The Simplified Spelling Society

presents

CUT SPELLING

A HANDBOOK

to the simplification of written English by omission of redundant letters.

"To change all would be too much, and to change one is nothing" - Samuel Johnson, 1755

First prepared 1988-92 by a Working Group of the Simplified Spelling Society consisting of Paul Fletcher, Jean Hutchins, Christopher Jolly and chaired by Christopher Upward. Revised and expanded for this second edition 1995-96.
OUTLINE of CONTENTS

(Parts I, II, III each begin with their own detailed table of contents and/or introduction)

Acknowledgements...........................................................i

Foreword to the second edition......................................ii

How to use the Handbook..............................................vi

Key to abbreviations, symbols & terms......................viii

Part I: Cut Spelling explained........................................ 1

Part II: Cut Spelling demonstrated ........................... 197

Part III: Dictionary for checking cut forms against traditional spellings............................. 267

Suggestions for further reading ................................. 336

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Many of the above individuals have continued to support the Cut Spelling project since the first edition was published. Others too numerous to list individually have subsequently come to know Cut Spelling and have assisted in its consolidation and development by analysing, criticising, encouraging, learning, using and/or disseminating the new orthography around the world. But of these, at least the following must be singled out for their varied contributions: Ian Ascott, Tom Bloor, Adam Brown, John Bryant, Harry Cohen, Chris Gledhill, Nur Kurtoglu-Hooton, Roger Mitton, Tom Mulvey, Tony Papard, Mike Perry, Ze do Rock. Responsibility for the contents of this edition of the CS Handbook is nevertheless borne by myself alone.

FOREWORD TO THE SECOND EDITION

Impact of the first edition
The first, limited, edition of the Handbook to Cut Spelling (CS) was published in 1992, and in just over a year all its 250 copies had been distributed. The general response was sufficiently positive for the Simplified Spelling Society to decide that the Handbook could not be allowed to remain unavailable for long. There were two possibilities: either a simple reprint could be produced to meet the immediate continuing demand, or else, with an inevitably longer delay, a revised and expanded edition could be prepared which would build on the experience gained during the intervening period. In late 1995 the opportunity arose to produce such a second edition, which now appears as this volume.

The first edition of the Handbook aroused wide interest. The publicity generated by its launch was considerable and enduring. Over the airwaves CS was covered by the BBC World Service, with further specific broadcasts going to New Zealand, Nigeria and South Africa, as well as being heard from numerous national and local radio stations in the United Kingdom. Press reports were syndicated across the United States, and appeared at least in France, Germany and the Netherlands, and in numerous newspapers in the United Kingdom. On a more academic level, CS is now recorded in general reference works on the English language as an innovative proposal for the modernization of English spelling, and has been analyzed in more specialized studies. Basic information on CS is accessible (and is being accessed) on the Internet. Publishers have proved willing to accept material in CS, with (so far) one research report in a scholarly journal and a chapter in a collection of conference papers printed in it, and other items forthcoming. Articles have appeared explaining and demonstrating CS in professional journals addressed to teachers of basic literacy skills and of English as a foreign language, as well as targeted at more general readerships. Conferences have been addressed both on the subject of CS itself, and using CS for illustrative material. CS has been regularly used in personal and professional correspondence around the world (for instance to Australia, Canada, China, India, Japan, Saudi Arabia and the USA), both in hard copy and in electronic form. And of course readers of the Simplified Spelling Society's publications have now been familiar with CS, in its evolving forms, for a decade and more.
FOREWORD

It may not be altogether implausible to claim that, since the first edition of the Handbook appeared in 1992, CS has become more widely known than any previous proposal for reforming English spelling.

Lessons for the second edition
Since 1992 a rich body of experience has accumulated in the use, reception, and operation of CS. Well over half a million words of continuous text on a range of subjects have been written in CS, almost certainly far more than in any previous reformed English orthography. This practical use has clarified some uncertainties, highlighted some problems, and reinforced the advantages of the system from the writer's viewpoint. Readers' reactions have been expressed through numerous comments received, ranging from the abusive to the enthusiastic. These have described readers' initial responses to CS, their process of acclimatization, and the difficulties they may have encountered in decoding individual words. Readers have included young and old, native and non-native speakers of English, and professionals such as academic linguists and remedial literacy teachers, alongside lay persons with a general interest in alternative ways of writing English.

The second edition has benefited not only from all this practical but also from improved understanding in related areas. Research on literacy teaching methods, especially in the 1980s, has become better known, confirming the phonics approach, (ensuring beginners appreciate how sounds are represented by letters) as fundamental to proficiency in reading and writing. Recognition of the importance of phonics, despite its limitations in English, highlights the centrality of the alphabetic principle to a good writing system, namely that the letters should predictably represent sounds, and sounds be predictably represented by letters. Cut Spelling's claim to satisfy the demands of phonics and of the alphabetic principle far better than does through traditional orthography of English (TO) — though still not perfectly — can therefore now be advanced more forcefully than before.

Fresh support for CS also comes from three other directions, historical, geographical and technological. Historical research has revealed that a broader range of CS forms was in use in the Middle English period (eg, in the 14th century, the age of Chaucer) than had been suspected when the first edition was prepared. Geographically, it has recently become apparent that one effect of CS is to remove many arbitrary disparities between English spellings and their equivalents in other, mainly western European, languages, so making foreign language learning easier both for native and, especially,
non-native speakers of English. In yet another area, that of information technology, the strides made in the past few years in developing electronic written communication (known by such terms as the Information Superhighway, the Internet, the World Wide Web, etc) open up new possibilities for implementing English spelling reform. The effect of the new technologies on the literacy practices of younger generations is emerging as a further argument for simplifying the alphabetically grotesque spellings currently promulgated as correct in TO.

Changes between the first and second edition
This second edition of the CS Handbook has thus been strengthened by the new knowledge and clearer perspectives that have emerged in all these areas. At the same time a number of specific changes have been introduced in the presentation of the CS system. The readability of the Handbook has been enhanced by more generous spacing of text and by using small capitals to indicate letters of the alphabet and spelling patterns, instead of the traditional cumbersome and unattractive angle brackets; thus what appeared as <a>, <b>, <c> in the first edition now appears as A, B, C.

Scarcely any changes have proved necessary in the proposed spelling of individual words in CS. Two minor, isolated instances may nevertheless be mentioned:

1) it is now thought better to reinforce the recommended rules for keeping SS (see Part 1, Chapter 3, Rule 3, §2.4) and write CS messaj, rather than to harmonize this one word with the rare single S of its rhyme presaj.

2) it became apparent that the second E, of TO elsewhere was redundant by Rule 1, E. 1. 1. 13, and CS now recommends elswher.

In Part I, Chapters 1 & 2, it has been possible to introduce or expand discussion of various points which in the first edition had given rise to objections and/or misunderstandings. These include the concern that redundant letters are actually important in ensuring comprehension, the question of how far CS can suit speakers of all the world's accents of English, and the misconception that CS aims to regularize all the irregularities of TO.

The main changes to Part 1, Chapter 3, which contains the detailed arguments for cutting particular letters from TO spellings, take the form of clarification. Thus the dilemma of the TO alternatives carcass/carcass, with first syllable stress, has now been resolved by analogy with atlas, so distinguishing CS carcass, and several parallel spellings, from the second-
syllable stress pattern of uncut forms like *erase/morass* (Rule 1, E.1.1.13). Similarly, a new comprehensive analysis of the L, M, N, R + T sequences (Rule to, §1.5) has shown that the advantages of the controversial long consonant strings in CS forms like *exlnt, govrnmnt, contnnt, cormnmt* are far greater than originally appreciated.

But while those changes represent a strengthening of the case for CS, Chapter 6 (Part 2: *Stopng short of CS*, §2.3.8) now sets out in detail the various anomalies (loose ends, rough edges, warts) in CS that were not previously collected together at any one point in the Handbook, or have, in a few cases, only become apparent since the first edition was published. These anomalies range from lists of the unproblematic mergers of the *peace/piece* > *pece* type and the slightly more problematic *plaice* > *place* type, to a few gross heterophonic ambiguities of the type *err/heir* > *er*. Although none of these anomalies calls into question the integrity of the CS system as a whole, they are now more clearly recognized as blemishes, and ways of preventing them are discussed.

It goes without saying that the opportunity of a second edition has been taken to correct whatever misprints and other small errors had come to light in the first edition.
The Handbook to Cut Spelling consists of three main parts and several purposes. Part I offers an analysis of the traditional orthography of English (particularly, but by no means only, its redundant letters), age makes a plea for TO to be modernized by omission of those letters, and it provides a step-by-step demonstration of how written English is simplified as the result of their omission. Parts II and III servers practical guides to how writers proficient in TO may learn to use such a simplified orthography.

