is that "practically 60 to 75 percent of the words on the average printed page are left unchanged at the same time that most of the practical advantages of complete and exact phonetic spelling reform are achieved" (Zachrisson, 1932, p. 12).

The original Anglic of 1930 was changed somewhat in 1932 (Iles, 1965). The reasons for the change are explained as follows:

Anglic Spelling has been revised with a view of fulfilling the following conditions:

- (1) To represent every word in one harmonious spelling, reflecting a pronunciation or pronunciations which are commonly used in standard speech,
- (2) to be phonetic in principle but at the same time deviate as little as possible from the existing spelling,
- (3) to take into account different standards of pronunciation,
- (4) to be easily learnt by necessitating as few rules as possible,
- (5) to save space in some words (Zachrisson, 1966, p. 23).

The rules for spelling in Anglic as revised in 1932 are as follows:

Vowels and diphthongs in stressed syllables

1. to 5. Short vowels as in man, men, him, not, tub. 6. to 10. The long vowels merely add a lengthening mark (e) to the short vowel letters, as in maelstrom, see, die, sloe, fuel. When followed by another vowel, the length sign is omitted (as in present spelling): dais, paabl, graer, seing, theori, real, hier, diet, post, snoing (sno.i), nuer, going, fuest, duel, plaing, diing, vuing.

11. Short- oo in good, bull is written: good, bool.
12. Long- oo in moon, lunatic, rude, fool is written muun, luunatik, ruud, fuul.
13. Intermediate ur found in girl, fern, occur, furry, is written gurl, furn, okur, furri.
14. Broad a (Italian) in father, palm, starry, card is written (1) aa, (2) ar, where the existing spelling contains an r pronounced in some dialects as faadher, paam, starri, kard.
15. Broad o in all, haunt, caught is written au, o broad or long in more, for, course, story is written (1) or, where the existing spelling contains an r, (2) oe before r followed by a vowel: aul, haunt, kaut, (1) for, mor, kors, (2) stoeri.
16. The diphthong in coin, boy is written koin, boi.
17. The diphthong in house, cow, sound is written hous, kou, sound.
18. The schwa or lightly pronounced obscure vowel is generally written a: about, admier, data, aeria, iedea, trial. (2) - er in prefixes and endings where the existing spelling has an r: perfekt, saleri, efert, modern, western, iern (iron). (3) Occasionally o or u: kustodi, matrimoni, rekogniez, solueshon, difikult, fakulti, surkemstans. (4) Soemtimes e, as in the endings - el, - en: barel, komen, korel, parchment, aba, ans, reli.ans, pursuans, oeriol.
19. Written o occurs chiefly before a single consonant, as in: -ok -dom, -som, -on, -(i)ot, -uous, -ion, -shon, -yon, -jon, -zhon as in: matok, freedom, random, seldom, abot, balot, chariot, bishop, galop, tempestuosm karion, reejon, naeshon, nashonal, opinyon, vizhon.
20. Written u occurs chiefly in the endings -(i)us, -(i)um, as in: boenus, sensus, surkus, oedius, raedius, buetius, kurtius, kolum, album, meedium, faemus.
21. Short i is written generally (1) i, also finally and before a vowel: mistaek, distrakt, mesinjer, solid, horid, palis, kurij, linin, thikit, forist, muezik; miniatuer, miriad, peeriod, negoeshiaet, raedius, stuedio, aeria, selestial, rufian, oedius, konveenians, piano, fiasko, kordialiti, piti, pitiabl, taxi, muni, hevi, kofi, enemi.

(2) e in pretonic syllables, especially in certain prefixes: be-, de-, e-, en-, ex-, egz-, pre-, re-, se-, and in the following endings: -est, -ez, -ed; -nes, -les, as in beleev, deseev, elastik, entier, exes, egzit, egzamin, prepaer, retier, select; hardest, kaesez, haunted, faernes, kountles.

22. o is written o: obskuer, (but oebae), folo, naroeest, foloer, ominus, (but oemen), oliv, (but oelio).

23. The vowel oftens appears with its full value in a more stresst position in cognate words: kordial, but kordialiti, method - methodikal, industri - industrial, koloni - koloenial. This is regularly the case in words stresst as follows: admiraeshon but admier, supozishon - supoez, relativ - relaet. In spite of this, we should write: mentl - mentalist, speshl - speshaliti, mortl - mortaliti, simbl - simbolikl, similer - similariti, injeri - injuurius.

24. Suffixes not found on the above lists (-dom, -som, -ful, -aet, -abl, -ibl, etc.) are only changed so as to conform with the general rules of Anglic spelling.

Consonants

Only the sounds of k and ng are written in more than one way.

25. The sound of ch is written: chin, much, waach, belch, bench, church; except where the old spelling gives a close proximation of the sound: naetuer, fuetur, murmer.

26. The hard g in get, guide, bag, vague is written g: get, gied, bag, vaeg.

27. The soft sound of g /j/ in bridge, strange, large, jam, gentle, is written: brij, straenj, jam, jentl.

28. The sound of k in keen, cat, act, accent, school, kiss, is written: keen, kat, act, aksent, skuul, kiss, komikl.

29. l, n, t, at the end of words after a consonant, except in such combinations as rl, rn, where a vowel, generally e, must be inserted are written: apl, orakl, ofishl, muuvabl, maep1, madn; but quorel, squirel, squodren. Write al (31) after a vowel or diphtong as well as after unstessed syllables: trial, loial, aktual, admiral, jeneral; kruuel (cruel). Where the ending is pronounced t, use t in place of ed, as in; passed, stressed, missed, write past, strest, mist, but not in weded, wanted, rieted.

30. The sound of ng in sing, stronger, language, bank, lynx, vanquish is written: (1) ng, (2) n before k, x, and q: (1) sing, strongger, langgwij, (2) bank, linx, vanquish.

31. The sound of kw in quite, acquaint, is written qu: quiet, aquaent. But not when k and w are in different syllables, as i awkward-aukwerd.

32. The hard sound of sh in shall, shine, sure, nation, procession, special is written: shal, shien, shurr, naeshon, speshl.

33. The hard th in think, both is written th, as: think, boeth. The soft th in bathe is written dh, as baedh.

34. The sound of w in wet, wine, anguish, persuade, is written: wet, wien, anggwish, perswaed.

35. The sound of wh in white, whet, whine, is written: whiet, whet, whien.

36. The sound of x (ks) is written x when in the existing spelling has x: in other cases, ks, as in box, ax, aksent, akshun, sukses.

37. The sound of y in yes is written y, as in: yes, yet, yonder, milyon, lauyer, uenyon. But not in: ues, uezing.

38. The hard sound of s (c) in cit, boss, circle, cedar, city, civil, is written s: sit, bos, surki, seeder, siti, sivil.

39. The soft sound of s (z) in rose, hoses, zeal, zoz, is written z: roez, hoezez, zeel, zuuz, kumz, handz.

40. The soft sound of sh in usual, vision is written zh: uezhooal, vizhon.

The following rule was added at a later date when a few words were noticed that could be confused:

41. Separate with a dot adjacent letters which are not in the same syllable and which might be mistaken for a usual digraph, as in: shorthand, mishap, outhouse, engage, gaety, reelect, quite, lower, influence, power - short.hand, mis.hap, out,hous, en.gaej, ree.elekt, kwie.et, en.gaej, loe.er, influu.ens, pou.er (Zachrisson, 1966, p. 23).

An example of the original (1930) Anglic is as follows:

Lincoln'z Gettysburg Speech

Forskor and sevn yeerz agoe our faadherz braut forth on this kontinent a nue naeshon, konseevd in liberty, and dedikaeted to the propozishon that aul men ar kreaeted eequel.

Now we ar engaejd in a graet sivil wor, testing whedhr that naeshon, or eny naeshon soe konseevd and soe dedikaeted, kan long enduer. We ar met on a graet batl-feeeld as a fiend resting-plaes for those who heer gæv their lievz that that naeshon miet liv. It is autogedhr fiting and propr that we shood do this....(McCarthy, in Haas, 1969, p. 94).

Anglic was almost immediately submitted to a number of tests.

Courses were given in Stockholm and Uppsala. "After twenty lessons," Zachrisson reported, "the pupils had acquired a working knowledge of English and were able to read not only Anglic but also easy specimens of English in existing spelling" (Zachrisson, 1932, p. 13)

On June 4, 1930, the Anglic Fund was formed for the purpose of making Anglic used and known throughout the world. Two days later, the Anglic Association was formed in Uppsala, Sweden with Zachrisson as its president. The object of the association was to find the solution the problem of an international language. The association produced a monthly paper Anglic Edukaeshonal Revue, "Its ultimate object being to teach Anglic all over the world through the medium of German, French, Swedish, and other languages" (Zachrisson, 1932, p. 14).

At a conference held in London in June, 1930, representatives of

the Anglic movement and leading British and American spelling reformers agreed "to give the Anglic movement their full support and cooperation in their respective countries and through their respective organizations so far as practical, both as an international auxiliary language and as a basis for reform of English spelling for the English-speaking world" (Zachrisson, 1932, p. 14; Dewey, 1971).

One spelling reformer, Ralph Gustafson, of the United States, produced a scheme which he called Simpl Orderli Speling, which was based on Zachrisson's Anglic. Gustafson has introduced some modifications in the system in order to get rid of "a strickli British stiel uv pronunsiashon tu wich moest Amerikanz ar not akustomed." In 1945, Gustafson sent out a circular warning readers that his system "iz experimental and must not be regarded az definit or fienal" (cited in Mencken, 1948, p. 289). This was the first and last word on Simpl Orderli Speling, and nothing else ever came of the system.

Nue Spelling

World War II did not stop the activities of spelling reformers. In 1940, a digraphic system of spelling was developed and published by the Simplified Spelling Society in Britain. Christened "Nue Spelling," the system closely approximated the system developed by Zachrisson in 1930 (Pitman & St. John, 1969; Iles, 1965).

The principles upon which Nue Spelling was based can be summarized as follows:

1. No new characters to be introduced.

2. No new accents or diacritics to be introduced, and detached marks as such to be used in any case as sparingly as possible.
3. Unused or relatively unfamiliar combinations of letters to be avoided as far as possible (though some exceptions to this are inevitable).
4. Current usage to remain unaltered wherever common sense and expediency suggest. This 'principle of least disturbance' means that as far as possible each sound should be written with its most habitual single letter (or pair of letters).
5. Each symbol (letter or digraph) to be self-contained, that is, its significance not to depend on any other letter in the sequence. This precludes, e.g., the doubling of consonant letters to indicate the (short) value of the preceding vowel.
6. The complete scheme to be thorough-going, simple, regular and free from exceptions and anomalies, economical, easy to learn and use, and no concessions to be made to the habits of generations brought up on our present spelling, if future generations might thereby be inconvenienced (Haas, 1969, pp. 94-95).

The principal changes required by the Nue Spelling system are summarized as follows:

1. The replacement of (nearly) every long a and of every ai, ay, ei, ey, eigh, pronounced as long a by the symbol ae.
2. The replacement of (nearly) every long e and of every ea, ei, ie, and i pronounced as long e by the symbol ee.
3. The replacement of (nearly) every long i and of every y and igh pronounced as long i by the symbol ie.
4. The replacement of (nearly) every long o and of every oa as well as every ou, ow pronounced as long o by the symbol oe.
5. The replacement of every long u and of every eu, ew, ui, pronounced as long u by the symbol ue.
6. The replacement of every oo, u, ue, ui, ew,

pronounced as long oo by the symbol uu.

7. The replacement of the combinations ar, air, er, eir, pronounced as air by the symbol aer .

8. The replacement of the combinations er, ear, ir, yr when occurring in stressed syllables with the pronunciation of final or preconsonantal er, ir, ur by the symbol ur.

9. The replacement of unstressed i and e pronounced as short or consonantal i before a following vowel by the symbol y and the replacement of a by e in the unstressed suffixes -age, -ate, -ace.

10. The replacement of (nearly) all double consonants by single consonants, in both medial and final position.

11. The replacement of c by s and k respectively according to the pronunciation; of g by j when it has its soft sound; of s by z when it represents the voiced s sound; si, ssi, ti by sh when they represent the voiceless sh sound, and of si and s by zh when they stand for the voiced sh sound (Wijk, 1977, pp. 103-104).

Lincoln's Gettysburg Address
in Nue Spelling

Forskor and seven yeerz agoe our faadherz braut forth on dhis kontinent a nue naeshon, konseevd in liberti, and dedikaeted to dhe proposishon dhat aul men ar kreeaeted eekwal.

Nou we are en/gaejd in a graet sivil wor, testing whedher dhat naeshon, or eni naeshon soe konseevd and soe dedikaeted, kan long enduer. We ar met on a graet batlfeeld ov dhat wor. We hav kum to dedikaet a porshon ov dhat feeld as a fienal resting-plaes for dhoes huu gaev dhaer lievz dhat dhat naeson miet liv. It iz aultogedher fiting and proper dhat we shood duu dhis....(Haas, 1969, pp. 95-96).

P.A.D. McCarthy made these points:

...which will have no doubt occurred to many of you while reading the foregoing specimen. The first point worth making is surely this: that although you may have been held up in your reading momentarily by this word or that, and although (if you have never looked at New Spelling before) you must have been struck initially by the appearance of many

words, nevertheless you were able to make out the passage--in other words, New Spelling can be read at sight. In fact about a third of all words, including an even higher proportion of the commonest words, are spelt in New Spelling as they are spelt now; a further third at least are only very slightly changed, and still others, though more extensively altered, are none the less immediately recognizable. Of course if you were already to know the relevant facts as to which letters stand for which sounds in the system, you would have no difficulty in reading all words at sight.

Secondly, usage as regards spacing, punctuation and capitalization remains unaltered. It would be perfectly possible to use New Spelling and, for instance, abolish all capitals, or write question-marks at the beginning as well as at the end of each question-sentence, as is done in Spanish, but these things are not themselves part and parcel of New Spelling.

It should next be pointed out that the text of the above passage (it is of course Abraham Lincoln's famous Gettysburg Address) is rendered into an English pronunciation, though obviously originally spoken with an American one. This enables me to draw attention to the fact that New Spelling allows for a certain amount of regional variation in pronunciation to be shown, as regards the distribution of sounds (thus an American would probably say, and could therefore write, advanst where most forms of British English would have advanst), but that a general-purpose orthography is most effective when designed to show the essential linguistic distinctions only, and not all the other personal or regional differences; and in fact a true New Spelling version of an American rendering of the passage need differ from the above in no more than perhaps half a dozen places. The almost complete standardization of spellings which the New Spelling system makes possible is naturally of great practical importance where the printing of books for world-wide use is involved, but at the same time a fair number of existing alternative pronunciations of individual words (alternatives even for British speakers) can in fact be indicated, and would then be likely to appear in, for instance, personal correspondence. A complete dictionary of New Spelling would therefore list the alternative spellings possible within the framework of the system (P.A.D. McCarthy, in Haas, 1969, pp. 96-97).

One of the most striking departures made by New Spelling is the

use of dh for the voiced sound of th. The letters q and x are not used, as they are considered redundant. Nue Spelling uses a combination of letters to make up for this omission; e.g., kwiet - quite, ekstend - extend, egzist - exist, angzie.eti - anxiety. Another notable innovation is the use of a dot placed on the line within a word at a point of syllabic division when ambiguity is present, as in mis.hap, pou.er, angzie.eti.

Another change in Nue Spelling that affects a large number of words is the replacement by j of g and dg when they have a soft pronunciation, as in jem, juj, lej, and baj. Also, the various spelling of the /sh/ sound, as in nation, ocean, tension, and suspicion, are replaced with shon. "Nue Spelling was on the whole systematic but it was never intended that it should be phonemically perfect 'because reason suggests that the gap between the old spelling and the new should be made as small as possible without sacrifice of simplicity and consistency'" (Pitman & St. John, 1969, p. 97).

