

**“Take your choice of those that best can ayde your action”:
*Editing and the Electronic Text***

David Scott Kastan contends in his piece for the 1996 *Shakespeare Studies* Forum: Editing Early Modern Texts that “Editing has suddenly become hot, or, if not exactly hot as an activity to undertake (it does, after all, involve a lot of very tedious, numbingly cold, work), at least a hot topic (arguably *the* hot topic) to debate” (My emphasis). Kastan’s principal reason for this contention centers on the manner in which many postmodern scholars approach early modern texts: “Never has the materiality of the texts we study seemed so compelling, so unavoidable, and so exhilaratingly problematic” (30). Whether one agrees that editing is “the hot topic” to debate, certainly much has been written on the subject in the past fifteen years since Jerome J. McGann’s *A Critique of Modern Textual Criticism*, prompting many to reexamine the New Bibliography and their assumptions about editing and edited texts.

Despite the controversy, few would object to D. C. Greetham’s definition of textual scholarship: “Textual scholarship is more than just ‘criticism,’ however, and it is best defined as the general term for all the activities associated with discovering, describing, transcribing, editing, glossing, annotating, and commenting on texts” (103). Current disagreements concentrate less on the activities of editing than its methods or approaches. G. Thomas Tanselle in “The Varieties of Scholarly Editing” provides in a convenient chart a taxonomy of these approaches (11). Tanselle begins by distinguishing between Nonhistorical and Historical Editing. Historical Editing is divided into editing that reproduces documentary texts without alterations (facsimiles and literal, that is diplomatic, transcriptions) and editing that introduces alterations into documentary texts.

This latter category differentiates between degrees of editorial alteration and applies equally to the next division between works viewed as products of individuals and works viewed as collaborative (social) products, both of which are further subdivided. All the activities described by Greetham also apply to the editing of electronic versions of the texts in Tanselle's taxonomy, whether they be electronic diplomatic transcriptions of Shakespeare's plays as they originally appeared in print or electronic modern critical editions of those same works. In this paper, I will not concentrate on the technical aspects of editing electronic texts – TEI (The Text Encoding Initiative) or the intricacies of SGML (Standard Generalized Markup Language) –I will, however, strive to demonstrate that when one edits an electronic text that editor not only performs the activities that Greetham describes but also **encodes** or **tags** the electronic text for the particular purpose or use for which it is being created, editing that “best can aid your action” to appropriate Cominius' remark to Caius Martius at the Battle of Corioles.

Shakespeareans familiar with the Malone Society facsimiles, the Allen and Muir *Shakespeare's Plays in Quarto*, and the Hinman Norton *Facsimile of the First Folio* will be delighted to know that electronic facsimiles are steadily increasing in availability. The *Shakespeare: His Life, Times, Works and Sources* CD-ROM, for example, contains black and white facsimiles of approximately 5,000 images of 169 scanned documents, including the complete texts of *Venus and Adonis* (Q1, 1593), *The Rape of Lucrece* (Q1, 1594), *Shakespeare's Sonnets* (Q1, 1609), *The true Tragedie of Richard Duke of York, and the death of good King Henrie the Sixt* (Q1, 1595), *Richard II* (Q1, 1597; Q2, 1598 title page; and Q4, 1608), *Hamlet* (Q2, 1604-5), *Pericles* (Q1 1609), and *Two Noble Kinsmen* (Q1, 1634). Other facsimiles of Shakespeare and early modern texts also appear

on the Internet. Perhaps the finest of these sites is the University of Pennsylvania's Center for Electronic Text and Image, which offers stunning JPEG (Joint Photographic Experts Group) images of the Furness Shakespeare Library's Q2 *King Lear* (1619) and portions of its *First Folio*. Other facsimiles available here are the Tate (1681) and Pope (1723) *King Lear*, Benson's 1640 *Poems: written by Wil. Shake-speare. Gent.*, passages and woodcuts from Holinshed's *Chronicles* (1577), Heywood's *Fair Maid of the West* (1631), and woodcuts from Foxe's *Actes and Monuments*. With electronic facsimiles, about the only editorial decision one needs to make involves deciding on what kind of image to use, with the choices ranging from scanned images to the highest quality JPEG ones.

In the discussion that follows regarding machine-readable texts, I will be moving in a progression from unformatted text (text that contains only content) to formatted text (text that includes some descriptive information) to encoded text (text that consists of information about the text as well as the text itself).