The analysis of TO contained in Part I should be of interest to all students and teachers of English spelling, whether or not they believe the system should be simplified. Unlike some other surveys, this Handbook does not aim to give a systematic account of all the vagaries of sound-symbol correspondence found in TO. Instead, it presents a functional analysis, based on observation of the feature of TO that causes learners in users the greatest difficulty. This feature is redundancy, which means the numerous letters that are surplus to the proper functioning of an alphabetic writing system. The process of elucidating them brings other aspects of TO to light: how arbitrarily many of the redundant letters were acquired in the history of the language; how perversely TO often differs from the spelling of related European languages; and how naturally readers and writers, from absolute beginners to skilled and experience practitioners, stumble into the traps represented, with exquisite psychological spite, by the redundant letters.

This analysis leads to the conclusion that the can be no justification for leading English spelling as it now is, as "one of the world's most awesome messes", and that removing redundant letters would be the single most effective step that could be taken to improve it. Readers are not obliged to agree with that conclusion - the evidence presented provides illumination enough of the reason why the acquisition of literacy is such a struggle, and so often unsuccessful, in English.

Part I ("the system explained") describes the aim of CS, discusses its social and psychological implications, and analyses its simplified forms. It attempts to answer the why? how? and what? of CS, and addresses readers wishing to evaluate CS as an innovative writing system, as well as those generally curious about its origins, underlying assumptions and mode of operation. It is also a source of reference, explaining the simplified spelling patterns listed in part II. The text of part I progressively introduces CS, which is then used almost throughout the rest of the Handbook.
Readers whose main aim is to master CS for their own use, without bothering with its detailed rationale, are advised to begin with **Part II** ("the system demonstrated"), which lists examples of CS spelling in three ways. The first section groups examples according to cutting pattern, and is intended to give a straightforward overview of how CS operates, as well as to encourage readers to think critically about both traditional and simplified spelling shown; each pattern refers to paragraph in part I with the reason for each cut is explained. The second section of Part II is more directly designed for the learner: where the first section consisted of repetitive lists of words following a single pattern, the second section mixes the patterns in the form of structured exercises. The third section contains parallel texts in TO and CS, to give learners practice in identifying redundant letters in authentic writing. Learners can practise CS in all three sections by covering the right-hand column, which is printed in CS, and trying to work out the CS forms from the TO equivalents given in the left-hand column.

**Part III** contains a dictionary of the CS forms of over 21,000 of the most common words in modern English containing redundant letters. It can be used both by readers wanting to evaluate the system and by writers wanting to check the CS forms of specific words for their own writing.

It is hoped that, whether or not readers are persuaded CS offers a desirable step forward for written English, it will raise their awareness of the deficiencies of TO and the need for it to be modernized.
KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS, SYMBOLS & TERMS

CS = Cut Spelling.

TO = Traditional Orthography, ie, the customary British and/or American spelling of English words in the twentieth century, as opposed to simplified spelling.

/t/ A letter between slashes represents a sound (phoneme); thus we can say, the final consonant sound in the word passed is /t/.

D A letter in SMALL CAPITALS represents the alphabetic symbol concerned; thus we can say, the /t/ in passed is spelt D.

*xxx An asterisk before a word indicates an incorrect or non-existent (eg, purely theoretical) written form; thus we can say, "Poor spellers often write *recieve"; or, "Although the form *Inglish would show the pronunciation, Cut Spelling keeps the letters of the traditional spelling English".

xxx* An asterisk following a CS form indicates that a letter has, exceptionally, been retained, although the normal application of CS rules would require its omission; thus we can say "Off* is a CS form, although Rule 3 would normally require the FF to be simplified."

§ Refers to a particular numbered or coded paragraph or section in Part I of the Handbook.

Short vowels
These are the sounds of the vowel letters A, E, I, O, U, Y as heard in pat, pet, pit, pot, putlputt, myth.

Long vowels
These are the sounds of the vowel letters A, E, I, O, U, Y as heard in the names of the letters themselves, ie, as in mate, mete, mite, mote, brute/mute, type, also in maid, mead, might, moat, fluit, and in many other spellings.

Hard C, G
These are the sounds of the letters C, G as heard in catgut.

Soft C, G
These are the sounds of the letter C as heard in Cecil, and of the letter G as heard in ginger.
PART 1: CONTENTS & CATALOGUE

The following pages provide page references for the analysis of the detailed patterns of Cut Spelling. By giving an example for most patterns, they also present a skeleton catalogue of CS patterns and forms. NB: the examples given below only show cuts explained up to that point (eg E.1.1.17 shows *brunette* cut to *brunett*, but Rule 3 later produces the final CS form *brunet*); if the final CS form of words listed below is required, it should be checked in the dictionary in Part III.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter/Section</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER 1 CUT SPELLING: AIM &amp; CONTEXT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Definition, origin and evolution of Cut Spelling</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>A new approach to English spelling</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Definition of CS and purposes of the Handbook</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Historic tendency to economy in writing</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Origins of CS</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Development and consolidation of CS</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Definitions of redundancy</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>CS and the principles of alphabetic spelling</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Historical and psychological foundations</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>CS and the reform of English spelling</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Advantages of CS</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1</td>
<td>Practical advantages</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2</td>
<td>Advantages for implementation</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.3</td>
<td>Wider linguistic advantages</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Some questions of implementation</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Spreading the idea</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Levels and machinery for implementation</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>The social psychology of implementation</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Future development</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER 2 CUT SPELLING: FORM &amp; CONTENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>On first approaching CS</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>CS is easy to read</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Degrees of strangeness</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Homophones and homographs</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Writing CS</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>If in doubt, don’t cut out</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Flexibility needed for transitional period</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Full CS cuts nevertheless preferable</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.8 Avoiding ambiguity, ensuring compatibility ........................................... 46
1.9 Coming to terms with shorter CS forms .............................................. 46
1.10 Different needs of adults, beginners, professionals ......................... 47

2 The letters and their sounds ................................................................. 49
2.1 The function of letters ...................................................................... 49
2.2 Standard sound-values of letters in English .................................... 49
   2.2.1 Consonants ................................................................................. 50
   2.2.2 Vowels ..................................................................................... 50
2.3 Letters in combination (digraphs) ..................................................... 51
   2.3.1 Consonant digraphs .................................................................. 51
   2.3.2 Vowel digraphs ........................................................................ 51
2.4 Simplifying doubled spellings for long e ........................................ 52
2.5 Keeping non-standard sound-values of letters .................................. 52
2.6 Morphemic variation ........................................................................ 53
2.7 Alternative TO spellings .................................................................... 53

3 Learning processes ................................................................................ 54
3.1 Three categories: rules and exercises .............................................. 54
3.2 Identifying short vowels .................................................................. 54
3.3 ‘Magic’ long vowel indicators beside e .......................................... 54
3.4 Matching against shorter TO forms ................................................. 55
3.5 Too much to learn? ........................................................................... 55
3.6 How difficult would CS be for initial learners? .............................. 56
3.7 Assessing backwards compatibility ................................................ 57

CHAPTER 3 WHICH LETTERS ARE CUT? ............................................. 59
1 Cutting as far as possible .................................................................. 59
2 Illustration by progressive use of CS spellings ................................. 59
3 The Cutting Rules ................................................................................ 59
4 Presentation ......................................................................................... 60

RULE 1: LETTERS IRRELEVANT TO PRONUNCIATION .................. 60

Redundant A .......................................................................................... 61
A.1 AE > E ............................................................................................. 61
   A.1.1 AE > E: anaemia > anemia ....................................................... 61
   A.1.2 AER- > AR-, ER-? ................................................................. 61
A.2 EA > E ............................................................................................. 61
   A.2.1 Final -EA > -E in monosyllables: tea > te ............................. 61
   A.2.2 -EA-E > -E-E: long E doubly indicated ............................... 61
       A.2.2.1 peace > pece ................................................................. 61
       A.2.2.2 -EASE > -ESE: ease > ese ........................................... 61
   A.2.2.3 -EATHE > -ETHE: breathe > brethe .................................. 62
   A.2.2.4 -EAVE > -EVE: leave > leve ............................................ 62
A.2.3 -EA- > -E- pronounced as short E ............................................. 62
CUT SPELLING Part I: the system explained

### A.2.3.1  -EA- > -E-: head > hed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.2.3.1</td>
<td>-EA- &gt; -E-: head &gt; hed</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A.2.3.2  -EAR- > -ER-: earn > ern

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.2.3.2</td>
<td>-EAR- &gt; -ER-: earn &gt; ern</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A.2.4  EA > E pronounced as long A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.2.4.1</td>
<td>-Ea- &gt; -E-: break &gt; brek</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.2.4.2</td>
<td>-EAR &gt; -ER: pear &gt; per</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A.3  -OA- > -O-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.3.1</td>
<td>broad &gt; brod</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.3.2</td>
<td>-OAL &gt; -OL?</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.3.3</td>
<td>-OAR &gt; -OR: coarse &gt; corse</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A.3.4  LOATH > LOTH: loathe > lothe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.3.4</td>
<td>LOATH &gt; LOTH: loathe &gt; lothe</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A.4  -ICALLY > -ICLY: basically > basicly

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.4</td>
<td>-ICALLY &gt; -ICLY: basically &gt; basicly</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### A.5  Miscellaneous: cocoa > coco