The Simplified Spelling Society prepared a number of books to be used as beginning readers for the schools, including Dhe Railwae Enjin, Three Baerz, Dhe Enchanted Hors, Sinbad dhe Saelor, Aladin, Sinderela, Sleeping Buety, and Dhe Litl Red Hen (Pitman & St. John, 1969. See Figure 18). Also published by the SSS was the book, Nue Spelling, (Ripman & Archer, 1948) which contained the philosophy behind the reform proposal, as well as the use of the system. The book apparently had some impact, for in 1949, a spelling reform bill based

Figure 18. A specimen of Nue Spelling.



"Huu wil help to
miks mie flour and
to maek sum
bred?" sed dhe Litl
Red Hen.

"Not I," sed dhe
poosy

"Not I," sed dhe
pupy

"Not I," sed dhe
piggy

Note. From Dhe Litl Red Hen (n.p.) by The Simplified Spelling
Society, 1945, London: Heffer and Sons, Ltd.

on the principles of Nue Spelling was introduced in Parliament. Although the bill had strong and vociferous support, it never passed (Wijk, 1977; Reed, 1972; Harrison, 1964).

Axel Wijk's Regularized English

In 1959, Axel Wijk, Docent in English at the University of Stockholm, published a book, Regularized English/Regularized English after years of study and research. This study was followed in 1966 by his Rules for the Pronunciation of the English Language wherein he presented a thorough discussion of the relationship between English spelling and pronunciation (Pitman & St. John, 1969).

Originally, Wijk's chief purpose for the research was to make a thorough scholarly investigation of the whole problem of spelling reform with the intent of trying to discover why these proposals have all come to naught. "It took me (Wijk) several years to work through the various sound symbols systematically, to collect and arrange all exceptional spellings, to discover and formulate the rules for pronunciation...and finally to collect and arrange the statistics concerning the distribution of the irregular spelling" (Wijk, 1959, p. 52).

The results of Wijk's investigation showed that the majority of English words, "about 90 to 95 percent actually follow certain regular patterns in regard to their spelling and pronunciation" (Wijk, 1959, p. 52). Wijk's rules to explain this high percentage of regularity occupy over 100 pages of his book.

Wijk maintained that many people have an exaggerated idea as to

the number of symbols that are used in ordinary English spelling. He explains:

We find in spoken Standard English 46 different speech sounds, 21 vowels and diphthongs, and 25 consonants. In the written form of the language, the 21 vowels and diphthongs are normally represented by 60 different symbols and the 25 consonant sounds by 44 symbols, as given in the lists below.

Symbols of simple vowels and diphthongs: a, e, i, y, o, u; ar, er, ir, yr, or, ur; aa, ae, ae, ai, ay, au, aw, ea, ee, ei, ey, eu, ew, ie, ye, oa, oe, oe, oi, oy, oo, ou, ow, ue, ui, uy; aer, air, ayr, ear, eer, eyr, eur,, ew(e)r, iar, ier, yer, oar, oor, our, ow(e)r, uer; igh, aigh, augh, eigh, ough = 60

Symbols of consonant sounds: b, c, ch, d, dg, f, g, gh, gn, gu, h, j, k, l, m, n, ng, p, ph, q, qu, r, s, sc, sch, sh, si, ssi, sci, ti, ci, ce, t, tch, th, u, v, w, wh, x, xc, y, z, zi = 44

If we add up the vowel and consonant symbols, we find that the 46 sounds of the spoken language are normally represented by 102 symbols in the written language (60 plus 44 minus 2, since u and y stand for both vowel and consonant sounds). If double consonants are added, we get 15 more symbols: bb, cc, dd, ff, gg, ck, or cq (instead of 'kk'), ll, mm, nn, pp, rr, ss, tt, vv, zz.

When it is sometimes said that there are more than 250 different symbols (or even many more) for the 46 speech sounds, this is only due to a peculiar way of counting, which we need hardly enter into in this connection (Wijk, 1959, p. 80).

Wijk argued that to spell all words according to phonetic principles would lead to such extensive changes in the present system that it would not stand the slightest chance of acceptance. The only alternative, as he saw it, was to examine symbols and try to determine how these should be used in a reformed orthography, to decide which use or uses may be conveniently retained and which should not. Generally

speaking, this meant the retention of all regular or most frequent uses of various sound symbols, and the respelling of irregular or less frequent representations. This meant then that since there is generally more than one regular or frequent spelling pattern there could be more than one acceptable spelling of that particular sound.

For example, Regularized English gives three regular spellings for the i -sound, as found in jest, gem, bridge, three regular spellings for the k -sound as found in cat, king, (plus x for / ks /, as in tax). Three regular spelling for the voiceless s -sound as found in side, certain, scene (plus x for / ks / as in tax); and five regular spellings for the sh -sound, as found in ship, nation, tension, mission, special.

The vowel sounds can also be expressed in a variety of regular alternative spelling patterns. For example, Regularized English gives five regular spellings for the long a sound as in sale, sail, way, vein, they (plus eigh as in weigh); four regular spellings for the long e -sound, as in be, see, sea, piece; five regular spellings for the long i -sound, as in write, by, lie, lye, right; three regular spellings for the long u -sound as in duty, due, neuter, new, suit. Wijk also allowed multiple alternatives for the other vowel sounds; five regular spellings for au -sound and five for oo -sound.

Wijk's system does not introduce new symbols, but reforms the spelling by making it more "regular" by discarding all irregular ways of writing phonemes or phonemic groups. Since there is more than one

way to state a phonemic fact, as pointed out above, Wijk's scheme is able to preserve an important aspect of the traditional orthography, namely its ability to differentiate homophones by spelling them differently. Thus, in Regularized English, one can still distinguish blue from blew, sea from see, and hear from here. In this way, Wijk maintains that he manages to retain the graphic picture of traditional spelling in more than 90% of English spellings, while Nue Spelling can do this only in 10% or less (Wijk, 1977).

Wijk gives the following examples of how Regularized English looks in print:

1. Objections to a Change in the Present Spelling. We instinctivly shrink from eny change in whot iz familiar; and whot can be more familiar than the form ov wurds that we hav seen and written more times than we can possibly estimate? We take up a book printed in America, and honor and center jar upon us every time we cum across them; nay, even to see forever in place ov for ever attracts our attention in an unplezant way. But theze ar isolated cases; think ov the meny wurds that wood hav to be chainged if eny real improvement were to rezult. At the first glaance a passage in eny reformd spelling looks 'queer' and 'ugly.' This objection iz aulwayz the first to be made; it iz perfectly natural; it iz the hardest to remoove. Indeed, its effect iz not weakened until the new spelling iz no longer new, until it haz been seen offen enuff to be familiar.

2. By the adoption ov such a system ov spelling az Regularized English it wood be possible to lay down definit rules ov pronunciation for the English language, which wood make it considerable eazier for children to lern to read and write. In aul probability it wood lead to a saving ov at least wun year's wurk for aul scoolechildren. It wood aulso contribute very largely towardz abolition ov the existing amount ob illiteracy and backwardness in reading. Finally, it wood remoove the principal obstacle that prevents English from becumming a truly international language (Wijk, in Haas, 1969, p. 61).

Concerning the advantages of using Regularized English over other systems involving spelling changes, Wijk emphasizes the following four:

1. Regularized English offers a reformed system of spelling for English which is sufficiently phonetic in character to permit of its being taught in accordance with definite rules of pronunciation. It employs the traditional alphabet and uses its various letters and combinations of letters in the same way as they are normally used in the present orthography. It preserves the traditional spelling in about 90 percent of the total vocabulary, but abolishes all irregular spellings and replaces them by regular ones.
2. Regularized English can be used simply as a new, more efficient method for teaching reading but keeps the way open to a future spelling reform, in case it should prove desirable to carry out such a reform.
3. Regularized English gives a clear idea of the general structure of the present English spelling system and shows what are its regular and its irregular features.
4. With its simplified spelling, Regularized English is eminently suitable for use as a medium of international communication. On account of its reliable and comparatively simple rules of pronunciation it can be taught with ease both to such foreigners as have already learnt to read their own native language, and to the inhabitants of developing countries who may not have any literature in their own language or who may not at present have any written spelling between Regularized English and ordinary English makes it extremely easy to transfer from the former to the latter, in reading as well as writing. As far as mere reading is concerned, books in traditional orthography would be accessible without any difficulty (Haas, 1969, pp. 69-70).

In 1977, Axel Wijk published a new version of Regularized English which contained a proposal for a solution to the reading problem in English-speaking countries. In his new work, Wijk claimed that the phonics method of teaching reading would have more relevance when the 5 to 10 percent of the irregular spellings were replaced by more regular ones.

Wijk's two-part reading proposal is presented in several chapters of his book. The first part introduces the beginning reader to five letters for the short vowel sound, 21 consonant letters and various consonant digraphs. In the second part, Wijk's reading proposals become quite complicated as he introduces 72 phonic units (phonograms or spellings) representing vowel sounds of stressed syllables (Wijk, 1977).

The major points of Wijk's reading proposals have been summarized by Emmett Betts:

1. Traditional spellings are antiquated; therefore, present major hazards to beginners who are learning to read and write.
2. A major spelling reform is quite remote as evidenced by previous failures of partial or all-out proposals.
3. A spelling system for use with beginners in reading appears to be a possibility and maybe a probability.
4. The low application/exception ratio of phonic rules imposes serious limitations on extant phonic methods and introduces confusions that contribute to reading difficulties.
5. There is an immediate need to legitimate phonic instruction via some type of regularized English.
6. Experimental studies by a multi-disciplinary group are prerequisite to spelling reform (Betts, 1976, p. 16).

Axel Wijk wrote that:

The essential characteristic of Regularized English is that it is NOT a new system of spelling for English. It is in fact nothing but the regular system of spelling that is inherent in ordinary English and which emerges when we eliminate the 5 to 10 percent of irregular spellings in the language and replace them by regular ones. Though this system is considerably more complicated than a pure phonetic

system of spelling, the important thing is that it is regular and therefore can be taught according to definite rules of pronunciation, such as we find in other languages with reasonably "phonetic" systems (Wijk, in Haas, 1969, p. 85).

Wijk's Regularized English still has its proponents, many of whom view the system as one of the the most promising and viable of the current spelling reform proposals. There has, however, been no attempt to use this system in the schools, nor has there been wide public acceptance of the scheme.

Frank C. Laubach's
English the New Way

Frank C. Laubach began to achieve world-wide fame in 1953 by teaching an experimental group of 50 volunteer teachers to use a new digraphic and diacritical marking system called "English the New Way" At first the system consisted of a phonetic alphabet of 42 letters. Most of the Roman letters were used with vowel digraphs to denote long vowels (ae, ee, ie, oe, ue). Since this process made the vowels "pile up" (as in vaereeaeshon, gradueaeshon, and creeaeshon, etc.), Laubach began using slanting lines for the long vowels: so/, we/ be/gan just be/cause it was conve/nient on the ty/pewri/ter. The slanting lines met with opposition and were subesequently replaced with a macron over the long vowels.

Laubach began a series of experimentation and research projects and came to the conclusion that there are 54 spellings that occur frequently enough to be considered as regular. These 54 regular spellings, in addition to the 42 basic sounds produced a code of 96

symbols that can be used to spell every word in the English language. (Laubach, 1960). As Laubach expressed it:

If you confine yourself to only 42 letters, you throw out most of the perfectly regular spellings as they are found in the English language. You cut out three-fourths of the good apples in order to get rid of those rotten spots, irregular spellings. But our purpose is not to reform good spellings, but only to reform the irregular spellings. So we include all these 96 good regular ways of spellings. This includes some 60% of all words (Laubach, 1968, pp. 5-6).

Laubach claimed that it took a student about two months to become proficient in the new system, and that he could say every sound instantaneously:

After that, he can pronounce 5,000 words, 10,000, 100,000, all the words in the dictionary. Compare that with the primary schools where children learn 350 words the first year (Laubach, 1968, p. 6).

In August, 1967, Laubach went to Hong Kong to test his new system on non-English speaking Chinese. English the New Way was printed and used in adult education courses at a local YMCA. The text was supplemented by a chart of four pages, designed to teach the sounds of English. Within two months the Chinese students were reading simple stories from English the New Way and could pronounce the 5,000 words found in the glossary (although often the meaning was not understood). The following is an example of English the New Way:

With these 96 "key" spellings, you can pronounce every regular spelling in the English language.

The 42 Basic Soundz

b	c	d	f	g	h
j	l	m	n	p	r
s	t	v	w	y	z

x a e i o u
a e i o u er
oo uu or aw ow oi
sh ch zh ng th th

Key tw
Correct Regular "New Spellingz"
Wurds Illustrating theze Soundz

big	car	did	fix	get	hat
jump	leg	man	now	pin	run
sun	ten	verry	will	yet	zipper
six	at	end	it	hot	us
able	even	child	over	united	her
food	buuk	for	saw	now	oil
she	much	mezchure	sing	this	thing

54 uther regular wayz two spell

<u>basic</u>	<u>uther regular wayz tw spell</u>				<u>wurdz illustrating theze spellingz</u>			
i	y				pity			
a	ae	ai	ay	a-e	graet	maid	day	made
e	ee	ea	ey	e-e	bee	eat	key	complete
i	ie	igh	y	i-e	tie	high	my	wide
o	oe	oa	ow	o-e	toe	load	low	hope
u	ue	ew	yoo	u-e	value	few	yoo	tune
o	aa	an	ar	orr	faather	Jonah	car	sorry
a			arr				carry	
er	ur	urr	ir		burn	hurry	bird	
er	ear	eer	irr	ere	hear	cheer	mirror	here
ar	air	aer	err	are	hair	baer	merry	care
aw	au	ong			auto	song		
or	oar	our	oor	ore	roar	four	floor	more
oo	ww	w				tw(2)	tw(to)	too
c	k	ck			kill	kick		
c	s				cent	place	city	
kw	qu				quick			
x	cks				checks			
x	egz				eggz	exactly	example	
ow	ou				ou			
oi	oy				boy			
ng					singer			
ngg					fingger			
f	ph				photograph			
ul	le				apple			
th	tth				bretth	thing		

(Laubach, 1968, p. 7).

Interest in English the New Way spread rapidly, and with the blessing of the U.S. Simpler Spelling Association. Shortly after the initial experimentation, the Hong Kong Baptist College and Augsburg Lutheran College replaced their old English courses with English the New Way. Six other schools also agreed to use the new system. Once called "the greatest breakthrough in teaching English in 200 years" (Laubach, 1968, p. 8), it soon fell into desuetude after Laubach's death in 1970.

Godfrey Dewey's
World English Spelling

The U.S. Simpler Spelling Association was formed in 1946 from the merger of the Spelling Reform Association and the Simplified Spelling Board. That same year, the SSA presented a system of digraphic respelling called World English Spelling, a system similar to New Spelling (Dewey, 1971; Pitman & St. John, 1969). Largely the work of Godfrey Dewey, son of Melvil Dewey, WES was originally intended to be an initial teaching medium, and not a system of permanent spelling reform (Dewey, 1978).

To teach children to read effectively is increasingly being recognized as the paramount problem of American education. In this effort, it has long been realized that the complex irregularities of our traditional orthography (T.O.) are a chief obstacle. The simple and obvious way to remove this handicap would be to reform our English spelling, but that long sought goal still lies one or two generations in the future. There is, however, an immediately available alternative which minimizes the impact of our spelling difficulties—a phonemic notation to be used for the first

teaching of reading and writing, to be followed by a complete transition to reading and writing English in its traditional form. Such an initial teaching medium (i.t.m.) is not spelling reform but an educational tool, to be judged strictly on its merits in producing better results more quickly....

WES, in the modified form here presented, assigns the same values to the 24 Roman alphabet letters when written singly, but supplies the remaining phonemic symbols required by standardized combinations of the Roman letters (usually familiar digraphs) instead of new characters, and makes substantially the same concessions from strictly phonemic writing made in i.t.a. keeping strictly within the resources of the universally available Roman alphabet (Dewey, 1968, pp. 1, 8).