For a long time, the most common electronic texts of Shakespeare were ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange) texts, better known as plain or unformatted text files. Plain text files are just that – they can be read, searched, or printed using a file in a word-processing program, or on a CD-ROM, or from the Internet – but, in general, they are not manipulated in any other manner. Probably the most easily obtainable plain text edition of Shakespeare on the web is *The Complete Moby™ Shakespeare*, an edition based on *The Stratford Town* modern-spelling edition of 1911, edited by Arthur Bullen and released on the Internet by Grady Ward. The *Moby Shakespeare* can be downloaded from a number of sites,

<<ftp://gatekeeper.dec.com/pub/data/shakespeare/>>, and is the edition upon which the MIT “The Complete Works of William Shakespeare,”

<<http://the-tech.mit.edu/Shakespeare/works.html>>, and Matty Farrow’s “The Works of the Bard,” <<http://www.gh.cs.oz.au/~matty/Shakespeare/Shakespeare.html>>, sites are based. Both sites note, however, that “There may be differences between a copy of a play that you happen to be familiar with and the one of this server.” This is a bit of an understatement. The *Moby Shakespeare* is derived from a text that is about ninety years old and contains inaccuracies and unconventional pointing.

The Oxford Text Archives (OTA), <<http://sable.ox.ac.uk/>>, sells ASCII old-spelling versions of original editions of Shakespeare’s works, prepared by Trevor Howard-Hill. These editions adopt limited encoding, such as the use of curly brackets to indicate italic and angle brackets to enclose speech prefixes as seen in the OTA’s Q1 *Hamlet*, which also uses angle brackets to include page numbers. Of course, Q1 *Hamlet* did not, in fact, have page numbers, pages being identified in early modern texts by their signatures. The OTA’s F1 *Macbeth* contains a bit more encoding, still using the curly brackets for italic but adding tags for such features as the title, stage directions, scene divisions, and line numbers; other features such as ornaments, column divisions, titling fonts, and block letters are not encoded.

The advantage that plain texts had in the early days of the personal computing revolution was that they could be read by any word-processing program or used on any platform from mainframe to minicomputer, from PC to Mac, and they could be exchanged electronically by disks, e-mail, or file transfer. The disadvantage of these same texts was that they were unformatted texts. If one wanted to represent italic or bold,

one had to use conventions like curly brackets or asterisks or other ASCII characters. Nevertheless, plain texts were less intended for reading on the screen than for early forms of textual analysis, with the most basic of these functions being searching for words or phrases. The editor's task when producing a plain text is to convert that text, whether it be a "modern" edition or an old-spelling one, from print into electronic form, usually by transcribing it on a computer and then checking the resultant text for accuracy.

Hypertext editions, found on CD-ROMs and the Internet, look much like their print counterparts as evident in the five plays (*MND*, *MV*, *IH4*, *Ham.*, *Oth.*, and *Tmp.*) included in *The Norton Shakespeare Workshop CD-ROM* and the Oxford edition of *The Complete Works of William Shakespeare on CD-ROM* from Andromeda Interactive, yet hypertext editions can go much further than print editions. The *BBC Shakespeare on CD-ROM: Macbeth* and *The Voyager Shakespeare Macbeth* include imbedded annotations, audio tracks, film clips, and commentary and notes. The BBC version that can be packaged with the Bevington *Complete Works* is glitzier and more media savvy than *The Voyager*, but *The Voyager* far surpasses the BBC with the depth of its scholarship in the commentary and textual notes by David Rodes and A. R. Braunmuller. The BBC uses the Peter Alexander text, clips from *The BBC TV Shakespeare*, a BBC Radio audio version with Anthony Quayle, and BBC interviews with actors, directors, and critics. *The Voyager* contains the 1993 New Cambridge edition, an RSC Performance (Thames Productions, 1976) with Ian McKellen, and clips from Orson Welles's (Republic Pictures, 1948) and Roman Polanski's (Playboy Productions and Columbia, 1971) films as well as Akira Kurasawa's *Throne of Blood* (Toko, 1958). With both these CD-ROMs, one can read the text while listening to the audio version, view

clips of various scenes, access commentary and notes at any time, and click on highlighted words for annotations.

Hypertext editions on the Internet also encourage forms of non-linear reading. Bernice Kilman's electronic edition of *The Enfolded Hamlet*, <http://narp.oed.com/enfolded.html>, has text common to Q2 and F1 in blue, text only in Q2 in green, and text only in F1 in red. One can read the enfolded version or the Q2 green text or the F1 red text. Another Internet site of scholarly interest is Ian Lancashire's Renaissance Electronic Texts <http://library.utoronto.ca/www/utel/ret/ret.html>. The RET is a "series of old-spelling, SGML-encoded editions of early individual copies of English Renaissance books and manuscripts, and of plain transcriptions of such works, published on the World Wide Web as a free resource for students of the period." The edition of *Shakespeare's Sonnets* (Q1, 1609) that Ian Lancashire and I have prepared for the RET consists of a critical introduction, three versions of the text – HTML (for reading on the screen), SGML (for advanced study), and COCOA (for use with TACT and OCP, text concordance and analysis programs discussed below) – and supporting appendices. RET editions provide significant amounts of bibliographical information embedded in each text. Even the HTML text, the least bibliographically detailed version, records signatures, forms, compositors, the long-s, ligatures, line numbers, rhyme schemes, and catchwords. Michael Best's Internet Shakespeare Editions, <http://web.uvic.ca/shakespeare/>, is more ambitious: "The aim of the Internet Shakespeare Editions is to make scholarly, fully annotated texts of Shakespeare's plays

available in a form native to the medium of the Internet.” The ISA appears to be just what Greetham had in mind when he wrote approximately seven years ago:

While computers have been used to research, edit, produce, and typeset printed critical editions, fully electronic texts, marketed in computer-readable form and even manipulated by the reader and used to create reader-designed critical editions, are still in the planning stages – although, there is little doubt that they will come soon. The very notion of “hypertext,” a cumulative electronic storage of all forms and states of text forming that text’s history, will assuredly provide the raw and combinatory materials for the production of reader- or, more correctly, viewer-created editions in the near future . . . (121)

All these varieties of hypertext editions are possible because an editor encodes them in HTML (HyperText Markup Language), thus enabling the effects described above.

Others forms of encoding are used to produce texts for concordance and analysis programs. The Oxford Concordance Program (OCP), originally developed as a mainframe concordance program then implemented for micro-computers, and TACT (Text-Analysis Computing Tools), developed at the Centre for Computing in the Humanities, University of Toronto, require texts encoded in COCOA, whose “tags are used to assign values to variables at certain positions in a text” (Lancashire 13).

WordCruncher, developed in the early 1980s at Brigham Young University, employs a much simpler three-level tagging system. The editor tags or encodes texts to enable them to be manipulated and analyzed by these programs.

I began this paper by citing Kastan’s contention that editing has become a hot topic of debate because of interest in the “materiality” of early modern texts. Stephen

Orgel notes, for example, “. . . clearly the idea of a book embodying the final, perfected text was not a Renaissance one, and what the Renaissance practice produced was an edition in which it was unlikely that any copy of a book would be identical to any other copy” (23). Thus, an interest in the materiality of an early modern text entails an interest in what Randall McLeod refers to in one place as “the iconicity of the text” (“UNEditing” 38) and in another, under the pseudonym Random Clod, as the early modern typographical medium’s “complex, ambiguous, contradictory, unhomogeneous” face (“Information” 246). Susan Zimmerman in her “Afterword to the Forum: Editing Early Modern Texts” summarizes the position of poststructuralist editors:

As its critics see it, the New Bibliography represents an effort to structure early modern texts in ways that are inappropriate to the conditions of their production, to impose an arbitrary order on processes that are fundamentally “unstable” According to this view, those agencies which render early modern texts “unstable” – for example, literary conventions, printing house practices, extra-authorial interventions (such as the circulation of scribal transcripts), and in the case of playtexts, playhouse revisions – simultaneously render any concept of unitary textual integrity untenable, particularly one proceeding from the “original” intention of the author. It is, then, textual instability itself that contemporary editions should try to foreground, however, imperfectly, through multiple-version editions, facsimile editions, hypertext editions, and so on. (71)

In fact, Post New Bibliographers evince less interest in “substantives” (content) and “accidentals” (orthography) than in what McGann identifies as the linguistic codes (the words) and bibliographical codes (the typography, layout, paper, order, and so on)

(*Critique*; “What” 23) or what McLeod refers to as lexical items and the system of graphic codes (Clod 250). Electronic editors who wish to record bibliographical codes as well as linguistic ones can use SGML (Standard Generalized Markup Language) and identify every significant feature of an individual text. In the SGML version of *Venus and Adonis* that I am preparing for the Internet Shakespeare Editions, I identify by encoding features such as the headpiece by its reference to Plomer, the printer’s device by its reference to McKerrow, each individual piece of type by font type as well as the long-s and all ligatures. Throughout catchwords, signatures, and forms as well as the corresponding physical page numbers are tagged. Stanza numbers and rhymes, book division line numbers and stanza line numbers, running titles, hung words, all are identified by SGML tags.

Ian Lancashire has argued strongly that the Text Encoding Initiative’s “firm proposals for a standard way to represent textual knowledge in SGML” do provide “valuable advice on most questions that arise in tagging texts, it remains to be seen whether the humanities will accept the TEI’s proposed standard” (206). Nevertheless, SGML does enable electronic editors to “represent textual knowledge” at the very least for archival purposes. As the electronic age continues, the importance of archiving all these features of material books into electronic form cannot be underestimated, as Greetham has observed:

Another textual control over the canon occurred, and occurs, during any major change in medium. Just as the move from roll to codex (the familiar folded, stitched book) during the early Christian Era determined the survival of ancient works into the medieval canon, so later the move from script to print and now the

similar move from print to electronic publishing has determined, and will determine, what materials are preserved for later study. (107)

In the paper, I have illustrated the variety of electronic text. These texts are made available through different means. For all these electronic texts, electronic editors must make all the same decisions as their print counterparts, but they must also encode those texts for the purpose to which they are to be used and in doing so produce electronic textual alternatives “that best can aid your action.”

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