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.5</td>
<td>Miscellaneous: cocoa &gt; coco</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Redundant B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B.1</td>
<td>Short vowel + -MB &gt; -M: dumb &gt; dum</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.2</td>
<td>-BT &gt; -T: debt &gt; det</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.3</td>
<td>No cut in long vowel + -MB: comb</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Redundant C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C.1</td>
<td>-CK &gt; -K: see Rule 3</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.2</td>
<td>-CQ &gt; -Q: acquit &gt; aquit</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.3</td>
<td>SC- &gt; S-: descend &gt; desend</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.4</td>
<td>SCH- &gt; SH-: schist &gt; shist</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.5</td>
<td>-XC- &gt; -X-: except &gt; exept</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.6</td>
<td>Silent C</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.7</td>
<td>Retaining C for the sound of SH: conscience &gt; concience</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.8</td>
<td>S preferred to C: defence &gt; defense</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.9</td>
<td>K preferred to C: disc &gt; disk</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.10</td>
<td>-CTI- or -XI-: connection or connexion?</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.11</td>
<td>Silent ‘magic’ C retained: indict</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Redundant D

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D.1</td>
<td>-DG- &gt; -J- see Chapter 4</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.2</td>
<td>ADJ- &gt; AJ-: adjust &gt; ajust</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.3</td>
<td>-D- beside -N-: handkerchief &gt; hankerchief</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Redundant E

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E.1</td>
<td>Redundant final E</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.1.1</td>
<td>After consonants</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.1.1.1</td>
<td>the &gt; th</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.1.1.2</td>
<td>TO alternatives: axe &gt; ax</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.1.1.3</td>
<td>O with short U-value: come &gt; com</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.1.1.4</td>
<td>-FE &gt; -F: carafe &gt; caraf</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.1.1.5.1</td>
<td>-DGE &gt; -Dj or &gt; -J: see Chapter 4</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.1.1.5.2</td>
<td>-GE &gt; -J: see Chapter 4</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.1.1.6</td>
<td>-GUE &gt; -G: league &gt; leag (cf E.1.1.11)</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
E.1.1.7 Consonant +LE > consonant +L: little > littl .............. 70
E.1.1.8 Vowel +LE > vowel +L ........................................... 70
  E.1.1.8.1 -YLE > American -YL: virile > viril ................. 70
  E.1.1.8.2 -OLE not cut to -OL: pole .................................. 70
  E.1.1.8.3 -ULE > -UL: module > modul .......................... 71
E.1.1.9 -NE > -N: destine > destin ............................... 71
E.1.1.10 Europe > Europ .............................................. 71
E.1.1.11 -QUE > -Q: plaque > plaq (cf E.1.1.6) ............... 71
E.1.1.12 -RE > -R ............................................................ 71
   E.1.1.12.1 ar, wer, wher ............................................. 71
   E.1.1.12.2 Consonant +-RE > +-R: centre > centr ............ 72
   E.1.1.12.3 -IRE > -IR: Cheshire > Cheshir .................... 72
   E.1.1.12.4 -ORE > -OR: before > befor .......................... 72
   E.1.1.12.5 -URE > -UR: nature > natur .......................... 72
E.1.1.13 Retaining or cutting -SE: tense, practis ................ 72
E.1.1.14 -TE > -T: opposite > opposit ............................ 73
E.1.1.15 -VE > -V: give > giv ........................................ 73
E.1.1.16 -WE > -W: ewe > ew ........................................ 73
E.1.1.17 French final -E: brunette > brunett .................... 73
E.1.2 Redundant final -E after vowels ................................ 74
   E.1.2.1 Monosyllabic -EE > -E: fee > fe ....................... 74
   E.1.2.2 Final -IE remains -IE: die ............................... 74
E.1.2.3 -OE > -O: foe > fo .......................................... 74
E.1.2.4 -UE > -U: argue > argu .................................... 74
E.1.2.5 -YE > -Y: rye > ry ........................................... 75
E.1.2.6 -Y-E > -Y-: type > typ ..................................... 75
E.2 Redundant medial (or initial) E ..................................... 75
E.2.1 In vowel digraphs .................................................. 75
   E.2.1.1 HEAR- > HAR-: hearth > harth ......................... 75
   E.2.1.2 -EAU > -AU: bureau > burau ............................ 75
   E.2.1.3 -EE-E > E-E: sleeve > sleve ........................... 76
   E.2.1.4 EI, IE > I: fiery > fiery, frontier > frontir ........ 76
   E.2.1.5 Yeoman > yoman ........................................... 76
   E.2.1.6 EU > U: adieu > adiu .................................... 76
   E.2.1.7 -EW > *W: brew > *brw .................................. 77
   E.2.1.8 -EY > -Y: donkey > donky ............................. 77
E.2.1.9 manoeuvre > maneuvr ......................................... 77
E.2.2 Adjacent to consonants ........................................... 77
   E.2.2.1 -GE > -J: see Chapter 4 ................................. 77
   E.2.2.2 Medial -E- > -: every > evry ............................. 78
E.3 Redundant inflectional E ............................................... 78
E.3.1 Consonant +-ED > -D: washed > washd ........................ 78
E.3.2.1 Vowel +-ED > -D: taxied > taxid ......................... 79
E.3.2.2 Vowel +-ES > -S: potatoes > potatos ........................ 79
E.3.3 -Y, -EY+ -D, -S inflections: replied > replyd, pitied > pitid.

Redundant F

Redundant G

G.1 Silent G

G.1.1 -GM > -M: diaphragm > diaphram

G.1.2 Initial GN- > N-: gnaw > naw

G.1.3 Final -GN > -N:

G.1.3.1 Spurious -GN > -N: foreign > forein

G.1.3.2 Long vowel + -GN > -N: deign > dein

G.1.3.3 -GN > -YN: see Chapter 4

G.2 gh

G.2.1 -AIGH- > -AI-: straight > strait

G.2.2 -AUGHT > -AUT: caught > caut

G.2.3 -EIGH > -EI: eight > eit

G.2.4 -IGH > -Y: see Chapter 4

G.2.5 OUGH, the most irregular use of irregular GH

G.2.5.1 -OUGH > -O: though > tho

G.2.5.2 -OUGH > -U: through > thru

G.2.5.3 -OUGH > -OU: drought > drouut

G.2.5.4 OUGHT > OT: ought > ot

G.2.6 GH > F: see Chapter 4

G.2.7 GH > K: hough > hok

G.2.8 GH > P: hiccough > hiccup

G.2.9 GH in proper names

Redundant H

H.1 Silent H

H.1.1 H- > -: honest > onest

H.1.2 Consonant +H > consonant + -: exhaust > exaust

H.1.3 -AH > -A: cheetah > cheeta

H.2 Redundant H in digraphs

H.2.1 ‘Greek’ CH > often C: chaos > caos

H.2.2 Other CHs: yacht > yat

H.2.3 GH > G: ghost > gost

H.2.4 PH > F: see Chapter 4

H.2.5 RH > R: rhythm > rythm

H.2.6 TH > T: thyme > tym

H.2.7 WH- > W-: which > wich

H.2.8 Exotic aspiration: khaki > kaki

H.3 Exceptions

Redundant I

I.1 Medial I

I.1.1 Misleading digraphs: friend > frend
I.1.2 AI-E > A-E: praise > prase .............................................................. 87
I.1.3 EI-E, IE-E > E-E: receive > receve, believe > beleve ................. 87
I.1.4 -EIR > -ER: their > ther .............................................................. 88
I.1.5 -OIr usually retained ................................................................. 88
I.1.6 -UI > U: juice > juce ................................................................. 88
I.1.7 Elision of I: business > business .............................................. 88
I.2 Listed under Rule 2 ..................................................................... 88
   I.2.1 fertile > fertl ........................................................................... 88
   I.2.2 Representing post-accentual shwa ......................................... 88
I.3 After G > J substitution: see Chapter 4 ....................................... 89
I.4 Y/I preferences ......................................................................... 89
Redundant J marijuana > mariuana .................................................... 89
Redundant K ..................................................................................... 89
   K.1 KN- > K-: knob > nob ............................................................ 89
   K.2 -CK- > -: blackguard > blagard ........................................... 89
Redundant L ..................................................................................... 89
   L.1 -ould > -(O)UD: could > cud ................................................. 89
   L.2 AL- > A: salmon > samon .................................................... 90
   L.3 Silent L retained .................................................................... 90
   L.3.1 -ALF, -ALV not cut: half, halv ........................................... 90
   L.3.2 -ALK not cut: talk ............................................................. 90
   L.3.3 -ALM not cut: calm ............................................................ 90
   L.3.4 -OLK not cut: folk .............................................................. 90
   L.3.5 colonel .............................................................................. 90
Redundant M: mnemonic > nemonic .................................................. 91
Redundant N: condemn > condemn .................................................. 91
Redundant O .................................................................................... 91
   O.1 -EO- > -E-: people > peple .................................................... 91
   O.2 OE- > E-: foetus > fetus ....................................................... 91
   O.3 -OO- > -O-: blood > blod ..................................................... 91
   O.4 OU > U ................................................................................. 91
   O.4.1 you > u, your > yr .............................................................. 92
   O.4.2 TO OU for long U: through > thru ...................................... 92
   O.4.3 TO OU for short U: touch > tuch ......................................... 92
   O.4.4 -ould > -UD: could > cud ................................................ 92
   O.4.5 -OUR- > -UR-: scourge > scurge ....................................... 92
   O.4.6 -OUS > -US: enormous > enormus .................................... 92
   O.5 moustache > mustach .......................................................... 93
   O.6 colonel > colnel ................................................................. 93
   O.7 Loss of post-accentual shwa spelt O by Rule 2 ...................... 93
   O.8 word and two not cut ........................................................ 93
Redundant P