A number of writers have referred to WES as the "typewriter version of i.t.a." because they both derive most of their phonemic structure and much of their symbolization from the same source (Dewey, 1968, p. 18. The i.t.a. is examined in Chapter IV of this work.) The twenty-four Roman letters used in i.t.a. are assigned identical values in WES. Of the 20 new i.t.a. characters, 13 are obvious blends of the corresponding WES digraphs, except for the WES trigraph thh. The remaining seven i.t.a. characters correspond to WES thus:

i.t.a.:	ø	ɜ	ʒ	ŋ	æ	ω	ω
WES:	r	s	z	ng	aa	uu	oo

World English Spelling, like i.t.a., uses a dot to separate confusing syllables (short.hand, en.gage) in the earliest stages of learning. A ligature, or small line, is used to connect the digraphs during the initial teaching process to show that the digraph is a unitary symbol. In the later stages of reading in WES, neither of these devices are employed.

Emmett A. Betts has listed the advantages of WES over other systems, including i.t.a.:

1. It employs 24 of the 26 letters of the universally understood Roman alphabet.
2. A standard typewriter may be used.
3. Digraphs rather than ligatured characters are employed...
4. The common spellings for speech sounds (phonemes) are based on the extensive research of Dr. Godfrey Dewey.
5. WES spelling have been simplified for the i.t.m. version; e.g., th is used for both the voiceless sound in think and the voiced sound in there.
6. A dictionary, World English Spelling (WES) dictionary, lists the few guidelines, spelling rules, and the spelling of about 3,600 commonly used words, as is done for i.t.a.
7. The spellings are highly compatible with T.O., as is true of i.t.a.
8. The names of the letters usually recorded in standard dictionaries are retained and respelled in WES: e.g., the name of the letter b is bee, not buh. (This procedure minimizes the probabilities of a teacher telling a child that the first letter of bat is buh—a confusing absurdity of the first rank.)
9. The need for the schwa sound in unstressed syllables is solved by retaining "any single vowel letter of T.O., or when that might be misleading, write /e/." (WES Dictionary, p. 24). For example:

<u>Word</u>	<u>Dictionary Respelling</u>	<u>WES</u>
belief	/be-'lef/	beleef
quiet	/'kwi-t/	kwie.et
common	/'kam-n/	common

10. Syllable-by-syllable reading (i.e., the stressing of all syllables observed in some classrooms) is reduced by respelling certain unstressed syllables, as in captain-capten, stable-staeb1, situation-situeashon, probable-probab1.

11. To avoid 'clumsy' spellings, a redundant spelling ue is used for the /yu/ glide, as in i.t.a. For example, the letter y as in yet and the oo as in moon are available, but few is simply spelled fue rather than fyoo.
12. Diacritical markings are obviated by employing digraphs, as sh in sure-shoor, sugar-shuugar, ng in finger-finger, versus singer-singer.
13. Lower case letters are used, as in i.t.a., so that the child will not have to learn different letters (graphic shapes) for the F-f, G-g, and so on.
14. Spellings with zero or almost no signals (predicability) of sounds are significantly reduced as roadblocks to reading; e.g., one-wun, once-wuns, you-yoo, eight-aet, does, duz (Betts, 1976, pp. 10-11).

WORLD ENGLISH SPELLING
(WES)

Consonants as in

p	pay, happy, cap
b	bay, rubber, cab
t	town, letter, bit
d	down, ladder, bid
k	keep, week, back, expect, quite
g	game, ragged, bag, exact
f	fast, office, photograph, safe
v	vast, never, save
thh	thought, nothing, both
th	that, rather
s	seal, lesson, city, race, base
z	zeal, puzzle, is, raise, size
m	might, common, them
sh	shall, pressure, nation, wish
zh	pleasure, vision, rouge
j	just, general, stage, judge
n	night, dinner, then
ng	thing, long, going, single
nk	think, bank, uncle, ankle
l	late, fellow, deal
r	rate, married, dear
w	wet, forward, one, quick
wh	which, everywhere
y	yet, beyond, million

h had, behind, who
 ch check, church, watch

Vowels and Digraphs as in

a at, man, ask, about, data
 aa alms, father, bah
 ar army, market, far
 e edge, men, said, head, any
 ae age, main, say, air
 i it, him, pretty, give
 ee each, here, see, be
 o on, bother, not, was, what
 au author, law, all, water, ought
 or order, north, for, story, more
 u up, other, but, some, touch
 oe old, note, goes, so, coal, show
 uu full, sure, should, good
 oo fool, move, group, rule, too
 ie ice, tie, kind, might, by
 ou out, pound, now, bough
 oi oil, point, boy
 ue use, your, music, due, few
 er further, collar, motor, murmur
 ur further, her, early, first, work
 (Dewey, 1968, p. 32).

Linkon's Getizberg Adres
 in World English Spelling

Forskor and seven yeers agoe our faatherz braut forthh on this kontinent a nue naeshon, konseevd in liberti, and dedikaeted to the propozishon that aul men ar kreeaeted eekwal.

Nou wee ar en.gaejd in a graet sivil wor, testing whether that naeshon, or eni naeshon soe konseevd and so dedikaeted, kan long enduer. Wee ar met on a graet batlfeeld ov that wor. We hav kum to dedikaet a porshon ov that feeld as a fienal resting-plaes for thoez hoo heer gaev thaer lievz that that naeshon miet liv. It iz aultogether fiting and proper that wee shuud doo this....(Dewey, 1968, p. 32).

Although Godfrey Dewey died October 8, 1977, World English Spelling still has a number of adherents who view the system as a transitional spelling reform (Dewey, 1978, note; Hildreth, 1975; Bowyer, 1970).

The Spelling Action Society's SR1

The spelling reform effort in Great Britain is more than 600 years old. Spelling reform has been the goal of many Americans for 200 years. Not until 1969, however, did Australia join the "rumpus" to reform English spelling (O'Connor, 1976). It was in that year that Harry Lindgren, a former teacher and author, first presented his scheme for spelling reform in his book, Spelling Reform: A New Approach.

Lindgren's approach to spelling reform is a gradual one. Spelling Reform One (SR1) would be to write the clear short vowel sound as in bet with an e in all cases (Yule, 1976). While it affects only a small number of words (see following list), Lindgren writes that "it is a significant step in the right direction" (Lindgren, 1969, p. 19). Later steps in the reform movement, SR2, SR3,...SR50,

...are deliberately left fluid...for we have several years to think about them....But there will eventually be a master plan, consisting of the changes that will bring us a substantial part of the way towards the spelling aimed at, in a serial order chosen so that they interfere with one another as little as possible, and so that the anomalies inevitably introduced are minimal compared with those removed. The master plan will not be a straitjacket, but we will feel our way forward, always guided by experience, always ready to modify the approach to the goal and even the goal itself (Lindgren, 1969, pp. 26-27).

In 1971, Harry Lindgren became one of the founders of the Australian Spelling Action Society, whose specific purpose was to promote the use of SR1 in all English speaking countries. At the same time, Lindgren became Executive Secretary of the Society and editor of

its monthly newsletter, Spelling Action. Within a few years of its inception, the SAS had representatives in the United States, India, and New Zealand, and promoters in most other English speaking countries of the world. SRI gained greater recognition when Prince Philip of England, long an advocate of spelling reform, announced his support of the system (O'Connor, 1976).

In September 1974, SRI received its biggest boost when the Executive Board of the Tasmanian Teachers' Federation adopted Spelling Reform Step One at its Executive Meeting and later called for its adoption at the Australian Teachers' Federation meeting in Sydney in 1975. The motion supporting the use of SRI as an alternative spelling system in Australian schools was approved, sparking a spirited debate in the press (O'Connor, 1976).

In that same year, the Victorian Action Committee Against Illiteracy, VACAI, an organization of parents concerned about the illiteracy problem, after three months of study and at the request of the Victorian Technical Teachers' Union seeking guidelines for its own attitudes, arrived at the following conclusions:

The difficulties of English spelling are a major handicap for many learners, particularly those already facing other handicaps. On consideration of the evidence so far before it, VACAI emphatically points out that we consider the basic cause of illiteracy to lie in the injustices of our economic system, and that spelling reform in our society could become a diversion in the fight against illiteracy.

However, we have arrived at the following conclusions:
a) Modification of the irregularities of English spelling is both desirable and possible. b) The modification proposed (Spelling Reform 1) is in line with the way spelling has

changed in the past, and if given a trial, could either point the way to further reforms, or demonstrate its impracticability. c) As the meeting place of English and American spelling, Australia is in a unique position to pioneer. d) In the current climate of change, a unilateral modification such as SR1 is likely to be taken up, once the way has been led. e) There is some evidence that the opposition to reform by some of the more literate and vocal sections of the community is not shared by the public, particularly the less literate.

However, caution is still required. There are still questions to ask and problems to be overcome...

While favourable to spelling reform and open-minded in its encouragement of research and experimentation, VACAI does not at present regard the promotion of reform as part of our mandate in our fight against illiteracy.

VACAI therefore recommends that for a two-year period:

1. Research, experimentation and investigation in spelling and spelling reform should be actively encouraged by all concerned with illiteracy.

2. Teachers and public generally should become familiar with the issues.

3. Students, teachers and members of the public generally who choose to try SR1 (spelling the short 'e' sound with 'e' as in 'bet') should not be penalized; i.e. that dual spellings be permitted, as they are in many words already in dictionaries ("Extracts," 1975, p. 5).

From 1975 to 1980, many articles appeared in Australian newspapers and magazines using SR1. During that period, four books were published using SR1. The first was entitled Escape to Elysium by L.J.J. Nye. This was followed in quick order by Reef Poems by Mark O'Connor, one of Australia's leading poets, In the Pub by Rosemary Waters, and The Coals of Juniper by Graham Jackson (O'Connor, 1976).

All members of the Spelling Action Society receive a list of words

to be spelled according to SR1. Samples of more common spellings are given in the "Short List" below.

<u>Present Spelling</u>	<u>SR1</u>
abreast	abrest
again	agen
against	agenst
ahead	ahed
already	alredy
any	eny
ate	et
bread	bred
breadth	bredth
breakfast	brekfast
breast	brest
bury	bery
cleanliness	clenliness
cleanse	clense
dead	ded
deaf	def
dealt	delt
death	deth
dread	dred
dreamt	dremt
endeavour	endeavour
feather	fether
friend	frend
guess	gess
guest	gest
haemorrhage	hemorrhage
haemorrhoids	hemorrhoids
head, -head	hed, -hed
health	helth
heather	hether
heaven	heven
heavy	hevy
instead	insted
jealous	jelous
jeopardy	jepardy
lead (metal)	led
leant	lent
leapt	lept
leather	lether
leaven	leven
leisure	lesure
leopard	lepard
many	meny

meadow	medow
meant	ment
measure	mesure
peasant	pesent
pheasant	phesant
pleasant	plesant
read (past)	red
ready	redy
realm	relm
said	sed
says	ses
spread	spred
steady	stedy
stealth	stelth
sweat	swet
sweater	sweter
thread	thred
threat	thret
threepence	threponce
treachery	trechery
tread	tred
treadle	tredle
treasure	tresure
wealth	welth
weapon	wepon
weather	wether
zealous	zelous

(Lindgren, 1969, pp. 122-126).

It is too early yet to say whether SRI is a movement whose time has come; but there is one issue which even its opponents may care to ponder. Imagine that all reform proposals fail, and continue to fail for the next three centuries; so that the English of 2250 A.D. is still being written essentially according to the pronunciation of 1650 A.D. or earlier. If so, one prediction is safe: no one but scholars will be using it (O'Connor, 1976, p. 165).

Summary

For the past seven centuries of its history, the English language has been beset with numerous proposals and attempts to simplify its

spelling. These schemes have met with varying degrees of success, and have not gone unopposed. To this day, spelling reformers press on with a missionary zeal, and the words of Paul Monroe are indicative of the feelings of those who would simplify our orthography:

Every simplification, however slight, will help to lift a burden from the shoulders of future generations. It will save the time of the child and the money of the parent; and, what is even more valuable, it will remove a stumbling-block from the child's path, since every restored analogy will relieve him from reliance on his memory to the neglect of his reason. It will render English swifter of acquirement by the immigrant, and thereby it will help to fit the alien for citizenship. It will render English easier for the foreigner now perplexed and repelled by the inconsistencies of the existing orthography. Whatever hastens the simplification of English spelling will aid in the wider acceptance of English as a world language; and it will, therefore, help bring us nearer to a better international understanding and to peace on earth and good will toward men (Monroe, 1915, pp. 395-396).

CHAPTER IV
AUGMENTED AND NON-ROMANIC ALPHABETS

Introduction

This chapter examines some of the many attempts to reform English orthography by employing augmented or non-romanian alphabets designed since 1789. Attempts to produce and popularize these types of phonetic alphabets prior to that time are examined in Chapter III. An augmented alphabet is an expanded romanian (also called Latin) alphabet designed to make reading and spelling easier by the addition of letters or characters so that each grapheme represents only one phoneme, and each phoneme is, in turn, represented by only one grapheme. A non-romanian alphabet is one in which the traditional letters of the alphabet are discarded and replaced by characters designed to represent a particular phoneme. The following alphabets will be presented in this order:

1. William Thornton's Universal Alphabet
2. Isaac J. Pitman's Phonotype
3. Edwin Leigh's Pronouncing Orthography
4. Alexander Melville Bell's Visible Speech
5. George Bernard Shaw and the Shavian Alphabet
6. James Pitman's i.t.a.
7. John R. Malone's Unifon

William Thornton's Universal Alphabet

Dr. William Thornton, physician, inventor, architect (Thornton designed the U.S. Capitol), first Superintendent of Patents for the United States, artist, and author, was also the presenter of a plan for a Universal Alphabet to be used with all languages (Aikman, 1966). In 1793, Thornton wrote Cadmus, or a Treatise on the Elements of Written Language, which was awarded the Magellanic Medal of the American Philosophical Society for his "Prize Dissertation." As Cadmus of Thebes brought the Phoenician alphabet to the Greeks (Pei, 1965), so Thornton would bring his Universal Alphabet to the world.

In Cadmus, Thornton presented his aims for the Universal Alphabet which included not only improving the speech of school children, peasants, and foreigners, but also to serve as an alphabet for those countries which did not yet have one. His advocacy of phonemic spelling and the decision to supply new characters for phonemes "improperly" represented in traditional orthography came as a byproduct of his work on teaching the deaf (Scragg, 1974).

Exhorting his countrymen to have the good sense and courage to seek independence in the use of language, Thornton explained that past failure to reform orthography was due to "ancient prejudices" and "erroneous custom." He then presented a plea for an international alphabet that would not only improve the lot of American school children, but which also could be used to record the speech of other languages and be pronounced by those who knew the alphabet. He went on

to say that this "Universal Alphabet ought to contain a single mark or character, as the representative of each sound which is possible for the human breath to utter. No mark should represent two or three distinct sounds; nor should any simple sound be represented by two or three different characters" (Thornton, 1793, p. 11). Tauber (1958) has synthesized the gains which would come from the Universal Alphabet:

1. Foreign languages could be learned more easily.
2. Pronunciation would improve if letters and symbols really represented sounds which could quickly be imitated or reproduced.
3. Incorrect spelling would be obviated.
4. The ability to read would be gained more quickly (p. 63).

Dr. Thornton provided symbols only for English sounds at first, with other characters to be added later to serve as a truly universal alphabet. He analyzed each sound and explained with key words the symbols of his alphabet. Thornton's script had thirty symbols, eliminating c, q, and x, and adding J, I, o, 7, L, e, and o. Thornton also doubled vowels for length, as seen in Figure 19.

While there is no record of Thornton's Universal Alphabet being used either in the schools or for private use, many of the concepts and symbols of his work appeared later in the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association (IPA) (Tauber, 1958).