P.1 Silent initial P: *psalm > salm* .............................................................. 93
P.2 -MP + consonant > -M + consonant: *empty > emty* ...................... 93
P.3 receipt > receit .................................................................................. 93
P.4 sapphire > saphire............................................................................. 94
P.5 Elided P before consonant: *cupboard > cubord* ......................... 94
P.6 Silent French -P: *coup > c(o)u* ................................................... 94
P.7 PH > F: see Chapter 4 ...................................................................... 94

Redundant Q .............................................................................................. 94

Redundant R

R.1 R not normally cut............................................................................ 94
R.2 -R + shwa + R: *literary > litry* .................................................... 95

Redundant S .............................................................................................. 95

S.1 Traditional silent S: *isle > ile* .......................................................... 95
S.2 Final silent French S: *debris > debri* ............................................ 95
S.3 -SE > -ZE: *organise > organize* .................................................. 95
S.4 ’S > S: see Chapter 5 ...................................................................... 95
S.5 -SC- > -C-: *conscious > conicus* ................................................ 95

Redundant T .............................................................................................. 95

T.1 -TCH > -CH: *pitch > pich* ................................................................. 95
T.2 -FT- > -F-: *often > ofn* ................................................................. 96
T.3 -ST- > -S-: *whistle > wisl* ............................................................... 96
T.4 Final silent French T: *depot > depo* ............................................ 96

Redundant U .............................................................................................. 96

U.1 Aberrant values not cut .................................................................... 96
U.2 U cut after consonants .................................................................... 96
U.2.1 After G .......................................................................................... 96
  U.2.1.1 Hard GU + A, O > sometimes GA, GO: *guard > gard* ....... 96
  U.2.1.2 Hard GU + E, I, Y > GE, GI, GY: *guest > gest* ................. 97
  U.2.1.3 Final -GUE > -GE: *vague > vage* ....................................... 97
U.2.2 Silent U cut after Q: *plaque > plaq* ........................................ 97
U.2.3 -CU- not cut: *biscuit* ................................................................. 97
U.3 Redundant U with other vowels ..................................................... 97
  U.3.1 AU- > A-: *fault > fall* ............................................................... 97
  U.3.2 -UI- > -I-: *build > bld* ............................................................. 98
  U.3.3 -OU > O: *shoulder > sholder* ................................................. 98
  U.3.4 buoy > boy .............................................................................. 98
  U.3.5 *buy > by* .............................................................................. 98
Redundant V.......................................................................................................................... 98

Redundant W .......................................................................................................................... 98
  W.1 Initial silent W.............................................................................................................. 98
  W.1.1 WH- > H-: whole > hole ................................................................. 98
  W.1.2 WR- > R-: wrist > rist ................................................................. 98
  W.2 Medial silent W: sword > sord ................................................................. 99
  W.3 Final -OW > -O .......................................................................................... 99
    W.3.1 Monosyllabic -OW > -O: blow>blo ....................................................... 99
    W.3.2 Problems of cutting -OW + suffix .................................................. 99
      W.3.2.1 -OWN uncut ................................................................. 100
      W.3.2.2 -OWED > -OED: crowed>croed ................................................. 100
      W.3.2.3 -OWY ................................................................. 100
      W.3.2.4 owing > oing, ows > os ......................................................... 100
    W.3.3 Disyllabic -OW > -O: follow > follo .................................................. 101

Redundant X.......................................................................................................................... 101
  X.1 Final silent French -X ........................................................................ 101
  X.2 -X- or -CT? .......................................................................................... 101
  X.3 ecstasy or extasy? .................................................................................. 101

Redundant Y.......................................................................................................................... 101
  Y.1 you > U.............................................................................................................. 101
  Y.2 Redundant post-vocalic -Y: key > ke .................................................. 102
  Y.3 I for short value, Y for long value: gipsy/tyro (cf. I.4) ....................... 102
  Y.4 -EY > -Y: donkey > donky ................................................................. 102
  Y.5 Miscellaneous alternatives to Y .............................................................. 103

Redundant Z.......................................................................................................................... 103

RULE 2: CUTTING UNSTRESSED VOWELS ................................................................. 104

Category 1:  (a) Unstressed vowels before L, M, N, R ......................... 104
  (b) Cutting post-, but not pre-accentual shwa ........................................... 104
  (c) Problems of post-accentual shwa in TO .............................................. 105
  (d) Clarifying stress patterns ...................................................................... 105
  (e) The power of consonant strings ............................................................. 105
  (f) Coping with consonant strings .............................................................. 106

Category 2: Vowels in suffixes ........................................................................................... 107
Category 1: Before L, M, N, R

1.1.L Syllabic L

1.1.L.1 candle > candl
1.1.L.A signal > signl
1.1.L.E camel > caml
1.1.L.I fossil > fossl
1.1.L.O symbol > symbl
1.1.L.U consul > consl
1.1.L.Y methyl > methl
1.1.L.2 victuals > vtls
1.1.L.C difficult > difficlt

1.1.M Syllabic M

1.1.M.A bantam > bantm
1.1.M.E system > systm
1.1.M.I victim > victm
1.1.M.O atom > atm
1.1.M.U album > albm
1.1.M.Y synonym > synonym

1.1.N Syllabic N

1.1.N.A urban > urbn
1.1.N.E garden > gardn
1.1.N.I cabin > cabn
1.1.N.O lemon > lemn
1.1.N.U Whitsun > Witsn
1.1.N.2 certain > certn, fashion > fashn
1.1.N.C instant > instnt, insistent > insistnt, second > secnd

1.1.R Syllabic R

1.1.R.A vicar > vicr
1.1.R.E teacher > teachr
1.1.R.EU amateur > amatr
1.1.R.I Cheshire > Cheshr
1.1.R.O sailor > sailr
1.1.R.OU glamour > glamr
1.1.R.U murmur > murmr
1.1.R.UO languor > langr
1.1.R.Y martyr > martr
1.1.R.C standard > standrd

1.2 Cutting shwa in non-final syllables

1.2.L family > famly
1.2.M enemy > enmy
1.2.N ebony > ebny
1.2.R every > evry

1.3 Cutting shwa after secondary stress: cons(o)lation
1.4 Reduplicated consonants ............................................................... 114
1.4.MM maximum > maximm ......................................................... 114
1.4.NN linen > linn ................................................................. 114
1.4.RR error > err ................................................................ 115
1.5 Double cutting by Rule 2: excellent > exlnt .......................................... 115
1.5.1.LM Jerusalem > Jersuslm ...................................................... 116
1.5.2.LNT insolent > inslnt .......................................................... 116
1.5.3.LR similar > simlr .............................................................. 116
1.5.4.ML animal > anml ............................................................. 116
1.5.5.MM maximum > maxmm .................................................. 116
1.5.6.MN adamant > admnt ...................................................... 117
1.5.7.MR customer > custmr ..................................................... 117
1.5.8.NL criminal > crimnl ....................................................... 117
1.5.9.NM platinum > platnm .................................................... 117
1.5.10.NN permanent > permnnt .............................................. 117
1.5.11.NR gardener > gardnr .................................................... 117
1.5.12.RL several > sevrl ......................................................... 118
1.5.13.RM marjoram > marjrm .................................................. 118
1.5.14.RN tolerant > tolrnt ...................................................... 118
1.5.15.RR emperor > emprr ..................................................... 119
1.5.16.RLY satisfactorily > satiscftrly ........................................... 119

TABLE 1 Structures of combined L, M, N, R cuts ............................................. 119
1.6.X Exceptions to Rule 2 syllabic L, M, N, R spellings ............................. 119
1.6.1.X Preceding long vowel + consonant: even ≠ sevn .......................... 119
1.6.1.XL oval ≠ grovl ............................................................. 119
1.6.1.XM item ≠ atm .............................................................. 120
1.6.1.XN pagan ≠ wagn .......................................................... 120
1.6.1.XR fever ≠ evr .............................................................. 120
1.6.1.XX weevil > weevl ........................................................ 120
1.6.2.X Preceding palatalized consonant lesion ≠ lessn ............................ 120
1.6.2.XC pencil ≠ uncl .......................................................... 121
1.6.2.XG merger > merjr ......................................................... 121
1.6.2.XI Palatalized consonant modified by following I ............................. 121
1.6.2.1.XIAL official ≠ musicl .................................................. 121
1.6.2.2.XIAN Titian ≠ bittn ..................................................... 122
1.6.2.3.XION suspicion ≠ republicn ........................................... 122
1.6.3.XV With a preceding pronounced vowel ....................................... 122
1.6.3.XV.1.L fuel ≠ full ......................................................... 122
1.6.3.XV.2.UL equal, sequel ................................................... 122
1.6.3.XV.3.XUL actual > actul ................................................ 123
1.6.3.XV.4.MN museum, median ............................................. 123
1.6.3.V.5.R seer, folloer, happier > happir .................................... 123
1.6.4.XS barn, Karen, reverent > revrnt ........................................ 124
TABLE 2  Admissible and inadmissible L, M, N, R combinations........ 124

RULE 2, Category 2: Vowels in suffixes .............................................. 125

2.D  needed > needd, waited > waitd .............................................. 125
2.NG hopping > hopng vs hoping .................................................. 126
2.R  warmer > warmr .................................................................. 127
2.S  churches > churches ......................................................... 127
2.VS potatoes > potatos ............................................................ 128
2.ST warmest > warmst ............................................................ 128
2.BL eatable > eatbl, edible > edbl .............................................. 128

TABLE 3  Patterns of vowel cutting in inflections and suffixes ............ 131

RULE 3: SIMPLIFYING DOUBLED CONSONANTS ............................... 132

Introduction............................................................................................... 132

1  Simplifying doubled final consonants........................................... 133
1.1.MV Monosyllables beginning with a vowel: ebb > eb............ 133
1.2.CK Words ending in CK: lock > lok .................................. 134
1.3.FF Words ending in FF: staff > staf .................................... 134
1.4.LL Words ending in LL ......................................................... 135
1.4.1.LL Monosyllabic words ending in LL: all > al................. 135
1.4.2.LL Polysyllabic words ending in LL: enroll > enrol ......... 135
1.5.MM -gramme > -gram ............................................................ 135
1.6.RR Words ending in RR: purr > pur ................................. 135
1.7.SS Final SS not cut: pass ..................................................... 136
1.8.TT Words ending in TT: matt > mat, brunette > brunet ...... 137
1.9.ZZ Words ending in ZZ: jazz > jaz .................................... 137

2  Doubled medial consonants ............................................................... 137
2.1  Before syllabic L, M, N, R ...................................................... 137
2.1.1.L  apple > apl ................................................................. 137
2.1.2.M bottom > botm ......................................................... 138
2.1.3.N sudden > sudn ............................................................ 138
2.1.4.R  copper > copr ............................................................. 138
2.2  Before other endings ............................................................... 138
2.2.1.ET Before final -ET: bonnet > bonet............................ 138
2.2.2.GE Mainly before final -AGE: cabbage > cabage ...... 139
2.2.3.O Before final -OW: follow > folo ................................ 139
2.2.4.OK Before final -OCK: haddock > hadok ...................... 140
2.2.5.OP LL before final -OP: gallop > galop ....................... 140
2.2.6. SH Before final -ISH: snobbish > snobish ............................. 140
2.2.7. IT In Italian loan words: spaghetti > spageti ..................... 141
2.2.8 Miscellaneous doubled consonants ..................................... 141
2.3. LG Various doubled consonants from Latin and Greek ........... 141
2.4. SS Medial SS selectively cut ............................................... 142
  2.4.1 Final SS uncut .............................................................. 142
  2.4.2 Final SS + suffixes: pasd, pasng, passes ............................ 143
  2.4.3 SS cut at prefix boundaries: asent > asent ....................... 143
  2.4.4 Voiced SS > S: possess > possess ................................. 144
  2.4.5 Miscellaneous medial SS cut to S ................... ............. 144
  2.4.6 Intervocalic SS uncut after stressed short vowel ............... 144
2.5 Medial doubled consonants kept in disyllabic words .............. 145
  2.5.1 Before -Y or I(E): holly ≠ holy .................................... 145
  2.5.2 Miscellaneous cases: comma ≠ coma ............................. 146

3 Before suffixes ...................................................................... 146
  3.1 Before -D: ................................................................. hopped > hopd 146
  3.2 Before -NG: .............................................................. hopping > hopng 147
  3.3 Before -R: ................................................................. thinner > thinr 147
  3.4 Before -ST: ................................................................. thinnest > thinst 147
  3.5 Before -BL: ................................................................. unstoppable > unstopbl 148

4 Consonant doubling by prefix-assimilation in TO .................... 148
  4.1 Latin: affect > affect ..................................................... 149

TABLE 4 Patterns of consonant doubling after Latin-derived prefixes 149

  4.2 Greek SY(N)-: syllable > sylabl ........................................... 151

5 Doubled consonants at morpheme boundaries ....................... 151
  5.1 TO doubling by prefixation ............................................... 151
    5.1.1.IN ................................................................. innate > inate 151
    5.1.2.UN ................................................................. unnecessary > unecesry 151
    5.1.3.DS ................................................................. dissuade > disuade 152
    5.1.4.MS ................................................................. misspell > mispel 152
    5.1.5.RR ................................................................. overrun, underrun > over(-r)un, undr(-r)un 153
  5.2 TO doubling by suffixation ................................................. 153
    5.2.1.LL ................................................................. recoilless > recoiless, beautifully > butifuly 153
    5.2.2.NN ................................................................. openness > openness 154
  5.3 Hyphenation of compound words: pen-nife but canot ........... 154
CHAPTER 4 WHICH LETTERS ARE SUBSTITUTED? .......... 155

1 Pros and cons of letter-substitution ............................................................. 155
2 Three patterns of letter-substitution ............................................................. 155
3 Spelling /f/ as F, not GH, PH ................................................................ 156
   3.1 F for GH: laugh > laf ........................................................................ 156
   3.2 F for PH: philosophy > filosofy .......................................................... 156
4 Spelling soft G as J ............................................................................... 157
   4.1 Problems of G/J confusion in TO .................................................. 157
      4.1.1 Systemic problems ................................................................ 157
      4.1.2 Practical problems ................................................................ 158
   4.2 The CS solution with J: judge > juj .................................................. 158
5 Substituting Y for IG and elsewhere .................................................... 159
   5.1 Y for IGH: flight > flyt .................................................................... 159
      5.1.1 The problem of IGH ............................................................... 159
      5.1.2 Historical perspective ............................................................. 160
      5.1.3 Part of a larger strategy ........................................................... 160
   5.2 Substituting -YN for -IGN: sign > syn ............................................. 161
   5.3 Inflecting Y-endings: replied > replyd, replies > replys ............. 161

CHAPTER 5 CAPITAL LETTERS & APOSTROPHES ............... 163

1 Capital letters ........................................................................................ 163
   1.1 Forms and conventions .................................................................. 163
   1.2 Capitals for proper names .............................................................. 163
   1.3 Uncertainty in use of capitals ........................................................ 164
   1.4 Capitalization in other languages .................................................. 164
   1.5 Capitalization unergonomic ........................................................... 165
   1.6 Recommendation for CS ............................................................... 165
2 Apostrophes .......................................................................................... 165
   2.1 Punctuation marks ......................................................................... 165
   2.2 Non-alphabetic marks on words .................................................... 165
   2.3 Apostrophes redundant because problematic? ........................ 166
   2.4 Apostrophes indicating omission ............................................... 167
      2.4.1 Confusing patterns of apostrophe: hadn’t, he’d ..................... 167
      2.4.2 Cutting apostrophe from the hadn’t pattern ......................... 168
      2.4.3 Joined pronoun + verb keep apostrophe: he’d ..................... 168
      2.4.4 Should TO it’s be cut to its? ................................................... 169
   2.5 The possessive apostrophe ............................................................ 169
      2.5.1 Confusion over the possessive apostrophe ......................... 170
      2.5.2 Cutting the possessive apostrophe ....................................... 170

TABLE 5 Cutting apostrophes in CS ................................................. 172

3 Writing numbers as numerals ............................................................... 173
CHAPTER 6  GOING BEYOND CS—& STOPPING SHORT ........ 174

1 Going beyond CS ................................................................. 174
  1.1 Historical evolution ......................................................... 174
  1.2 Looking beyond CS ........................................................... 174
  1.3 Substitutions that save letters ........................................... 175
    1.3.1 CH > CH: chemist > kemist ........................................ 175
    1.3.2 Yod-assimilation: -TION > -SHN, etc .......................... 176
    1.3.3 I > Y: climb > clym .................................................. 179
  1.4 The sibilant syndrome ...................................................... 180
  1.5 Regularizing long vowels beside I > Y .............................. 181

2 Stopping short of CS ............................................................ 184
  2.1 Accommodating public reactions ....................................... 184
  2.2 Judging what is essential ................................................. 185
  2.3 Reducing visual disturbance ............................................. 186
    2.3.1 Initial letters ........................................................... 186
    2.3.2 Multiple cuts .......................................................... 187
    2.3.3 Doubtful correspondences .......................................... 187
    2.3.4 Reduplicated consonants .......................................... 187
    2.3.5 Simplified consonants .............................................. 188
    2.3.6 Post-accentual shwa in medial syllables ....................... 188
    2.3.7 Substituted letters .................................................. 188
  2.4 Ambiguous forms ........................................................... 189
    2.4.1 X holly, two, four ..................................................... 189
    2.4.2 SYM peace/piece > pece ............................................. 189
    2.4.3 ASYM plaice > place ............................................... 190
    2.4.4 HH statues > status ................................................. 191
    2.4.5 LT cities > citis, follow > folo .................................. 191
    2.4.6 AMB ................................................................. 192
      (1) advocate/advocat, leaves/leves, place, their/there .......... 192
      (2) betterment/detriment .............................................. 193
      (3) added > add .......................................................... 193
      (4) error/heir > er ...................................................... 194
      (5) hallow > halo ....................................................... 194
      (6) showd/vowd .......................................................... 194
  2.4 The integrity of the system ............................................. 195

PART II of the Handbook:
  The System Demonstrated ............................................... 197
Chapter 1
CUT SPELLING: AIM & CONTEXT

1  Definition, origin and evolution of Cut Spelling

1.1  A new approach to English spelling

English is the prime international language today, and is in many ways well suited to that role. The grammar of its word forms is simple; it is powerfully yet subtly expressive; it is available to all nations and has affinities with other major languages; and the world’s greatest fund of knowledge is published in it.