Isaac Pitman's Phontype

In 1826, at the age of thirteen, Issac Pitman left school to become a counting house clerk. Six years later, he was sent to Borough

Figure 19. William Thornton's Universal Alphabet

SYMBOL	SOUND	SYMBOL	SOUND
VOWELS		VOWELS	
Common:		Stopt:	
J, ə	sun, herd	G, g	get, gun
II, ɪ	what, yawn	B, b	but, ball
A, a	rat, calm	D, d	dull, dim
E, e	red	ASPIRATES	
I, i	fit	Sibilant:	
O, o	fog, yoke	ʃ, ʒ	ship, assurance
U, u	wool, soup	F, f	fun, fall
Unclassified:		Θ, θ	third, thin
Y, y	ye, yarn	S, s	set, sun
Z, z	zeal, zephyr	Short:	
R, r	red, word	K, k	kiss, come
L, l	let, lass	P, p	pen, puff
J, j	treasure	T, t	ten, talk
V, v	vast, very	Unclassified:	
Θ, θ	that, the	⊙, ⊙	what, while
W, w	wolf, would	H, h	hat, hall
Nasal:			
M, m	met, moss		
N, n	nap, nut		
ŋ, ŋ	king, thank		

Note. From Cadmus, or a Treatise on the Elements of Written Language (p. 37) by William Thornton, 1793, Philadelphia: R. Aitkin & Son.

Road Training College for a brief period of training to become a teacher.

Pitman soon became interested in speed writing. He studied the construction of words and thereby invented methods of rapidly indicating sounds. In 1837, at the age of 24, Pitman created the 'stenographer's sound-hand' (shorthand) which still bears his name. Shorthand systems, over 200 of them, were common in the two preceding centuries, but Pitman's system was new in that it was based on phonetic principles (Scragg, 1974; Monson, 1954). In 1839, Pitman opened a private school and added shorthand to the curriculum. At the same time, he opened a correspondence school and gave tuition-free instruction in his shorthand system. His free postal system grew rapidly and in 1842 he published his Phonographic Journal, a shorthand periodical. The very first issue ran to a thousand copies (Iles, 1965).

Issac Pitman soon became interested in spelling reform through his interest in shorthand. Pitman believed that just as a logical and reliable relationship between characters and sounds was the essence of shorthand, he believed the same principle applied to longhand or the normal printing system. His early life as a country schoolmaster had convinced him how difficult it was to teach children to read and he believed that his proposal would also provide an effective teaching medium (Pitman & St. John, 1969; Dewey, 1971).

Pitman looked upon his system of shorthand as a means of

advocating spelling reform. Much of the profits he received from his lectures and manuals went to finance his campaign for spelling reform, including "the casting and rejection of numerous experimental metal types; the launching of several journals, a 750-page Bible, Milton's Paradise Lost, reading primers, and other works..." (Pitman & St. John, 1969, p. 80).

Several of Issac Pitman's brothers, as well as his many friends and admirers, became his lecturers. They traveled extensively, often crossing oceans, teaching and spreading enthusiasm for Pitman's system without financial compensation.

All the lecturers became, for a longer or shorter period, devoted missionaries in what they regarded as an educational and semi-philanthropic movement, teaching Phonography, more or less gratuitously, and advocating a reform of English spelling which would result in great shortening of the time of children in learning to read, and tend to bring the elements of education within the reach of all (Harrison, 1964, p. 30).

In 1843, Issac Pitman became associated with Alexander John Ellis, a wealthy mathematician and philologist deeply interested in philosophy and music. Ellis, like Pitman, had been working on the production of a phonetic alphabet which might be applied to the spelling of all languages that included symbols for many other sounds not found in English. Ellis' book, The Alphabet of Nations (1848), was the first work on scientific phonetics. Ellis hoped that the development of a new phonetic alphabet would be a desirable and necessary instrument in national education in that it would furnish the only means by which reading, spelling, and writing could become general among the great

body of English people.

Ellis and Pitman then combined their efforts and worked together to develop a phonetic alphabet which was first published in the Fonotypic Journal in 1844 (See Figure 20). Five new versions of Phonotype were developed from 1844 to 1852 (See Figure 21); and, by 1856, 23 phonetic alphabets had been presented by Pitman (Monson, 1954).

In his constant seeking for improvement Isaac Pitman several times changed letters in his Phonotypic Alphabet (and his shorthand). These changes often caused friction. The harshest criticism that has been leveled against him, apart from the fact that he drove those who worked for him as hard as he drove himself, was unyieldingness where his spelling was concerned. He would listen graciously and pleasantly to every argument and then serenely go his own way. He had many arguments with the councils, his advisory bodies, and with his great helpers like A.J. Ellis. Benn Pitman believes that his brother's "mania for change and improvement...did more to check the spread of Phonetic Reform, stop practical teaching, and dampen the ardour of those friendly to orthographic consistence, than all other causes combined" Despite such possible repercussions of his never-ceasing search for perfection, Isaac Pitman's own altruism and wholehearted enthusiasm prevailed over difficulties and his friends continued in his support (Harrison, 1964, p. 37).

During the first five months of 1849, The Phonetic News, a 12-page newspaper, published by Ellis, was produced in the new alphabet. The newspaper met with poor reception and eventually was discontinued. A number of other spelling reform periodicals were published by Pitman, but they, too, failed to gain wide circulation and were suspended.

Aided by influential scholars, such as F. Max Mueller, Professor of Philology at Oxford University, Issac Pitman's Fonotype was found to be an effective system in teaching children and illiterate adults to

Figure 20. The first of Isaac Pitman's Phonotypic Alphabets.

THE PHONOGRAPHIC AND PHONOTYPIC ALPHABETS.

VOWELS.					CONSONANTS.				
Short hand.	Long hand.	Type	Example of its sound.	Example of its sound.	Short hand.	Long hand.	Type	Example of its sound.	Example of its sound.
N.1	Ī	i	lect	i	Ɔ	P p	P p	pay	pī
	Ī	I i	fit	it	Ɔ	B b	B b	lay	bī
2	Ē	E e	mate	e		T t	T t	toe	tī
	Ē	E e	met	et		D d	D d	doc	dī
2½	Ē	Æ æ	mare	æ	/	Ĉ	C c	chew	çī
3	Ā	Λ a	psalm	a	/	J j	J j	jew	jī
	Ā	Ā a	Sam	at	—	Ċ	C c	call	çī
4	Ō	Θ o	caught	o	—	G g	G g	gall	gī
	Ō	O o	cot	ot	⌒	F f	F f	few	fī
5	Ū	U u	cur*	u	⌒	V v	V v	vicw	vī
	Ū	U u	carry	ut	(Ƨ	T t	thigh	tī
6	Ō	O o	bone	o	(Ƨ	Ƨ d	thy	dī
7	Ū	U u	fool	u)	S s	S s	seal	sī
	Ū	U u	full	ut)	Z z	Z z	zeal	zī
COMPOUND VOWELS.)	X x	X x	meal	xī
7½	Ī	Æ i	high	i)	Z z	Z z	measure	zī
	Ō	Ɔ d	hoy	o	(L l	L l	lay	lī
	Ɔ	Ɔ r	how	r	⌒	R r	R r	ray	rī
	Ū	Ū y	hew	y	(M m	M m	sum	mī
COALESCENTS.					⌒	N n	N n	sun	nī
8	Y y	Y y	yen	ye	⌒	Ū Ū	Ū Ū	sung	ūī
	W w	W w	way	wē					
BREATHING.									
(.)	H h	H h	hay	hē					

* Additional exemplificative words for this vowel, when unaccented, are amuse, masse, principal, principle, mettle, metal, formal, gospel, evil, pistol, consul, pillar, temper, ellipsis, tenor, murmur, bosom, schis-m, open, dozen, German, lemon, gallant, talent, etc.

Note. From Alphabets and Reading (p. 82) by J. Pitman and J. St. John, 1969, London: Pitman Publishing Association.

Figure 21. Five versions of Fonotypy.

No. 1, *January, 1844.*
 I E A O U (heard) W, I E I O U W,
 I O V W, W Y H, P B T D C Y C O, F Y
 O A S Z I X, L R, M N U

Specimen.

NUGIU HWOTEVER IZ MOR TU BI
 DEZIRD, OR MOR DELATFUL, DAN AE
 LIT OV TRWØ: FOR IT IZ AE SORS'OV
 WIZDUM HWEN AE MAND IZ HAR-
 AST WIA OBSKWIRITI, DISTRAKTED BI
 DUTS, RENDRD TORPID OR SADEND
 BI IGNORANS OR FOLSITIZ, AND TRWØ
 EMERJEZ AZ FROM A DARK ABIS, IT
 LINZ FORØ INSTANTENIUSLI, LAK AE
 SUN DISPERSIY MISTS AND VEPURZ,
 OR LAK AE DON DISPELIU AE TEDZ OV
 DARKNES.

No. 3, *June, 1846.*

i e a o u, i e a o u, i o v u,
 w y h, p b t d c j e g, f v t d s z
 j s, l r, m n u.

Specimen.

Nutiñ hwotever iz mor tu bi
 dezird, or mor delitiul, dan de
 lit ov trut: for it iz de sors ov
 wizdum. Hwen de mjnd iz har-
 ast wid obscuriti, distracted bi
 dsts, renderd torpid or sadend
 bi ignorans or folsitiz, and trut
 emerjez az from a dare abis, it
 sfinz fort instantaniusli, lje de
 sun dispersiy mists and vapurz,
 or lje de don dispelij de sadz ov
 darcnas.

No. 5, *Proposed June, 1852.*

i e a o u, i e a o u, i y u, w
 y h, p b t d c j e g, f v t d s z j s,
 l r, m n u.

Specimen.

Nutiñ hwotever iz mor tu bi
 dezird, or mor delitiul, dan de lit
 ov trut: for it iz de sors ov wiz-
 dum. Hwen de mjnd iz harast
 wid obscuriti, distracted bi dsts,
 renderd torpid or sadend bi ignor-
 ans or folsitiz, and trut emerjez
 az from a dare abis, it sfinz fort
 instantaniusli, lje de sun dispersiy
 mists and vapurz, or lje de don
 dispelij de sadz ov darcnas.

No. 2, *October, 1844.*
 i e a o c (heard) o c, i e a o u,
 i q u u, w y h, p b t d c j k g,
 f v t d s z j s, l r, m n u.

Specimen.

Nutiñ hwotever iz mor tu bi
 dezird, or mor delitiul, dan de
 lit ov trot: for it iz de sors ov
 wizdum. Hwen de mjnd iz har-
 ast wid obscuriti, distracted bi
 dsts; renderd torpid or sadend
 bi ignorans or folsitiz, and trot
 emerjez az from a dark abis, it
 sfinz fort instantaniusli, ljk de
 sun dispersiy mists and vapurz,
 or ljk de don dispelij de sadz ov
 darknes.

No. 4, *Jan., 1847.*

z a q o o u, i e a o u, i o v u,
 w y h, p b t d c j e g, f v t d s z
 j s, l r, m n u.

Specimen.

Nutiñ hwotever iz mor tu be
 dezird, or mor delitiul, dan de lit
 ov trut: for it iz de sors ov wiz-
 dum. Hwen de mjnd iz harast
 wid obscuriti, distracted bi dsts,
 renderd torpid or sad'nd bi ignor-
 ans or folsitiz, and trut emerjez
 az from a dare abis, it sfinz fort
 instantaniusli, lje de sun dispersiy
 mists and vapurz, or lje de don
 dispelij de sadz ov darcnas.

No. 6, *Romanic Alphabet.*

aa, bb, cc, dd, ee, ff, gg, hh ii, jj,
 kk, ll, mm, nn, oo, pp, qq, rr, ss, tt,
 uu, vv, ww, xcs, yy, zz.

Specimen.

Nothing whatever is more to be
 desired, or more delightful, than
 the light of truth: for it is the
 source of wisdom. When the mind
 is harassed, with obscurity, dis-
 tracted by doubts, rendered torpid
 or saddened by ignorance or falsi-
 ties, and truth emerges as from a
 dark abyss, it shines forth instan-
 taneously, like the sun dispersing
 mists and vapours, or like the dawn
 dispelling the shades of darkness.

Note. From Alphabets and Reading (p. 81) by J. Pitman and
 J. St. John, 1969, London: Pitman Publishing Association.

read and write orthodox as well as Fonotypic spellings.

Fonotypic reading classes were organized in many parts of the country, not only in schools but also for inmates of workhouses, reformatories and jails; for the members of a Phonetic Sunday School Movement and a temperance society of working men...Fonotype was used with success by missionaries in Africa, China and India; in Nova Scotia it was applied to Micmac, a version of American Indian language that until then had been only spoken (Pitman & St. John, 1969, p. 85).

Dewey (1971) reports that "the first serious and sustained effort in the United States to popularize Pitman's Fonotypy was that of Stephen Pearl Andrews, who brought back from London in 1843 some of Isaac Pitman's books and pamphlets on Phonography and Fonotypy" (p. 20). This is incorrect, however, for in 1842, George Darling Watt, a Mormon convert who later devised the Deseret Alphabet based on Pitman principles, was teaching classes on the subject in Nauvoo, Illinois (R. Watt, 1983). Nevertheless, in 1844 Andrews did publish the first American instruction book on Pitman's Phonography, and in 1846 the First Book of Andrew's and Boyle's Series of Phonotypic Readers. This was six years before Isaac Pitman's younger brother, Benn, moved to America and began to stimulate further interest in the subject (Dewey, 1971).

Among the best documented experiments using Fonotype was a large scale experiment in ten schools in Waltham, Massachusetts, between 1852 and 1860 where Fonotype was found to be a much superior system than conventional orthography (Dewey, 1971; Pitman & St. John, 1969). Recognition of Fonotype as an excellent aid for teaching reading was

also reported by the American Philological Society in 1899.

We tested it thoroughly for six or seven years in the town of Waltham, Massachusetts which then had about eight hundred children in the public schools. The effect upon the school life of the town was very marked. The saving of time in teaching the children to read and to spell enabled us to introduce exercises for the eye and hand, thus cultivating habits of observation, skill in drawing and writing, and geometric ability. The fonetic print corrected the brogue of the Irish children and the Yankee dialect of the American in a surprising manner. An improvement in the moral and intellectual tone of the schools was also noticeable, arising certainly in part from giving the children interesting reading instead of such absurd falsehoods as that of saying, 'say', 'you', 'pea', spells 'cup' (cited in Pitman & St. John, 1969, pp. 85-86).

Pitman's Fonotypy was also used in the schools in Cincinnati, Ohio, from 1851 to 1858, and in Syracuse, New York, from 1853 to 1863. Zalmon Richards, first president of the National Education Association, was one of the teachers who used the system and reportedly taught reading in one-fourth the usual time required (Dewey, 1971). Horace Mann was also witness to the use of Fonotypy in the schools, and later wrote this testimonial:

Having witnessed the exercises of a class of nine children under your care in reading phonography (or phonetic shorthand) and phontypy (or phonetic print) it gives me pleasure to assure you of the delight which their performance gave me. I think the nine Muses were never listened to by a more grateful audience...the children you exhibited had certainly made most wonderful proficiency, and were, in several of the essentials of good enunciation and reading, years in advance of most children who had been taught in the old way (cited in Dewey, 1971, p. 50).

Meanwhile, in England, Isaac Pitman continued to experiment with different alphabets and with symbol variations within the alphabets themselves. Ellis' desire to stick with consistency in symbol

representation and Pitman's desire to experiment with different designs soon brought about a split between the two and from 1867 on they continued to work on their own. Ellis went on to create the "Paleotype" phonetic alphabet, composed of hundreds of characters, as well as Glossic (which is discussed at length in Chapter III).

Issac Pitman continued his interest in spelling reform until the end of his life, producing at least 72 different or slightly different versions of the Phonotypic alphabet (Pitman & St. John, 1969). In his later years, however, Isaac Pitman became convinced that the most practical route to spelling reform lay in retaining the resources of the Romanic alphabet (see Chapter III). In 1894, three years before his death, Isaac Pitman was knighted by Queen Victoria for his service in phonetics and spelling reform.