Yet the difficulties of its spelling have for centuries been notorious. They impede literacy for English speakers worldwide and are a particular obstacle to non-native speakers. Over the past 400 years, there have been numerous (one list names over 70) proposals for resolving the problem, yet only one has left a distinctive mark (Noah Webster’s in America). Most proposals have regarded the traditional spelling of English as irredeemable and therefore suggested re-spelling the language from first principles, as it is pronounced. Yet they have rarely considered the practicalities of making radical changes to a writing system used, like English, around the world.

This volume proposes a different approach, which has important practical advantages over such earlier schemes.

1.2  Definition of CS and purposes of the Handbook

This new approach is known as Cut Spelling (CS), which is a system of streamlining written English by cutting out unnecessary (ie, redundant) letters. It makes writing faster, uses less space, and is easier to learn and use accurately than Traditional Orthography (TO). Redundant letters are an exceptionally troublesome feature of TO, accounting for much of its irregularity and for many of the problems people currently experience in trying to master the system. Yet the removal of redundant letters changes the appearance of most affected words only slightly and the majority of words not at all. CS is therefore proposed as a technique for improving the way the English language is written which gives the best possible combination of maximum benefits and minimum disruption.

This Handbook shows which letters used in TO may be considered redundant, and how their omission by the rules of CS simplifies and regularizes written English. Whether or not readers are inclined to accept
Chapter 1—AIM AND CONTEXT

CS as a signpost to the way English might be written in the future, it is hoped that the analysis provided will lead to greater awareness of the deficiencies of TO, a greater understanding of the qualities that a good writing system should have, and a greater willingness to consider how TO might be modernized and improved.

1.3 Historic tendency to economy in writing
In language as in other aspects of life people are naturally inclined to economize on the effort required by any task. If one examines the development of writing systems in different languages, one often observes a process of change whereby more complex and cumbersome forms are replaced by simpler and more economical ones over a period of time. This process occurs initially in the spoken language, and, in most languages, later results in a corresponding paring down of the written form of words. It was already noted over 400 years ago that English used more letters than necessary to spell many of its words, and during the 17th century numerous redundant letters were removed, the emergent standard spellings tending to prefer one of the shorter forms among the alternatives previously in use.

For instance, in the 16th century the word *bit* was sometimes spelt *bytte*, which now appears a grotesquely archaic and clumsy way of writing such a simple word. Its standard form now uses just the minimum three letters required to represent its pronunciation. Many words were reduced like *bytte* by the loss of a silent final -E, the replacement of Y by I, and the simplification of doubled consonants. But many other words which would equally have benefited from such treatment have kept unnecessary letters, for instance the B in *debt* or the E in *have*. Modern forms such as *though*, *through* are objectively as grotesque as *bytte*, although their familiar appearance may prevent us appreciating the fact.

After the 17th century this process of simplification of English spelling slowed almost to a halt, thanks to the standardizing influence of printing, the spread of dictionaries and the lack of any authority with the power and will to promote further rationalization, although a few changes have nevertheless occurred in more recent centuries. The American lexicographer Noah Webster took the process of simplification a step further in the early 19th century, and Americans today use some distinctive spellings of the type his dictionary recommended, such as *ax*, *traveling*, *harbor*, which the British continue to write with additional redundant letters, as in *axe*, *travelling*, *harbour*. Some shorter American spellings have been generally adopted, such as the form *music* in place of the older British
musick, and American program in computing. Other 20th century changes include replacement of shew by show and phantasy by fantasy, while the AE in encyclopaedia, mediaeval has today largely yielded to E, giving encyclopedia, medieval.

Some kind of simplification will no doubt continue into the future, whatever happens. However, such are the educational, social and economic problems caused by the present irregularities of TO that it would be much better if simpler spellings could be introduced systematically across the language, by clear, principled decision and agreement, rather than being left to the hazards of history (which is what gave rise to the orthographic confusion of TO in the first place). Thus a less common word such as yoghourt may well gradually shrink to yogurt without any conscious plan, as if by attrition; but probably only a deliberate decision could standardize on such obvious, yet initially strange-seeming, improved forms as ar, wer, hav, liv for some of the most common words in the language.

1.4 Origins of CS
The need for economy in the use of language in recent centuries has however also taken other forms. There has been a tendency to abbreviate, for example by removing whole syllables from words in both speech and writing, as in bus for omnibus, phone for telephone, and pram from perambulator, or by replacing words with initials, such as USA for United States of America, or by creating acronyms, such as laser, spelt from the first letters of the words light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation. In the 20th century an early need for information technology to compress alphabetic text for a while imposed abbreviated spellings (eg, for cable transmission or Telex, or in computing), but that did not produce any formal simplification for general use. This technologically induced pressure for shorter written forms has since subsided, as the storage and transmission capacity of the technologies concerned has grown; but the economic and practical advantages of such gains in efficiency will always be an incentive to brevity in writing.

In the late 20th century there is a fresh concern with standards of education, for which the highest possible levels of literacy are the most fundamental prerequisite. This need has generated intense interest on the part of psychologists and educationists in how literacy skills are acquired by learners, since it is perceived that the process is anything but straightforward — at least in English. (Comparison with many other languages, which typically do not use redundant letters to anything like the
same extent as English, has demonstrated that the acquisition of literacy skills in English is particularly problematic.)

It was in this context that the idea of Cut Spelling was conceived in the 1970s by the Australian psychologist Valerie Yule, who saw benefits for readers in cutting redundant letters from TO. Her insight was then taken up in the early 1980s by the British linguist Christopher Upward, who proceeded to investigate the systemic implications of the concept of redundancy as applied to TO, and soon established three main categories of redundant letter, which have ever since remained the cornerstones of CS cutting procedures.

Following repeated calls during the 1980s for a full account of CS to be published, in 1988 the Simplified Spelling Society set up a Working Group, chaired by Christopher Upward, and consisting also of Paul Fletcher, Jean Hutchins and Chris Jolly, initially just to prepare a learner’s guide. Part I of this Handbook was however the first outcome, providing the analytical groundwork on which Part II (patterns, exercises and parallel texts) and Part III (the dictionary) could subsequently be based.

1.5 Development and consolidation of CS
Research and discussion in the 1980s steadily confirmed the general validity of the three categories of redundant letter first proposed for CS, although various additions, exceptions, refinements and variations were introduced to their specification. In the further experience gained from 1992 to 1996 these categories have proved a solid foundation for a first-stage simplification of TO. They are, in outline, as follows:

- The first consists of letters quite unconnected with pronunciation, such as B in *debt* or S in *island*.
- The second consisted originally just of certain unstressed vowels, like the last vowel in *principal/principle* or *adapter/adaptor*, but was later extended to the vowels in suffixes such as -ED, -ES, -ING, -ABLE/-IBLE as well.
- The third category comprises most doubled consonants, such as the CC, MM in *accommodate*, which can be helpfully simplified.

As explained in detail in Chapter 3, these categories of redundant letter are removed by CS Rules 1, 2 and 3 respectively (giving CS *det*, *iland*, *principl*, *adapr*, *washd*, *washs*, *washington*, *washbl*, *acomodate*). These cutting rules are supplemented by three rules for limited letter substitution (F for GH, PH when these are pronounced /f/; J for soft G or DG; and Y for IG when pronounced as in *fly/fligh*, so producing spellings like *fotograf*, *jenial*, *brij*;
and sy, syt, syn).

The next sentence illustrates the general appearance of written English after these rules have been applied. (For more extensive text in CS, see Chapters 5-6 of Part I below, Part II [Introduction and Section 3] and Part III [Introduction].)

When readers first see CS, as in this sentence, they often hesitate slightly, but then quickly become accustomed to the shortened words and soon find text in CS as easy to read as TO; but it is the writer who really appreciates the advantages of CS, as many of the most troublesome uncertainties of TO have been eliminated.