As Fonotypy spread rapidly through the English-speaking world, so that the sun never set on neither it nor the British Empire, numerous imitations of the system arose (Monson, 1954). These include, among others, Benn Pitman's American Phonetic Alphabet, Andrew Comstock's Alphabet, Andrew J. Graham's Alphabet, and the Deseret Alphabet, which is examined at length in Chapter V.

Edwin Leigh's Pronouncing Orthography

One of the most successful experiments with an augmented alphabet began in 1866 when Dr. Edwin Leigh introduced his "Pronouncing Orthography" system into the Clay School in St. Louis on a trial basis. The system proved successful and continued to spread for over twenty

years into schools as far away as New York, Boston, and Washington, D.C. (Huey, 1910).

The alphabet contained seventy characters. The main characteristic or uniqueness of the alphabet was that it employed hairline types for silent letters and modified forms for others, thus allowing the transference to traditional spelling after the initial stages of reading (March, 1893). Edmund B. Huey, in his Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, described the system as "a spelling method, but the word is spelled by its elementary sounds and not by the letter names. The word is slowly pronounced until its consistent sounds come into consciousness, and these sounds are associated with the letters representing them" (Huey, 1910, p. 266).

In 1867, the experiment was so successful that the St. Louis Board of Education introduced it into all the primary grades within the system and adopted the McGuffey Eclectic Readers printed in modified type using Leigh's system of phonetics (See Figure 22). Despite initial rejection on the part of many teachers, the system gradually became well received and school officials evaluated it highly. By 1870, the school superintendent, William T. Harris (later to become U.S. Commissioner of Education), stated:

Each year increases our admiration of the work. Gain in time - quite one half - distinct articulation, and better spelling represent the undoubted advantages. I am satisfied that with the time we now have to devote to the higher readers, our teachers have it in their power to accomplish results in this department we have hitherto considered impossible (cited in Pitman & St. John, 1969, p. 87).

Figure 22. A specimen of Edwin Leigh's Pronouncing Print.

2 And both Jesus was celled, and his disci-
ples, to the marriage.

3 And when they wanted wine, the mother
of Jesus saith unto him, They have no wine.

4 Jesus saith unto her, Woman, what have
I to do with thee? mine hour is not yet come.

5 His mother saith unto the servants, What-
soever he saith unto you, do it.

6 And there were set there six waterpots of
stone, after the manner of the purifying of
the Jews, containing two or three firkins
apiece'.

7 Jesus saith unto them, Fill the water-
pots with water. And they filled them up to
the brim.

8 And he saith unto them, Draw out now,
and bear unto the governor of the feast.
And they bare it.

Note. From The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading (p. 267) by
E.B. Huey, 1910, New York: The MacMillan Company.

In 1870, Dr. Leigh made several changes in the system to render the transition to ordinary print easier. Two years later, the plan underwent further modification. In 1880, a revised First Reader was published which contained full page illustrations and more attractive print. For the next ten years, the use of Leigh's system of reading in the McGuffey Readers spread to other sections of the country. A school board in Illinois reported this:

Pupils are found in their second year of schooling who have read many books. They learn to read more quickly and in comparison with so little effort, that reading is a pleasure, which could not be said under the old system (cited in Pitman & St. John, 1969, p. 87).

Leigh's system was used for some twenty years, until 1888, when it was abandoned. While we have no satisfactory explanation as to its sudden fall from grace, Huey (1910) argued that "the 'pronouncing print' was hard on the eyes, requiring an unnaturally close inspection of each letter, in the beginning; besides, it made trouble for the printer, distracted from attention to the thought in reading, and caused confusion in the attempt to use two alphabets" (p. 261). In commenting on Leigh's alphabet, James Pitman wrote:

...though perhaps not sufficiently scientific or precise by modern standards, [it] was impressive; there was a powerful prima facie case for believing that the alphabet and spelling inherited, virtually unchanged, from the Middle Ages is the root cause of difficulty and failure in reading, and that children do learn to read with a phonetic alphabet in a shorter time; for believing that the easiest way to learn to read orthodox spelling is to begin by learning with a rational and helpful alphabet - in other words that the transition need cause no difficulties. All this evidence seemed to have been forgotten and hidden by the controversy surrounding the attempts to convert the whole community (Pitman & St. John, 1969, p. 113).

Alexander Melville Bell's
Visible Speech

In 1867, Alexander Melville Bell, the father of Alexander Graham Bell, produced Visible Speech, "a pictorial representation of the arrangement of the vocal cords required to produce the sounds necessary for the language" (Pitman & St. John, 1969, p. 102).

Bell's alphabet is one of several alphabets which used symbols to indicate the action of the speech organs. In 1808, Joseph Neef described, but did not actually produce an alphabet which might accurately represent the manner in which sound is produced. William Conning devised the first alphabet to represent speech sound in 1854. Isaac Pitman described Conning's system by stating that he reduced the outlines of the speech organs to six basic forms from which he formed his letters: 1) the perpendicular and hypotenuse of the nose; 2) the lips; 3) the profile outline of the front tooth to represent the teeth, overhanging lip; 4) tongue unbent; 5) tongue in a circular position; and 6) the upper concavity of the mouth. Amasa D. Sprout invented a similar 65 character "Monalpha" alphabet in 1857, but nothing came of it as Sprout was unable to get a foundry to cast types for his planned book. Isaac Pitman also tried to create an alphabet of this type in 1847, as did Daniel Jones and Paul Passy in 1907 (Monson, 1954).

The phonetician, Henry Sweet, described Bell's Visible Speech in the following manner:

It is no exaggeration to say that Bell has done more for phonetics than all his predecessors put together; it is at least certain that this system is the first which gives a really adequate and comprehensive view of the whole-field of possible sounds. His analysis of vowel positions is almost entirely new and original. His system of notation, in which the mechanism of the sounds is most ingeniously symbolized, is not only founded on an adequate analysis, but also thoroughly practical in character, providing forms not only for printing but also for writing, both in long and shorthand, applicable to all languages (Sweet, 1902, p. ix).

The Visible Speech letters were not intended to supersede the Roman alphabet, but to furnish the key to sounding out the present letters. Bell felt that the ordinary typography of English would be learned by visible speech readers from interlinear printing of the Roman with the physiological letter (Bell, 1883).

Bell admitted that teaching children to read in an alphabet different from the present would meet with some objection, but that the advantages would greatly outweigh the inconvenience. "The power to read Visible Speech will be acquired in a relatively short time - a few months, at most - and the learners will then possess a key by means of which they can teach themselves to read from ordinary typography." With this ability, Bell added, they would be able to pronounce "with native accuracy" any foreign language written in Visible Speech (Bell, 1883, Preface).

In 1883, Bell produced his first Visible Speech Reader in which he claimed that no attempt should be made to teach the children the separate names of the letters. "The nature of Visible Speech symbols is such that they will themselves inform the accustomed eye to the

inherent relation to the sounds" (Bell, 1883, Preface. See Figure 23). The words used in the Visible Speech Reader contained a high number of polysyllabic words with the understanding that they can be learned just as quickly as monosyllables. Children were encouraged to analyze words into their component sounds. It was felt that if the child learned all the words in the first Visible Speech Reader, he would soon be able to pronounce any unknown words that may be presented in Visible Speech with very little assistance from the teacher. A translation key was placed at the end of the book for the convenience of the teacher. "By means of this key," Bell stated, "any person may teach reading from this primer without the slightest preliminary acquaintance with Visible Speech" (Bell, 1883, p. 3).

Visible Speech, it is claimed, is the most accurate record of spoken sound ever invented, all the symbols being made up of a few simple elements which can be combined in many different ways. "No other method provides such an objective record of sound, a record verifiable by use of the spectrograph. Unfortunately, no other method is as difficult or as expensive to produce on the printed page and Visible Speech in its present form is impossible to write by hand" (Monson, 1954, p. 173).

George Bernard Shaw
and the Shavian Alphabet

George Bernard Shaw, one of the best known writers of modern times, is frequently associated with his innovation of the story of a fish - spelled ghoti - the gh of laugh, the o of women, and the ti of

Figure 23. A specimen of Alexander Melville Bell's Visible Speech.

12

VISIBLE SPEECH READER.

XI.



ofofo



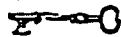
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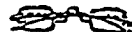
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XII.



fo



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Note. From The Visible Speech Reader (p. 12) by A.M. Bell, 1883, Cambridge, MA: Moses King Publisher.

nation - the transliteration of ghoti representing the sounds of the word fish, as well as the irrational and inconsistent nature of English spelling. Shaw carried on a crusade for Alphabet and Spelling Reform that attracted international attention, culminating in the publicity and controversy over his will, and the publication of the Shaw Alphabet Edition of Androcles and the Lion (1962).

Shaw's writings, including plays, essays, letters, and novels, reflected an early interest in the broad field of language. He dealt with spelling and alphabet reform; better speech and communication; phonetics, dialects, and accents; and international language and communication. Pygmalion, Shaw's play on which the musical My Fair Lady is based, is perhaps the best known example of his writings on these subjects, spanning over 75 years of creative production (Tauber, 1963).

As a writer, Shaw was shocked by the waste involved in writing English: the time wasted in writing unnecessary silent or redundant letters (Shaw used Pitman shorthand in his writing); the waste of materials, such as paper and ink, used in writing these unnecessary letters; the time wasted by students - children and foreign learners - in trying to learn to read and spell; and the waste of time on the part of teachers trying to teach irregular and inconsistent rules (MacCarthy, in Haas, 1969).

To point out this wastage, Shaw

warned of the advantage the Russians enjoyed in the "race of civilization," because they could, in their 35 letter

Cyrillic alphabet, spell Shaw with two letters; "but I have to spell it with four letters: another 100 percent loss of time, labour, ink, and paper...What chance has a Power that cannot spell so simple a sound as Shaw against a rival that can?..."

"Battles may be lost by the waste in writing army orders and dispatches with multitudes of superfluous letters. The mathematicians changed from Latin numerals to Arabic years ago. The gain was incalculably enormous. A change from Latin to British letters will have equally incalculable advantages; but we, being incorrigibly brain lazy, just laugh at spelling reformers as silly cranks" (cited in Tauber, 1963, pp. 65, 68-69).

Toward the end of his life, Shaw became interested in promoting English as a world language. The last article that Shaw wrote, appeared in the Atlantic Monthly in October, 1950. Entitled "The Problem of a Common Language," Shaw wrote:

As the English language goes round the earth, the sun never setting on it, it is impossible to ascertain exactly how many people are writing it, not for one minute as an experiment, but all the time incessantly and perpetually. No matter; a big cross-section will be just as conclusive. In the British Commonwealth and the United States of North America, there are more than 270,000,000 born writers and speakers of English. Of these, the proportion of authors, journalists, clerks, accountants, scholars, private correspondents and others writing continually and simultaneously all around the clock may safely be taken as one in every hundred, making 2,700,000. Multiply this figure by the 73 days [which would be saved by each individual using a phonetic alphabet]. The answer is that every year in the cross-section alone, we are wasting 540,000 years of time and labor which we could save by spelling English phonetically enough for all practical purposes, adding to the Johnsonese alphabet fourteen letters...I have left out India, Pakistan, and Ceylon from the calculation with their 400,000,000 whose dozen dialects are giving way to English. They would make the figures too enormous to be credible. One could only laugh (Shaw, 1950, pp. 61-62).

Not only in favor of spelling reform, which would rid English of

"Dr. Johnson's monumental misspellings" which are accepted by the English-speaking world "in a sort of devil worship of Dr. Johnson" (Shaw, cited in Tauber, 1963, p. 95), Shaw was also in favor of completely abandoning the traditional alphabet, the "unhappy legacy from Rome" (Shaw, cited in Haas, 1969, p. 107). Shaw's preference for a completely non-Romanic alphabet of at least 40 letters arose from his intention that the new alphabet and the old should be used together concurrently and competitively until one or the other was abandoned. Shaw's ideal alphabet would contain at least 40 letters and each letter would be written with the fewest penstrokes as possible to distinguish it from the other letters. His ideal alphabet would not contain separate letter sizes and shapes for capitals. Knowing that he was approaching the end of his life and had neither the will nor the energy to work on his new alphabet, in 1944 Shaw published a widely distributed brochure, "From Bernard Shaw," in which he announced that in his will, a Public Trustee would be appointed to make provisions for just such an alphabet. Shaw died November 2, 1950, and the actual provisions of his will were announced in early 1951. One clause in his will, dated June 12, 1950, called for the following provisions:

To institute and finance a series of inquiries to ascertain or estimate as far as possible the following statistics: (a) the number of extant persons who speak the English language and write it by the established and official alphabet of 26 letters (hereinafter called Dr. Johnson's alphabet); (b) how much time could be saved per individual scribe by the substitution for the said alphabet of an alphabet containing at least forth letters (hereinafter called the Proposed British Alphabet) enabling the said language to be written without indicating single sounds by

groups of letters or by diacritical marks, instead of by one symbol for each sound; (c) how many of these persons are engaged in writing or printing English at any said and every moment in the world; (d) on these factors to estimate the time and labour wasted by our lack of at least fourteen unequivocal single symbols; (e) to add where possible to the estimates of time lost or saved by the difference between Dr. Johnson's alphabet and the Proposed British alphabet estimates of the loss of income in British and American currency (Clause 37 in Bernard Shaw's Will, 1950, cited in Tauber, 1963, pp. 166-167).

Under English law, however, it was impossible to write a will leaving money to an abstract cause such as Shaw's alphabet, unless the cause was somehow considered a charity. Upon his death in 1950, Shaw's will was challenged by two of the three residuary legatees (the British Museum and the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art) against the wishes of the National Gallery of Ireland. Five years elapsed after Shaw's death before any legal action commenced or any further public announcement was made about the fate of the will. In February, 1957, the Judge of the Chancery Court ruled the provisions of the will to be invalid. The executor of Shaw's will, the Public Trustee, appealed the decision.

Before the appeal was heard, a compromise settlement was reached in December, 1957, allocating the sum of 8,300 pounds (about \$23,000) for the alphabet project. In order to carry out Shaw's intentions, the Public Trustee, as administrator, was able to offer a prize of 500 pounds for the completion of a suitable alphabet of at least 40 letters to indicate single sounds of the language with the promise that "the alphabet would be used for the transliteration, publication, and presentation to every public library in the United States, British

Isles, and the Commonwealth of copies of Shaw's Androcles and the Lion, printed on facing pages in the orthodox and new alphabet" (Smoker, 1970, p. 3).

Competitors were given a full year in which to design and test their alphabets. Four hundred sixty-seven alphabets were submitted, of which four were considered outstanding. In the end, Kingsley Read's design was finally selected as the alphabet most fitting to meet the criteria laid down in Shaw's will, after it had been modified in consultation with the other three winners, Pauline M. Barrett, J.F. Magrath, and S.L. Pugmire (Pitman & St. John, 1969).

Six purported advantages of the winning alphabet are listed below:

1. Learning to spell English becomes quite a simple process, and takes a fraction of the time now required.
2. Written English occupies one third less space (for the same size letter), leading to saving of paper, ink, wages (for e.g. printers and typists), transport and storage costs (for e.g. all books and newspapers), that must amount to billions of dollars annually. (Compared to this saving, any transitional costs on, for example, new printing fonts and typewriters, would be insignificant.)
3. If new design were adopted - as it could easily be - to other languages (some of which have imperfect or involved systems of writing), world literacy would be furthered.
4. One intrinsic defect of the Roman alphabet per se cannot be overcome by rearranging the Roman letters, namely that there are too few letters, 26, for writing most languages on a "one sound-one symbol" basis. Shavian has over 40 to start with, and several more would undoubtedly be added for other languages as the need arose.
5. Another defect which would not be eradicated even by adding to the number of 'Roman' letters is the traditional use of 'capitals,' practically all of which have shapes

different from the corresponding 'small' letters, and the use of different forms again in handwriting, as opposed to print or type. Shavian uses unchanged shapes throughout.





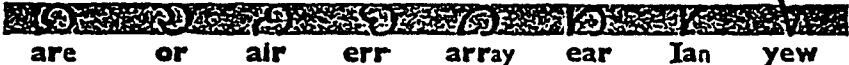
6. Objections are often raised to interfering or 'tampering' with our ordinary spelling on the grounds that 'phonetic' spellings (e.g. enuf, luv, wot) look illiterate, dialectal, comic or obscene (because of various associations) or that our traditional orthography is somehow 'sacred,' or that the derivation of words is revealed or can somehow be studied by looking at their current spellings. We all know that a half-truth is involved in this last statement, but the point is, that none of the above objections can be made to an alphabet which starts with no associations of any kind, quite apart from its own positive merits. Our traditional Roman spellings remain intact for all to study who wish, and for people to use as long as they are not convinced of the pointlessness of so doing. This might take several generations (Roman numerals linger on even now, for special purposes, but are no longer used for doing sums!); on the other hand, it might not (Peter MacCarthy, 1962, cited in Iles, 1965, p. 13).

The 48 character alphabet is written from left to right across the page very much the same as one would write traditional spellings. A line of writing consists of separate letter shapes and these are grouped by words in the same way that English words and sentences are written. Punctuation remains unaltered. Letters are of three sizes in the vertical dimension: Shorts, Talls, and Deeps (MacCarthy, in Haas, 1969. See Figures 24 and 25).

Aside from differences in letter forms, there is no difference in size, shape, or thickness between initial and other letters, thus eliminating one of the major objections to current Roman usage. To meet the need for an occasional capital letter, a raised "namer dot" is placed over the letter to be capitalized. This namer dot is used for proper names when they first appear in script and in situations where

Figure 24. The Shaw Alphabet Reading Key.

The Shaw Alphabet Reading Key
 The letters are classified as Tall, Deep, Short, and Compound.
 Beneath each letter is its full name: its *sound* is shown in **bold** type.

Tall:	
	peep tot kick fee thigh so sure church yea hung
Deep:	
	bib dead gag vow they zoo meaSure judge woe ha-ha
Short:	
	loll mime lf egg ash ado on wool out ah
	
	roar nun eat age ice up oak ooze oil awe
Compound:	
	are or air err array ear Ian yew

The four most frequent words are represented by single letters: the *o*, of *f*, and **, to *l*.

Proper names may be distinguished by a preceding 'Namer' dot: e.g. *·oof*, Rome.

Punctuation and numerals are unchanged. Learn the alphabet *in pairs*, as listed for Writers overleaf.

Note. From The Shaw Edition of Androcles and the Lion (Preface)

by G.B. Shaw, 1962, New York: Penguin Books.

Figure 25. The Shaw Alphabet for Writers.

The Shaw Alphabet for Writers

Double lines $\bar{\quad}$ between pairs show the relative height of Talls, Deeps, and Shorts. Wherever possible, finish letters rightwards; those starred * will be written upwards. Also see heading and footnotes overleaf.

	Tall	Deep		Short	Short	
peep	$\bar{\text{p}}$	$\bar{\text{e}}$	bib	ff	$\bar{\text{f}}$	eat
tot	$\bar{\text{t}}$	$\bar{\text{o}}$	dead	egg	$\bar{\text{e}}$	age
kick	$\bar{\text{k}}$	$\bar{\text{i}}$	gag	ash*	$\bar{\text{a}}$	ice
fee	$\bar{\text{f}}$	$\bar{\text{e}}$	vow	ado*	$\bar{\text{a}}$	up
thigh	$\bar{\text{t}}$	$\bar{\text{h}}$	they	on	$\bar{\text{o}}$	oak
so	$\bar{\text{s}}$	$\bar{\text{o}}$	zoo	wool	$\bar{\text{w}}$	ooze
sure	$\bar{\text{s}}$	$\bar{\text{u}}$	meaSure	out	$\bar{\text{o}}$	oil
church	$\bar{\text{c}}$	$\bar{\text{h}}$	judge	ah*	$\bar{\text{a}}$	awe
yea	$\bar{\text{y}}$	$\bar{\text{e}}$	*woc	are	$\bar{\text{a}}$	or
hung	$\bar{\text{h}}$	$\bar{\text{u}}$	ha-ha	air	$\bar{\text{a}}$	err
	Short	Short		array	$\bar{\text{a}}$	ear
loll	$\bar{\text{l}}$	$\bar{\text{o}}$	roar			
mime*	$\bar{\text{m}}$	$\bar{\text{i}}$	nun		Tall	
				Ian	$\bar{\text{i}}$	yew

Note. From The Shaw Edition of Androcles and the Lion (Preface) by G.B. Shaw, 1962, New York: Penguin Books.

obscurity might otherwise result. Also, contrary to the current alphabet, the Shavian alphabet was designed to discourage cursive writing, thus eliminating the distinction between manuscript and cursive writing (MacCarthy, in Haas, 1969).

Upon acceptance of the winning alphabet, Peter MacCarthy of Leeds University transliterated Shaw's Androcles and the Lion into the Shavian script, as it came to be called. In 1962, Penguin Books published this "Shaw Alphabet Edition," with traditional and Shavian print on opposing pages (See Figure 26). In the Introduction to this work, James Pitman wrote:

Here is Shaw's alphabet. It has been proved that those who wish to read it can do so after only a few hours of concentrated deciphering.

Why would anyone wish to use it?...

The economy in space and greater simplicity of characters ought to increase the speed and ease of writing, even more than it does the ease of reading....Though at this time we can only guess, it is probable that...reading may be 50-75 percent, and writing 80-100 percent faster, and even 200-300 percent, by using simple abbreviations....

I have also offered, if there is a demand, to get further material published in the Shaw alphabet....Meanwhile, if anyone wishes to get printed their own material in Shaw's alphabet, they are permitted to do so (Shaw, 1962, Introduction).

Apparently, however, the demand never arose, for to this day nothing else has been printed in the Shavian script. Indeed, the Shavian alphabet not only met with apathy, but even antipathy, as this article in The Economist of November 24, 1962, pointed out:

Much is claimed for [the Shavian alphabet]; it is said

that it will reduce the space required for printing, it is quicker to read and write and avoids the commonest difficulties of normal English spelling; it will save money, advance child reading by an appreciable time and generally make life easier all around.

Unfortunately, of these claims, only the first, the saving in space, can be supported. It is acknowledged that Shavian could never replace Roman, only supplement it, gradually coming to take a more and more important part over the course of generations. During the change-over, books would have to be printed in both Shavian and Roman types, which hardly looks like a savings of money; children would have to be taught both alphabets (with their strikingly different main and ancillary characteristics) in order to be able to use books published before Shavian, which hardly looks like a saving of time; and it is partly phonetic, with no standard spelling, which would mean...widely differing images between different dialect-speakers of the same word - which hardly looks like avoiding the pitfalls created by the absurdly complicated way in which words in the English language are now spelt ("Shaw's Alphabet: Ploys Unpleasant?," 1962, p. 3).

James Pitman's i.t.a.

In 1959, almost a century and a quarter after Sir Isaac Pitman began work on his shorthand, James Pitman, grandson of Isaac, in collaboration with C.N. Fellowes and D.H.J. Schenck, invented the Augmented Roman Alphabet. Acknowledging the debt owed to his grandfather, James Pitman wrote that "the principles of Fonotypy have provided the foundation for my own Initial Teaching Alphabet" (Pitman & St. John, 1969, p. 79). James Pitman intended this alphabet as a means of making it easier for school beginners to learn to read in traditional print. As an alphabet, it is considered a coded symbol approach to beginning read (Auckerman, 1984).

James Pitman described the aims of the alphabet as follows:

The alphabet is a 'reformed' Roman one. It is however, an augmentation of the existing lower-case Ehrhardt alphabet of the Monotype Corporation, and its augmentions have been designed for the purpose of providing a consistently alphabetic representation of the English language suitable primarily for teaching reading to English-speaking children (and adults) and secondarily to adults (and children) who already speak some other language and may also read it in Roman characters (Pitman, in Harrison, 1964, pp. 105-106).

Pitman stressed that his alphabet, unlike other phonetic alphabets proposed before this time, was not an attempt to reform English spelling but simply an initial or beginning teaching alphabet to be used in the initial stages of learning to read. As a permanent spelling reform Pitman himself admitted it was not the most suitable form (Thackray, 1971; Iles, 1965).

With this purpose in mind, two basic changes are made in the written form. First, there is one fixed form for each character. This means that capital letter forms different from small letter forms are eliminated and small letters are always the same shape. When capital letters are required, they are simply the small letter written larger. Secondly, the digraphs are written as one letter both in their spacing and in their shaping. In all, the alphabet contains forty-four characters to correspond to the forty-four phonemes of the language (See Figure 27).

The new alphabet, which later had its name changed from Augmented Roman Alphabet to the Initial Teaching Alphabet (i.t.a.) to better indicate its purpose, was not intended to be spelled phonetically but rather that it should stick to the rule that one sign or symbol should

Figure 27. The Initial Teaching Alphabet.

æ b c d ee
face bed cat dog key

f g h ie j k
feet leg hat fly jug key

l m n œ p
letter man nest over pen

r s t ue v w
red spoon tree use voice window


y z s wh ch
yes zebra daisy when chair

th th sh 3 r
three the shop television drink

a au a e i o
father ball cap egg milk box

u ω ω ou oi
up book spoon out oil

A Transitional Literation as proposed for beginning readers by Sir James Pitman, M.P., London, England

the littl red hen 

Wuns upon a tiem littl red hen livd in a barn wîsh her fiev chicks. a pig, a cat and a duck mæd shær hœm in the sœm barn. eech dæ littl red hen led her chicks out tœ look for fœd but the pig, the cat and the duck wœd not look for fœd.

Note. From "The Larger Aspects of Spelling Reform" by J.R. Malone, 1962, Elementary English, 39, p. 444.

always represent one sound, its appearance in use is as close as possible to the appearance of traditional print. Some inconsistencies of traditional spelling are retained when these inconsistencies would cause difficulty in the transition period (O'Halloran, 1973). Thus, both c and k are used when they appear in traditional spelling. Double letters are written when they occur traditionally as in little, and y is used both as a consonant and a vowel (yes and Penny, etc.).

Harrison, in writing about the Pitman alphabet, gave the following thirteen rules for spelling in i.t.a.

1. Y is used as a vowel or consonant in accordance with normal practice: yet, pity, family, (but not pitiful, piteus, familiar).
2. Z, S. The former is used whenever it is normally used; the latter replaces the traditional s when it has the sound of z (horsez).
3. ae, a. ae is the diphthong or long vowel in hate—haet
a is the long open vowel in calm—cam
a is the long (or short) vowel in grass
4. c, k. Both represent the same sound. Use the one that occurs in T.O., kick, accept (cook).
5. ch, dich is not wrong, but dit ch, being nearer to T.O. and quite ambiguous, is preferred.
6. j, ʒ. The former is the consonant in jaw and the second is the middle consonant in viʒon (vision). If a dg occurs in T.O., the i.t.a. form is dj (which gives the same sound as j) in order to maintain the d and maintain a visual similarity to T.O.
7. Alternative pronunciations are largely a matter of choice. Dr. Daniel Jones' English Pronouncing Dictionary is recommended as a guide, and where it gives alternatives, the spelling is preferred which corresponds most closely with normal spelling.

8. ue. Some spellings must be arbitrary, and following the English Pronouncing Dictionary, ue is used in words as postuer (posture), pictuer (picture), feetuer (feature).

Initially ue is used to begin such words as uenion (union), but y begins such words as yu (you), ywth (youth), yue (yew). Traditional orthography is the guide.

9. au, or. It should be noted that while w (qu) is often followed by an a in English, a hardly ever has its normal sound in that position. Usually the character au is needed, wau11 (wall), wauter (water), waurm (warm). Also fault and sault, pau (paw).

10. The neutral vowel common in English unstressed syllables is generally represented by the vowel found normally.

11. r, r. The second symbol is written when r is combined with any of the four vowels: e, i, u, y to represent the sound in her, fir, fur, myrrh - her, fir, fur, myrr. It is used with no other vowels.

12. Double letters are used when found traditionally.

13. The vestigial first vowel is retained in the final syllables in such words as special, judicial, ocean, soldier. i is not retained in words ending in cion, sion, or tion (Harrison, 1964, pp. 112-113).

Harrison also called attention to the fact that almost half of traditional spellings were either not affected at all or so slightly as to go unnoticed. Of the other half, about 40% were considered radical changes cof (cough), riet (right), etc.

In the summer of 1960, the University of London Institute of Education, in conjunction with the National Foundation for Educational Research, proposed to begin a scientific investigation of the utility of the new alphabet. The Institute intended that the new alphabet be planned with the assistance and guidance of scientific, educational, psychological, statistical, typographical, and phonetic experts.

John Downing, a teacher and industrial research officer, was appointed to direct the inquiry. Downing's first task was to organize a research unit and obtain the special books and materials needed. James Nisbet and Co., Ltd., publisher of a current reading series (Janet and John), allowed their whole series to be transliterated into i.t.a. for the purpose of comparison, experimentation, and evaluation (Downing, 1978).

It was initially hoped that as many as fifty control groups would be involved in the i.t.a. experiments. Schools using traditional spelling and i.t.a. were then matched by grade level, numbers, ages, and socio-economic levels. In-service training was provided for teachers of the control and i.t.a. groups (Leigh, 1967).

In September 1961, the experiment actually began involving 873 i.t.a. students. A year-end comparison showed that the experimental i.t.a. group had progressed much faster than the control group. The same results were found at the conclusion of the second year (Dewey, 1971).

Downing summed up the evidence of the first two years by drawing the following conclusions:

- 1) Young children get through their beginning reading program faster when books are written in i.t.a.
- 2) They can recognize more words in print when they are in i.t.a.
- 3) They can more readily read continuous English prose accurately.
- 4) They can comprehend more continuous print if i.t.a. is used.

5) They can read faster when the medium is i.t.a.
(Downing, 1964, p. 57).

At the end of the second year, the experiment involved 2,808 children in sixteen different experimental schools. Another one thousand were added in September 1963. Pitman reported to the conference of the Education Records Bureau in New York in October and November of that year that a considerable number of classes had been formed outside the experimental groups involving another 5,000 students and bringing the number of children involved in i.t.a. classes to 8,800. The number of participating schools reached thirty-three.

Before the experiment in England had hardly gotten underway, it had already attracted attention in the United States (Gunther, 1964; Riemer, 1964). Some school authorities went to England to see the experiment firsthand. Two educators most interested in i.t.a. were Albert Mazurkiewicz of Lehigh University School of Education and Harold J. Tanyzer of Hofstra University, who later helped set up the first large scale experiments in the United States. Mazurkiewicz, with the aid of Tanyzer, helped create a series of beginning readers in the new orthography. They used the symbol i/t/a to distinguish their readers from i.t.a. in England. The Tanyzer-Mazurkiewicz reading scheme (i/t/a Early-to Read Series) was a complete set of readers, workbooks, and teachers' manuals and was the series to be used in most of the experiments in America (Smith, 1965).

With the financial backing of the Ford Foundation the American

experiment got underway in September, 1963. Between five and six hundred children were involved in this first experiment in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. Evaluation at the conclusion of the first year testing program indicated that i/t/a/ students achieved better levels of reading, and also received better scores in creative writing, independent writing, and spelling skills than those using the conventional approach.

The second year, i/t/a students began to study spelling formally. As was begun in the transition stage of reading, children were taught the way various vowel sounds might be spelled in T.O. They were introduced to dictionary skills using an i/t/a - T.O. dictionary where they could find conventional spelling of words needed for writing. The results of evaluation of second year i/t/a/ students indicated superiority over comparable T.O. groups.