(289 keystrokes for letters, punctuation marks and spaces.) The following equivalent in TO shows the difference in length:

When readers first see CS, as in this sentence, they often hesitate slightly, but then quickly become accustomed to the shortened words and soon find text in CS as easy to read as TO; but it is the writer who really appreciates the advantages of CS, as many of the most troublesome uncertainties of TO have been eliminated.

(324 keystrokes = 12.11% longer than the CS version, which is 10.80% shorter.)

Wide experience has been gained in the use of CS, with texts totalling over half a million words on various subjects written in it, and its rules tested systematically against a corpus of some 60,000 word-types. Educationists, psychologists, linguists, lexicographers, editors, writers, publishers, printers and others, in Britain, the USA, Australia, Canada, India, France, Germany, Japan and elsewhere have commented on CS, and their observations have helped the system to achieve its present form.

Background research has included a number of broader aspects of spelling: linguistic (comparing the spelling of different languages and of English at different times in its history); phonetic and phonological (analysis of pronunciation); typographical (how shorter word forms affect the layout of text); psychological (how the brain perceives, decodes writing and encodes speech); educational (the psychology and organization of the learning process); and reference to these fields is made at appropriate points in the Handbook. Central to an account of CS however is an explanation of the way in which the letters of the alphabet are most often used (despite the many exceptions and variations in TO) to represent the sounds of English, for CS preserves these most deeply rooted patterns of English symbol-sound correspondence. They are listed and discussed in Chapter 2 (Section 2).
The three Parts of the Handbook serve different purposes. Part I gives a detailed account of the CS system, describing its inner logic, analyzing the patterns of cuts that are made, and discussing points of uncertainty that arise; careful study of Part I would be required for any serious evaluation of CS. Part II on the other hand is designed both to give a clear, practical overview of the system, and to enable individuals wanting to learn how to write English more easily and succinctly to master the main features of CS without having to explore the detailed reasoning behind it; from the first edition of the Handbook it has, however, appeared that learners would often prefer a much more concise exposition of the main patterns of CS, and the production of such a User’s Guide (to include the dictionary) has been put in hand. Part III of the Handbook provides a straightforward look-up facility for checking the CS form of any commonly occurring English word against its TO equivalent. Finally, the Handbook closes with a select bibliography of works which have proved helpful in developing the CS concept; they are mainly concerned with writing systems in general, or the English language in general, but some served directly as sources of information.

1.6 Definitions of redundancy
At this point it is appropriate to clarify the concept of redundancy as applied by CS, since it is quite often misunderstood. Information science uses the concept of redundancy in a different sense from CS, saying for instance that, in the spelling I-T-S-E-L-F, the final L-F are redundant because no other word begins with the letters ITSE-, and that form is therefore, for the purpose of recognition by computer, unambiguous. CS on the other hand analyzes redundancy from the point of view of the human user. In the case of English this means both users who know the pronunciation of most words and those (especially non-native speakers) who may well not do so. The human reader can only confidently pronounce a written word if its letters indicate its pronunciation; ITSE for itself is for the human reader therefore an inadequate spelling and the final L-F are in that sense not redundant. Likewise human writers can only confidently spell a word if its letters represent the pronunciation that is stored in their memories — they have no way of knowing that, in terms of ‘information’, the final L-F are redundant. Put over-simply: for CS, letters performing neither function, neither showing how to pronounce a written form, nor telling the writer how to spell a word, are deemed phonographically redundant. They play no part in the system of sound-symbol correspondence, and are omitted in CS.
(As will be explained in Chapter 2, this emphatically does not mean that all silent letters are redundant.)

An objection to the removal of redundant letters that has been repeatedly raised is that redundancy is needed in language, in order that, if part of a message is omitted or distorted, sufficient remains intact for the meaning to be conveyed nevertheless. This danger is particularly evident if numerals rather than written words are used: imagine a message that “783 people are expected”, and the effect that would be produced if any of the figures 7-8-3 were accidentally omitted or substituted. On the other hand, if the number were spelt out as *seven hundred and eighty three*, the risk of misunderstanding arising from omission or substitution of, say, even 20% of the letters is far less: six defects in *seven hundred and eighty three* leave the message still comprehensible. As far as CS is concerned, it is feared that if English were written with fewer letters, the danger of misunderstanding a distorted message would grow significantly. Yet the compression of text that results from removing phonographically redundant letters is modest (in the region of 10% only), and if the same severe test is applied to the CS version of the same message (*sevn hundred and eity thre* becoming *sevm humbrcdand eity thre*), the meaning is no more seriously compromised — in fact the reduction of letters in CS reduces the likelihood of errors arising in the first place. And practical experience with CS has not revealed any problems of this kind at all: CS still contains many letters that information science could describe as redundant.

2 CS and the principles of alphabetic spelling

2.1 Historical and psychological foundations

The invention of the alphabet was a crucial intellectual achievement in the evolution of human civilization. In considering any writing system that uses it, it is necessary to grasp the fundamental operating principle which has enabled the alphabet (with adaptations) successfully to be applied to most languages in the world today, throughout Europe, America and Australasia, and in large parts of Africa and Asia too. This fundamental alphabetic principle states that a fairly small number of easily learnt symbols (letters) should be used consistently to represent the fairly small number of sounds (phonemes) that constitute the sound-system (phonology) of a language and make up the words as they are spoken and understood from speech. Insofar as a language uses the alphabet in that way, acquiring and using the skills of literacy are relatively straightforward tasks.
When any language first adopts the alphabet, that is more or less how the letters are used, and so it was with Old English (the language of the Anglo-Saxons), the ancestor of modern English, some 1400 years ago. However, the English language has since undergone enormous changes (the Norman conquest of 1066 being responsible for the most far-reaching), and over the ensuing centuries the original alphabetic principle has been seriously obscured. The spelling of very many English words today does not follow unambiguous rules of sound-symbol correspondence, which is why so many people find the English writing system frustratingly difficult to master. English has forgotten the central psychological importance of the alphabetic principle, and the consequent educational, social and economic damage resulting from the inevitably lower standards of literacy is immense. The damage could however be reduced, and Cut Spelling is proposed as a way of doing so.

All writing systems tend to become out of date over time, as languages and the demands made on them change. They then need to be updated. Indeed the way English itself was written changed radically through the centuries preceding the advent of printing in the late 15th century. Many languages have understood the need to keep their writing systems reasonably in harmony with the alphabetic principle, and have modernized their spelling in the 20th century to improve the essential match between writing and pronunciation, so benefiting learners and users generally.

There are many possible reasons why English has not done so. One, mentioned previously, was the lack of an authority with the will and power to impose change. Another is the difficulty of aligning spoken and written English when the language has no standard pronunciation, Americans, English and Scots for instance frequently disagreeing as to the ‘correct’ pronunciation of words. A third is that the changes needed to create a perfect correspondence between the spoken and written language would be so great as to represent a revolutionary upheaval, and their implementation would therefore very likely create controversy and confusion worldwide.

2.2 CS and the reform of English spelling
CS offers a new way of overcoming these obstacles to the modernization of written English and the raising of literacy standards.

First, omitting redundant letters is a natural step in the direction of linguistic and communicative economy, a procedure we all naturally incline towards, whether consciously or unconsciously. Indeed this natural tendency towards CS is already seen in operation: many poor spellers omit redundant
letters in their writing, and most of the distinctively American spellings standardized by Webster are in effect ‘cut’ variants of their British equivalents. A decree emanating from some all-powerful linguistic authority might therefore possibly be unnecessary to ensure the evolution of English spelling in the general direction of CS: all that might be needed would be guidelines and encouragement to use the most economical forms. Many different constituencies could have an interest in promoting such a development: governments, teachers, schoolchildren, foreign learners, dictionaries, editors, publishers, employers, each in their own sphere. This Handbook is tries to establish the kind of orthographic guidelines which would be needed to ensure co-ordination of such a process.

Second, there is the problem of differing pronunciations, both in the various accents around the world and by free variation in individual speech. Most redundant letters cut by CS are redundant in all accents: the examples of CS spelling in §1.6 above (det, iland, principl, adaptr, washd, acomodat) correspond better to all pronunciations than do their TO equivalents, regardless of accent or personal speech habits. There are nevertheless certain CS spellings which conflict with pronunciation in some accents: Scots might object to CS wensday, Americans to CS secretry or ceremny, and the British to CS fertl; but CS then usually recommends the most economical form that represents a widespread pronunciation. Thus the universally convenient criterion of economy takes priority over the claims of any one accent to represent a world standard of pronunciation. Alternatively, cuts felt to be objectionable could be ignored by speakers of the affected accents, or the whole CS system could make exceptions in such cases. The same criterion of taking the simplest pronunciation as the standard for the written form is also applied when deciding between other alternative pronunciations: it is for instance presumed that the first vowel of TO patent is pronounced as in hat rather than as in hate, so enabling CS to cut the E and write patnt.