While the Bethlehem experiment was by far the largest in North America, it was by no means the only one. In the first year, 1963, approximately 3,000 students in seven states were involved in various studies and experiments in using i/t/a. The second year the number increased to over twenty thousand in thirty states. These did not involve only first graders. Tanyzer, in New York and Connecticut, began experimenting with i/t/a in the kindergarten and planned follow-up evaluations through the third grade. Classes in i/t/a were formed for teaching remedial reading, illiterate adults, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed and Spanish-speaking children (Iles, 1965).

By 1967, i/t/a had been adopted for all the schools of three American cities: Bethlehem, PA, Lompoc, CA, and University City, MO. It also saw extensive use in many other communities in both public and parochial schools. Scholastic Books produced about 40 children's classics and old favorites in i/t/a, and Follette Publishing and Henry Z. Walk Publishing also produced a few small enrichment books. An Initial Teaching Alphabet Foundation was established at Hofstra University on Long Island to collect and disseminate information on i/t/a research and materials (Auckerman, 1984). i.t.a. projects were also attempted in Canada, Australia, South Africa, and Bermuda (Deighton, 1971).

Despite evidence that the i/t/a is an effective reading program, the initial enthusiasm demonstrated by the rapid and enthusiastic acceptance of i/t/a in the United States in the early 1960s, the system never took hold in this country. While a few American schools still use the system, no new materials have been published in i/t/a, although it has been adapted for use with the Apple II computer (Auckerman, 1984).

Initial British enthusiasm has also waned, and in 1978 a United Kingdom i.t.a. Foundation was formed to spark enthusiasm for a revival in interest in this approach, inasmuch as "there has been a marked decrease in the use of i.t.a. since the late 1970s." While it is still used in "some small fashion in a few schools" in Britain, there appears

to be no current prospect for a comeback of the system (Auckerman, 1984, p. 304).

John R. Malone's Unifon

John R. Malone, an economist and Executive Director of the Foundation for a Compatible and Consistent Alphabet (FCCA) of Chicago, began experimenting with a unique alphabet called Unifon ("single sound") in 1961. (Unifon is the current name of the alphabet. Originally it was called the Shaw-Malone Alphabet, and then the New Single Sound Alphabet.) Originally designed for easy conversion into a binary code to feed information into computers, it was later advocated as a medium for teaching children to read.

Unifon is a 40 character alphabet based on the upper-case letters of the Roman alphabet. It is an isomorphic (one-for-one) system of 24 consonants and 16 vowels. The new alphabet retains 23 existing letters, dropping c, q, and x as redundant. Seventeen new letters are added, all based on existing letters. The six new consonants include a letter for the ng sound, and the five that contain the h sound (ch, sh, zh, and the two sounds for th). The eleven new vowels include the 5 long vowels, 5 diphthongs, and the e before an r sound (Culkin, 1981. See Figure 28).

Pitman and St. John describe Unifon thus:

All his forty "single sound" characters are upper-case (without ascenders or descenders), the ratio of height to width being a constant 7:5; the same block-type characters are used to provide a lower-case alphabet, the vertical measure of the characters being reduced by about 29 percent so that the 7:5 rectangle becomes a square. Malone claims

Figure 28. The Unifon Alphabet.

A	Δ	Λ	B	C
at	ate	all	bow	cell say
Ɔ	D	E	I	Ǝ
chair	dip	hen	he	her
F	G	H	Ɔ	Ɔ
fast	goat	hat	bit	bite
J	K	L	M	N
jaw	kiss	low	music	no
W	O	Q	Ɔ	Ɔ
king	lot	old	look	out
G	P	R	S	T
boy	pipe	run	sure	table
Ɔ	⊥	U	Ɔ	W
thirst	there	up	due	you
V	W	Σ	Y	Z
vest	wig	azure	yes	zebra

LU L+TL RED HEN



WUNC UPAN U TΔM L+TL RED HEN L+VD
 +N.U BORN W+Θ HƏR FΔV ƆHKC. U P+G
 U KAT AND U DUK MΔD JER HOM
 +N LU CAM BORN. IƆ DA L+TL RED
 HEN LED HƏR ƆHKC ƆT TO LOK FAR
 FOD. BUT LU P+G, LU KAT, AND LU
 DUK WOD NOT LOK FAR FOD.

Note. From "The Larger Aspects of Spelling Reform" by
 J.R. Malone, 1962, Elementary English, 39, p. 441.

that his system is very nearly fully consistent with the "Latin" conventions of most European spelling - e.g., Polish, Czech, Spanish, Italian, Turkish, German - thus facilitating language learning as well as electronic scanning combined with machine translation (1969, p. 88).

Malone has presented the English spelling rules to be used with his 40 character Unifon Alphabet:

1. Spell each word exactly as it sounds: i.e., alfu**bet**, kat, kup, Jon, met, etc.
2. No silent letters; no double letters.
3. Each sound symbolized the same way, exactly, each time it is used.
4. Diphthongs and sounds represented by Latin consonant pairs use new symbols.
5. "Short" vowel sounds utilize customary Latin-English symbol; new "long" vowels have a prominent, added, full-width horizontal member plus Latin symbol.
6. No digraphs nor symbols having both consonant and vowel usage are used.
7. All words sounding the same are spelled the same way; context determines meaning as in the normal spoken tongue.
8. Diphthongs and combination sounds made standard with separate symbols: ai, ch, ng, ou or ow, oi or oy, sh, th (voiced), th, (unvoiced), yu, and zh.
9. Forty phonemes are made conventional but where local dialects or sharper inflection is used, the nearest approximation shall be used for writing. If necessary, accent marks, diacritical marks, etc., can be used for precision in drama work, speech training (Malone, 1962, p. 441).

Unifon has been used in both private and public schools in Chicago and Indianapolis on an experimental basis, with gratifying results.

Two books are also in preparation which will make the system available

to teachers and parents. The tentative titles are Reading for the TV Child and The UNIFON Double-Entry Dictionary (Culkin, 1981). In conclusion, one of the proponents of Unifon Alphabet claims that the following improvements would follow its adoption:

Economics: Unifon takes up 14 percent less space, with consequent savings in labor, storage, ink, and paper.

Decline in Dyslexia: One author believes that more than 60 percent of the world's dyslexia occurs in English-speaking countries and blames the gap between our spoken language and our alphabet.

Voice-Activated Machines: Unifon's one-for-one correspondence would simplify the programming of voice-activated computers and typewriters.

Foreign Languages: Already the official alphabet of several American Indian tribes, Unifon also fits the major European languages with minor adjustments. The new alphabet can ease the acquisition of languages; it could be particularly useful in teaching English to those, such as Spanish speakers, who already have a consistent alphabet.

English as a World Language: English has become the de facto world language, taught in the elementary schools of more than 100 countries. Although relatively easy to speak, English is one of the most difficult languages to learn from written materials. A sensible alphabet would greatly facilitate this process.

Spelling Bees: No more (Culkin, 1981, p. 92).

Summary

Spelling and alphabet reform are subjects of great interest and devotion for many individuals. Every year, several new reform schemes are unveiled to the world (Ives, 1979). Phonetic spelling is not,

however, without its critics. Numerous objections to modified romanic or non-romanian alphabets have been posited, and these are detailed in the concluding chapter. One of these objections has been given by George Sampson, honorary secretary of the 'English Association:'

Radical reform in spelling means the exact phonetic representation of pronunciation, But whose pronunciation? There is Scottish English, Irish English, Welsh English, and American English of numerous kinds. There is even English English, of which I will offer some specimens.

I was recently talking to some prominent persons about education. One spoke of "the grat (a as in German) vahyoo of the clahssics," and mentioned "Asthuns"; another spoke of "the greet velyview of the clessics," and mentioned "Ethins"; a third thought it "a gret shem that the univahsities should conten so mach infairior matairiel." And the other day a lady told me she was "afred bebbly hed a pen and mast hev gert a curled."

Well, there are a few specimens of "educated English." Again I ask, Whose pronunciation is to be represented in any 'nu' spelling? (cited in Mencken, 1948, p. 314).

CHAPTER V
THE DESERET ALPHABET

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the Deseret Alphabet as a case study of one attempt to create and disseminate a phonemic orthographic system using a non-romanian alphabet. An examination of the social and educational context of its formation, its creators and proponents, the extent of its acceptance and utilization, methods of instruction, and reasons for its abandonment, is undertaken. A look at the Alphabet as a linguistic entity, its strengths and shortcomings, is included. This study also determines whether or not the Deseret Alphabet met the objections of our present orthography.

The Deseret Alphabet had as its birthplace, not the well-known American seats of scholarship and erudition such as Boston, New York, or Philadelphia, but rather the newly pioneered Utah Territory. Isolated from the states of the Union, and accessible only with the greatest difficulty and struggle, Utah, during the middle part of the nineteenth century, was the scene for a zealous scheme to change English spelling.

First settled July 24, 1847, by the Latter-day Saints, or Mormons, the desert wastes surrounding the Great Salt Lake were specifically chosen by their leader, Brigham Young, because of their isolation,

defensibility, and the fact that no one else desired to live there. Here, in the hostile desolation of the Great Basin, they hoped to build the Zion of their God.

The proselytizing efforts of Mormon missionaries in Europe, Asia, South Africa, Australia, and the islands of the South Pacific bore fruit, and tens of thousands of converts, many of whom spoke little or no English, gathered to "the tops of the mountains" in the Rockies to be with their coreligionists. Many American, Canadian, and British proselytes to the faith were illiterate. This, naturally, posed a serious threat to a people whose survival in a hostile environment depended upon their cohesion and unity. Communication, written and verbal, was a key, not only to their very existence, but to helping the Latter-day Saints retain and strengthen their faith. In addition, literacy and study were religious ideals, and they viewed the gaining of knowledge as a sacred, solemn, and indeed, God-mandated duty.

Since the organization of their Church in 1830, the Latter-day Saints considered education one of their foremost duties. While on the plains, the Latter-day Saints conducted schools for their children in the backs of their wagons. Shortly after their arrival in the Salt Lake Valley, Miss Mary Ann Dillworth began a school for the children, which was patronized during the pioneers' first winter. Less than three years after their coming to Utah, the University of Deseret, one of the first universities west of the Mississippi, was founded (Chamberlin, 1960). At that time, the University of Deseret was not a

class-teaching institution, but rather an education-promoting and supervisory institution, charged with overseeing school matters in the Territory (Widtsoe, 1944). In 1892, this institution's name was changed to the University of Utah (Jenson, 1941). Additionally, nearly every Mormon settlement boasted that its first permanent building was a schoolhouse (Heinerman, 1982; Birkinshaw, 1981; Bennion, 1939).

Brigham Young addressed the problem of creating a literate, monolingual society in early 1853. Young and others are quoted at some length in order to give the reader a greater appreciation for the seriousness and enthusiasm with which the Mormon people tackled the task of spelling reform. Young stated:

Now the people are gathering, and the varied and most general influx of the diverse tribes, nations, kindreds, and tongues is even at our doors. Provisions must speedily be made for this forthcoming crisis and event. Can we suppose that a few interpreters will answer the demands of a constant communication between several thousand languages? May we not, and must we not, look for a standard to be lifted up? Should not that language be such as can be acquired by the most ordinary minds, within a few days or months at the outside? Now is it possible to simplify and reduce the English language or in any way remould it so as to make it answer the emergency that awaits the saints of this generation? (Deseret News, November 24, 1853. Hereafter cited as DN. Note: Early editions of the Deseret News were not paginated.)

These were not Brigham Young's first remarks on the subject of spelling reform, however, for approximately one year earlier, on April 8, 1852, he said that the English language is "fraught with imperfections and ridiculous vagaries." He went on:

I have asked the Board of Regents [of the University of Deseret] to cast out from their system of education, the

present orthography and written form of our language, that when my children are taught the graphic sign for A, it may always represent that individual sound only. But as it now is, the child is perplexed that the sound A should have one sound in mate, a second sound in father, a third sound in fall, a fourth sound in man, and a fifth sound in many, and, in other combinations, soundings different from these, while, in others, A is not sounded at all. I say, let us have one sound all the time. And when P is introduced into a word, let it not be silent as in Phthisic, or sound like F in Physic, and let not two be placed instead of one in apple (Young, 1852, p. 70).

In his annual message to the Utah Territorial Legislature, on December 12, 1853, after commenting on the "considerable" foreign migration into the territory, Young stated:

While the world is progressing with steam engine power, and lightening speed, in the accumulation of wealth, extension of science, communication and dissemination of letters and principle, why may not the way be paved for the easier acquisition of the English language, combining as it does great extension and varied expression, with beauty, simplicity, and power, and being unquestionably the most useful and beautiful in the world? But while we freely admit this, we also have to acknowledge that it is perhaps as much abused in its use, and as complex in its attainment as any other. The correction of orthography, upon some principle of having characters to represent the sounds which we use, has occupied the attention of many scientific gentlemen from time to time, but through lack of influence, energy, or some other cause, they have failed to accomplish so desirable an object. If something of this nature could be introduced which could be brought into general use, I consider it would be of great utility in the acquirement of our language. I am happy to learn that the Regency are deeply engaged in investigating this interesting subject; and hope that ere long, they may be able to produce something that will prove highly beneficial ("Message of Governor Brigham Young," April 8, 1854, p. 213).

As the Territorial Governor of Utah, Young established a committee to study spelling reform, with the aim of making instruction in English a simpler task. Members of this committee studied various proposals

and designs, including the phontypic alphabet of Sir Isaac Pitman, with its augmented Roman alphabet. Regarding their deliberations, Widtsoe (1944) wrote:

It was first proposed that the Roman type in common use be employed in securing the desired reform....Then it was proposed that a phonographic handwriting be used also in print, as it moved entirely according to sound.

Finally the Regents broke away from all traditions and struck out for themselves. They hewed a new way among the orthographic "corruptions and perversions" of the language (p. 63).

On December 22, 1853, a new alphabet was decided upon. Consisting of 38 characters, it was christened the Deseret Alphabet.

Characteristics of the Deseret Alphabet

The original Deseret Alphabet was composed of 38 characters. That number was not constant; at one time as many as 43 characters made up the Alphabet, only to be discarded later. As the system developed, a standard 38 character alphabet emerged (See Figure 29). It was this alphabet that was used in all printed materials. The symbols for the Alphabet appeared in only one form. The only distinction between upper- and lower-case letters was size. No cursive script was provided for handwriting. As the characters were drawn by hand for cursive writing, "this resulted in a rather disconnected, jumbled-appearing script" (Nash, 1957, p. 17).

The 38 characters of the Deseret Alphabet, with only a few minor

Figure 29. The Deseret Alphabet.

Y Q L S O P L L J U P P A L L .

<i>Long Sounds.</i>			Letter.	Name.	Sound.
Letter.	Name.	Sound.	7p	
Qc.....as in.....eat.		8b	
8a " ate.		9t	
Qah " art.		Qd	
Qaw " aught.		Cche..as in..cheese.	
Oo " oat.		Yg	
Qoo " ooze.		Qk	
<i>Short Sounds of the above.</i>			Qga...as in...gate.	
†as in.....it.		Pf	
7	" et.		Qv	
7	" at.		Leth...as in...thigh.	
7	" ot.		Ythe " thy.	
7	" ut.		8s	
9	" book.		Gz	
Qi.....as in.....ice.		Desh...as in...flesh.	
Qow " owl.		Szhe " vision.	
Wwoo		Yur " burn.	
Yye		Ll	
Yh		Qm	
			hn	
			Neng.as in.length.	

Note. From The Book of Mormon (frontispiece) by O. Pratt (Ed.), 1869, New York: Russell Brothers.

variations, correspond to the values of the International Phonetic Alphabet, and their use is similar (Dedera, 1969; Conis, 1968; Monson, 1947). A significant exception is that the Deseret Alphabet made no provision for the unaccented vowel, or schwa, sound. The designers of the Alphabet broke down English speech into six long vowel sounds, six short vowels, one aspirate (h sound), and 21 articulate sounds (consonants). It is evident that the 38 sounds and structure of the Deseret Alphabet, but not the letters, were entirely borrowed from Pitman's phonotype, although phonotype has 40 characters (Alder, Goodfellow, & Watt, 1984). A linguist, J.M. Cowan, commented, "The designers of the Deseret Alphabet made a correct phonemic analysis of English on the whole. They were more successful in breaking down the antiquated traditional orthography than many more recent reformers who have attempted to respell English" (cited in Rowe, 1978, p. 61).

Hubert Howe Bancroft, in his History of Utah (1890), wrote that the characters of the Deseret Alphabet were similar to Reformed Egyptian, the characters used in the Book of Mormon plates. However, a comparison of the Deseret Alphabet with copies of the Book of Mormon script reveals little, if any, similarity (Nash, 1957; Alder, et al, 1984).

T.W. Ellerbeck wrote in 1885 that "the forms of some of the letters were designed or originated by Mr. Watt—those of others were selected by Mr. Watt from some of the ancient alphabets found in the front of Webster's unabridged dictionary..." (cited in Carter, 1939, p.

3). There are a number of similarities between the Ethiopic Alphabet printed in Webster's Unabridged Dictionary of 1848 and the Deseret characters. A number of the characters are similar to the letters of the Latin alphabet, namely C, D, L, O, P, S, and W. Other similarities to the Roman alphabet include a reversed capital B, a stylized g, and an upside down e. These letters, though, represented different sounds than in our current alphabet (Sudweeks, 1954).

Creators of the Deseret Alphabet ..

The original committee formed by Governor Young to study spelling reform consisted of Heber C. Kimball, Parley P. Pratt, and George D. Watt. To this committee were later added Wilford Woodruff, Orson Pratt, William W. Phelps, and Robert L. Campbell. Others had an influence upon the deliberations of the committee, particularly Brigham Young and his Second Counselor, Willard Richards. It was Richards who vehemently opposed the adoption of any alphabet which resembled the present alphabet, and he got his way (R. Watt, 1983). Kimball was First Counselor to Brigham Young in the Presidency of the Church. The Pratt brothers were both Mormon Apostles, as was Wilford Woodruff, who would later become fourth President of the Church. Phelps was a writer and composed a number of songs, still popular in Mormon hymnody. Robert Campbell later became Territorial Superintendent of Schools and was one of the Deseret Alphabet's chief supporters until his death in

1872 (Jenson, 1901).

The Deseret News wrote of the activities of the Board of Regents in an editorial on November 24, 1853:

We have observed the frequent sittings of the Board of late that has fatherly supervision of education in the Territory of Utah, and we are happy to learn that their discussions are calculated to call forth a searching investigation into the elementary sounds of language...The Governor and other members of the First Presidency find time, in the midst of all their onerous duties to mingle in these meetings. The traditions which have come through misty labyrinths of past ages are most powerfully assailed by the Governor, whose keen eye looks with suspicions on the corruptions and perversions of language which was originally pure. Thus far it appears that the orthography of the English language is too full of absurdities to be tolerated by an enlightened people...

Can it be expected that the Apostles at Great Salt Lake City will speak by the immediate power of God so that people of every nation and language will forthwith understand them? Or should we look for the power and wisdom of God to be displayed in forming a simple, easily acquired language, in which barbarians and Christians, bondmen and freemen, of every grade of intelligence, out of every tribe, caste, language, and country, can, in a short time, interchange their sentiments and praise God unitedly in spirit and understanding?

If such a language is ever demanded at all, it seems to be required without delay, even now. It is not for a future generation, but for the present...Now is it possible to simplify and reduce the English language or in any way remould it so as to answer the emergency that awaits the saints of this generation? Tell us ye wise men! Will the old bottles answer for the deposit of new wine? The English language may be as good as any other known language, but is there any other known language whatever fitted to meet the great emergency of the great gathering and great work of teaching the law of the Lord to all people? Let wisdom speak, and her voice shall be heard.

This same edition of the Deseret News also contained a letter which indicates that the efforts of the Board were arousing some

interest:

For the Nus

Mr. Ed.:--We wish that sum ov ur redurs wood tel us where good sens was when our dikshunare makurs larnd us how to spel. Let our misshunares b kalm til tha here from us agen. Awl things are going ahead. I am as ankshus as u, and av meny things u ant sen yet, and shal av mor in a fu das. Grate mane wolvsa in thes mountans, and tha howl dredfuls, sumtimes; grate mene ingins tu, and tha oop wus than wolvs. And wat of it? Kant we tawk with em awl? Kant we tawk with awl the nashuns? Yes we kan, soon as we lurn their langwage.

Urs,

GO A HED.

There has been some controversy as to who actually devised the characters of the Deseret Alphabet. Remy (1861) wrote that W.W. Phelps [whom Remy mistakenly identifies as an Apostle] "worked out the letters" (p. 185). Lyon (1932) held "unequivocally" that "Orson Pratt was the designer of the symbols" (p. 91). Stanley (1937, p. 284) on the other hand, wrote that Parley P. Pratt worked out the "Mormon alphabet." The overwhelming consensus of scholarly opinion, however, holds that the Deseret Alphabet was chiefly the handiwork of George D. Watt (Grover & Cranney, 1982; Nash, 1957; Monson, 1947; Brooks, 1944). Hosea Stout recorded in his journal that George D. Watt was responsible for working out the characters (cited in Alder, et al, 1984). Gustave L.H. Henriod, in his personal history, identified Watt as the "father and originator" of the Deseret Alphabet (Carter, 1968, p. 324). Writing in 1885, T.W. Ellerback, Secretary to Brigham Young, stated that "the alphabet was designed principally by George D. Watt, a phonetic expert..." (cited in Carter, 1939, p. 3).

George Darling Watt was the first Latter-day Saint baptized in Britain, in the River Ribble, on July 30, 1837, at the age of twenty-two. During the next five years he studied 'phonography' under Isaac Pitman and became close friends with Brigham Young, Heber C. Kimball, and other leading Latter-day Saints. He emigrated to America in 1842 [a shipmate recalled that Watt gave a lecture on shorthand while aboard ship (R. Watt, 1983)] to be with his coreligionists in Nauvoo, Illinois, which was then the headquarters of the L.D.S. Church. While there, he was appointed the official Church stenographer by the Mormon Prophet, Joseph Smith, and was often called upon to record his sermons and that of other dignitaries. Watt organized the Phonographic Society of Nauvoo and served as its president. He also delivered lectures on the Pitman system and taught classes on the subject, with Brigham Young being one of his students. Watt also recorded the proceedings of the trial of those accused of murdering the Mormon Prophet (Alder, et al, 1984; R. Watt, 1983).

Following the deaths of Joseph Smith and his brother Hyrum, the mantle of Church leadership fell to Brigham Young, and the main body of the Church followed him across the plains to the Great Basin. Here, Watt's services as stenographer were often used, and his reports of sermons and other events filled the pages of the pioneer Deseret News. Watt also proposed to publish a journal which would include the speeches of the Presidency, the Apostles, and others. With the complete support of the Church leadership, Watt published the Journal

of Discourses from 1854 until 1868. He became reporter for the Utah Territorial Legislature, secretary for the Board of Regents, and offered his services as a private reporter for people (R. Watt, 1983; R. Watt, 1976). In 1852, Watt began again to lecture on the subject of Phonography, again with Brigham Young as his pupil.

Watt even published his own textbook, Exercises in Phonography (1851. See Figure 30), designed for use in his classes. He, like many other spelling reformers, felt that written English was inferior to spoken English. In the introduction to his text, Watt wrote:

There has hitherto existed among all nations the greatest disparity, in point of facility and dispatch, between the usual methods of communicating thought—speaking and writing; the former has always been comparatively rapid, easy, and delightful; the latter tedious, cumbrous, and wearisome. It is most strange that we, who excel our progenitors so far in science, literature, and commerce, should continue to use the mode of writing which they have handed down to us, (with but very slight changes in the form of the letters,) and which, by its complexity, obliges the readiest hand to spend at least six hours in writing what can be spoken in one. Why should we not attempt to simplify our written characters, and make them correspond in some degree, to the simplicity of spoken sounds? (p. 3).

It was the influence of Watt upon Brigham Young and others, some historians postulate, which sparked their interest in spelling reform which culminated in the formation of the Deseret Alphabet (R. Watt, 1977; Stringham & Flack, 1958).

Reasons for Creation of the Deseret Alphabet

There have been a number of reasons posited for the Mormon attempt

Figure 30. The title page of George D. Watt's
Exercises in Phonography, 1851.

EXERCISES
IN
PHONOGRAPHY.

DESIGNED TO CONDUCT THE PUPIL TO A PRACTICAL
ACQUAINTANCE WITH THE ART.

[CALLED "THE PHONOGRAPHIC CLASS BOOK."]

BY G. D. WATT.

"Who that is much in the habit of writing, has not often wished for some means of expressing by two or three dashes of the pen, that which, as things are, it requires such an expenditure of time and labor to commit to paper? Our present mode of communication must be felt to be cumbersome in the last degree; unworthy of these days of invention; we require some means of bringing the operations of the mind, and of the hand, into closer correspondence."

GREAT SALT LAKE CITY:
W. RICHARDS, Printer.

1851.

to change English spelling. The first, and most popular, of course, is that the Mormon people wanted to simplify English orthography in order to facilitate the acquisition of a common language. Upon their arrival from foreign lands, many of the Latter-day Saints would naturally settle close to those who shared their tongue. Thus, pockets of Swedes, or Germans, or Welsh would arise, whose inhabitants felt little need or inclination to learn English (McGavin, 1940). This fragmentation of the Latter-day Saints along political or linguistic lines was abhorrent to the Mormon leaders, to whom the ideal of a unified community was paramount. Reiterating the words of Christ, who said, "If ye are not one, ye are not mine" (from the third book of Mormon scripture, the Doctrine and Covenants 38:27), the Mormon hierarchy strove for the creation of a cohesive Kingdom, not only a religious kingdom, but a political, economic, social, and linguistic unit as well.

It was also believed that the Deseret Alphabet would prove beneficial to the Mormon missionaries who were working among the Indians, as it would provide a written medium for the various Indian languages. Additionally, it was hoped that the Deseret Alphabet would aid the Indians in their acquisition of English (Olsen, 1952).

The historian Hubert Howe Bancroft later (1890) wrote that the Deseret Alphabet was indicative of the Mormon desire for "exclusiveness, a separate people wishing to have a separate language, and perhaps in time an independent literature" (p. 712). Brigham

Young's secretary, T.W. Ellerback, listed the reasons for the creation of the Deseret Alphabet as "enabling our youth to learn more easily to read and spell, and to hinder or prevent their access to the yellow colored literature of the age or any unwholesome reading" (cited in Carter, 1939, p. 3). These sentiments were expressed years after the actual experimentation with the Deseret Alphabet was underway, and were largely afterthoughts (Roberts, 1965). The Latter-day Saints were not isolationists. Quite the contrary (Widstoe, 1944). Brigham Young believed firmly that the Gospel as espoused by the Latter-day Saints was light, and once comprehended by the world, would be embraced as the panacea to this world's ills. The Latter-day Saints were convinced that they were building a new society. The Mormon hope was that the Deseret Alphabet would eventually become the written medium for language worldwide, and would prove a boon to all who would receive it. "In many ways the Deseret Alphabet was just one more aspect of the perfect society the Mormons were hoping to build in anticipation of Christ's return" (Alder, et al, 1984, p. 285; Ivins, 1947).

To the Latter-day Saints, the coming forth of the Book of Mormon and the establishment of their Church was a fulfillment of the Biblical prophecy which spoke of "the times of restitution of all things" (Acts 3:21; J.F. Smith, 1973). In addition to the restoration of the primitive gospel, the Latter-day Saints looked for that time when the language which was spoken before the confusion of tongues at Babel--"a

pure language; such as God gave Adam at the beginning" (Orson Pratt, in Lundwall, 1946, p. 551) should also be restored. Some early Latter-day Saints expressed the opinion that the Deseret Alphabet was preparatory to the restoration of this universal language to the earth, and would indeed be its written medium ("Language," April 29, 1854).

One factor influencing the creation of the Deseret Alphabet which has been largely ignored in the literature is Brigham Young's personal interest in the matter of simplified spelling. Though highly intelligent and remarkably capable, Young was virtually unschooled. Indeed, he often boasted of the fact that he had only 11 days of formal schooling (Gates, 1931). Although he was highly verbal and was considered a moving speaker, he relied heavily upon his numerous scribes to handle his correspondence (Werner, 1925). Those letters written in his own hand, as well as his early diaries, reveal him to be a phonetic speller, spelling by sound rather than by convention (Birkinshaw, 1981; Jesse, 1974; Ellsworth, 1973).

A story is told of Brigham Young listening to his daughter teaching a Scandanavian girl to read. The Scandanavian convert pronounced throw with the ow sound as in cow. When Young's daughter explained that the word had a long o sound as in go, her foreign friend asked why the word was not spelled thro. This, allegedly, increased Young's determination to reform English spelling (Grover & Cranney, 1982). Along these lines, Alder, et al (1984) wrote that:

Brigham Young felt that children should not be forced to spend long hours sitting quietly in school "on a hard bench until they ache all over." They should be able to move around and do things that interest them. The Deseret Alphabet would make it easier for children to learn to read, and they would not have to spend as much time in school (p. 285).

In light of this, it is of little wonder that from the 1840s, Young took an active interest in the spelling reform movement and attended a number of classes taught on the subject.

Remy (1861), referring to one putative reason for the creation of the Deseret Alphabet, wrote, "Some persons have supposed that the object of this alphabet was to prevent access to the Mormon books and writings; but it is more probable that the only thing intended was to simplify the reading of the English language by establishing a determinate and uniform relation between the sign and its sound; in fact, a phonetic alphabet" (p. 184). If indeed "the purpose of the 'Mormon language' was to keep the secrets of Mormon literature from the world" (Grover & Cranney, 1982, p. 12), why then were cards printed giving the Roman equivalents of the Deseret characters, available for purchase by anyone, thus "making the decoding of materials written in the Deseret Alphabet available to all?" (Nash, 1957, p. 2). On the contrary, the Latter-day Saint Church was evangelical, and went to great lengths to disseminate their writings. By 1855, Mormon scriptures had been translated and published in Danish, German, French, Italian, Hawaiian, and Welsh, as well as English (Weller & Reid, 1958):

Promotion of the Deseret Alphabet

Upon creation of the alphabet, a campaign was undertaken from the pulpit and the written media to explain and popularize it. The Deseret News, official organ of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, editorialized on January 19, 1854:

The Board of Regents, in company with the Governor and heads of departments, have adopted a new alphabet, consisting of 38 characters. The Board have had frequent sittings this winter, with the sanguine hope of simplifying the English language, and especially its orthography. After many fruitless attempts to render the common alphabet of the day subservient to their purpose, they found it expedient to invent an entirely new and original set of characters.

These characters are much more simple in their structure than the usual alphabetical characters; every superfluous mark supposable, is wholly excluded from them. The written and printed hands are substantially merged into one.

We may derive a hint of the advantage to orthography, from the spelling of the word eight, which in the new alphabet only requires two letters instead of five to spell it, viz: AT. There will be a great saving of time and paper by the use of the new characters; and but a very small part of the time and expense will be requisite in obtaining a knowledge of the language.

The orthography will be so abridged that an ordinary writer can probably write one hundred words a minute with ease, and consequently report the speech of a common speaker without much difficulty.

As soon as this alphabet can be set in type, it will probably be furnished to the schools of the Territory for their use and benefit; not however with a view to immediately supersede the use of the common alphabet—which, though it does not make the comers thereunto perfect, still is a vehicle that has become venerable for age and much hard service.

In the new alphabet every letter has a fixed and