Third, a common aesthetic and practical objection to spelling reform proposals in the past has been that the new spellings would cause confusion by changing the appearance of written English out of easy recognition. One reform proposal for instance suggested that TO mate, meat, might, moat, mute should be re-spelt maet, meet, miet, moet, muet, which, at least when taken out of context, are indecipherable without a key to their sound-symbol correspondences. This problem arises particularly if words are re-spelt using different letters from their TO forms. CS largely avoids this
difficulty by concentrating on the omission rather than the substitution of letters. Thus CS *accommodation* is immediately recognizable to anyone familiar with TO *accommodation*, while a more radically reformed spelling such as *akomodaeshen*, with many substituted letters, appears alien in comparison. There are nevertheless occasional CS forms at which readers may initially balk, such as CS *ho* for TO *who*, CS *onrbl* for *honourable*, CS *ysyt* for *eyesight*, CS *sudonm* for *pseudonym*, CS *werr* for *wearer*. Such cases are discussed in Chapter 3.

### 2.3 Advantages of CS

The advantages of CS fall under three headings. Some are practical — CS is easier to learn and to use than TO. Some are advantages that CS has over other concepts for English spelling reform. And some concern the wider linguistic implications of CS.

#### 2.3.1 Practical advantages

1) CS is more economical than TO. Using fewer letters saves time and space whenever text is created, by hand, typing, word-processing, typesetting, printing, graphic design, signwriting, on video screen, or by any other method, and written material is accordingly cheaper to produce. CS is particularly suited to the speed requirements of email correspondence, and the limited space available for video subtitling. Its greater economy makes CS environmentally friendlier, saving materials (especially paper) and energy, as well as storage and transport. The most extensive count conducted gave a loss of 11.2% characters in CS over a text of some 5,000 words, but other tests showed economies of just under 10%; to claim that CS offers savings of some 10% on average therefore seems reasonable. CS is not comparable to shorthand systems, where the speed gain for skilled users is far greater, but so are the difficulties of decipherment.

2) CS is quicker to learn and use than TO, since redundant letters lie at the heart of the cognitive confusion (eg confusing *cloud/could*) that is so characteristic of the learning process in TO. The time saved in learning to read and write could be more profitably spent on other learning activities. Spelling, and literacy generally, are not ends in themselves, but means to communication and the acquisition of knowledge in the modern world.

3) Fewer misspellings would occur, as CS removes many of the uncertainties that cause error in TO and the correct CS spelling of words can be derived more predictably from their pronunciation. A great difficulty writers face in TO is knowing which redundant letters to insert, and where to insert them. For instance, although *many, busy* both contain a
misleading vowel letter with an irregular sound value, they contain no redundant letters and are less often misspelt than, say, TO friend, business, which both contain redundant I. Typical misspellings are then *frend, *busness, where the writer has omitted the redundant letter altogether, or *freind, *buisness, where it has been misplaced. Both friend and business are thus more seriously at variance with the alphabetic principle than are many, busy, and the CS forms frend, busness therefore represent a more useful improvement than any regularization of many, busy would. Other characteristic misspellings in TO are *recieve, *docter, *accomodate, which would be prevented by CS Rules 1, 2 and 3 respectively, producing CS receve, doct, acomodate. A 1995 Basic Skills Agency survey of spelling accuracy in Britain listed 10 words as especially error-prone: allowance, sincerely, receive, apologise, unfortunately, necessary, maintenance, immediately, occasionally, accommodation. Of these, only sincerely remains unsimplified in CS (Ch. 6 suggests sinserely as a post-CS improvement).. The rest appear, with their worst difficulties removed, as CS alownce, receve, apolojize, unfortunatly, necesry, maintnnce, imediatly, ocasionly, acomodation. Similarly, of a Royal Society of Arts listing of 794 hard-to-spell common words, CS simplifies 587 (74%). Perhaps the most telling statistical argument for CS is that, of the 675 commonest words in English, the spelling of 300 is sufficiently defective to allow simplification by CS.

4) Fewer words would be mispronounced, since CS indicates their pronunciation more directly than does TO — an advantage of particular relevance to non-native-speaking learners. If the two pronunciations of row were distinguished by removing the redundant W from one of them (as in CS a violent row but to ro a boat), and if bear lost its redundant A, then non-native speakers would no longer be heard saying such things as “a violent *ro”, or “to *beer arms”. Similarly, CS often shows the stress pattern of a word where TO does not, distinguishing TO to present, a present as CS present, presnt, for instance. Native speakers would also run less risk of mispronouncing unfamiliar words: the French loan trait would not be spoken with a final /t/ if it were spelt as CS trai; and the silent H in chameleon would not mislead speakers into pronouncing an initial CH-sound if the spelling were as CS cameleon.

2.3.2 Advantages for implementation
The fact that CS makes only slight changes to the appearance of written English gives it a number of advantages as a system realistically capable of implementation, compared with more radical reform proposals.
1) CS does not require readers already proficient in TO to be specially trained, nor to use a table of new letter values, as nearly all CS forms are immediately recognizable by their similarity to TO. CS is therefore ‘forwards-compatible’ with TO, in the sense that familiarity with the old system gives immediate access to the new.

2) For the same reason, material printed in TO would still be legible (perhaps with a little guidance over such difficulties as GH, which is not found in CS) to a new generation of readers who had first acquired their literacy skills in CS. Such readers would experience TO rather as readers today experience 16th century English, with its numerous redundant letters (cf bytte, which is still decipherable as modern bit). TO is therefore ‘backwards-compatible’ with CS.

3) Being a concept for the general improvement of written English and not a rigid system dependent on adoption of all its suggested forms, CS offers a useful degree of flexibility. Parts of CS could be accepted without others, and countries or communities as well as individuals could choose how far they wished to apply CS rules. A first step in the direction of CS could be the acceptance of the shortest existing (usually, but not always, American) spellings as standard everywhere (eg, caviar, color, not caviare, colour).

4) This flexibility and the two-way compatibility between TO and CS would enable both systems to be used side by side for what must be presumed to be a lengthy transitional period, TO being used by more conservative and CS by more advanced writers, publishers, etc. Adults must have a free choice between new and old spellings, even when children only use the new forms. The introduction of metric weights and measures in many English-speaking countries shows that such generation gaps do not cause unacceptable confusion.

5) It is often stated that spelling reform is impractical because it would result in unacceptable confusion, as one could imagine if, say, warm began to be written as worm. Leaving aside the fact that TO causes enormous confusion already, the flexibility of CS would minimize the harmful consequences of any new confusion arising in a period of transition. Not merely are CS and TO spellings, as already explained, in an important sense compatible with each other, but there could be equally acceptable intermediate forms of many words in use at the same time. So while determined traditionalists might insist on continuing to write accommodate, and enthusiastic reformers would make a point of writing
accomodate, less careful or less committed writers might well write accommodate (as many people do in TO already) or acommodate. All these forms would be perfectly legible and generally acceptable for the period of transition, though the CS guidelines would firmly encourage accommodate as the new ‘correct’ spelling, ‘correct’ because best conforming to the alphabetic principle. (See Ch. 2, §1.5–1.9, for further discussion of this flexibility.)

6) The compatibility between TO and CS could enable individual countries to adopt CS entirely, or retain TO entirely, or pursue an intermediate course, without seriously damaging the effectiveness of English as a single language for international communication. The different degrees of ‘cutting’ that already exist between American and British spelling conventions show how such co-existence can operate internationally.

7) The practical, economic advantages of CS offer an incentive to its adoption, such as was not offered by many other proposals for English spelling reform.

2.3.3 Wider linguistic advantages

1) CS largely avoids the problem of reconciling the different accents of English, since most redundant letters are redundant in any accent (see §2.2 above for more detail and some exceptions).

2) CS shows the history of certain words better than TO does, since a number of the more eccentric TO forms contain letters which were inserted on grounds of mistaken etymology. So CS removes the spurious C from scissors, scythe, which was inserted because these words were wrongly thought to derive from Latin scindere. Similarly, CS det, dout show the French derivation (cf modern French dette, doute), while the redundant B was inserted in debt, doubt to suggest the more remote connection with Latin which we see in debit, indubitable. A third instance is the B in TO crumb, numb, thumb (CS crum, num, thum), which was probably inserted merely by analogy with dumb, whose B had earlier been pronounced. Likewise the L in could was inserted by analogy with etymological L in should, would. CS removes all these misleading inserted letters. Elsewhere CS reverts to simpler forms common in Chaucer’s day (14th century), writing ther, al, wel for TO there, all, well; using the old forms fil, ful removes the present confusion between TO fill, full, which both use LL, and fulfil which (in British spelling) does not double either L; similarly alignment of eve, leave, sleeve, receive, achieve to CS eve, leve, sleve, receve, acheve was also common in the 14th century.
3) CS usefully improves the alignment between the many TO spellings and their equivalents in other languages where there are now unnecessary and confusing discrepancies; as knowledge of other European languages grows in Britain, this is coming to be an increasing problem. CS Rule 1 deals with such discrepancies as U in TO guard, guarantee (French garde, garantie), B in TO dumb, lamb (German dumm, Lamm), and H in TO chaos, honest (Italian caos, onesto). CS Rule 2 deals with the discrepancies of the -ANT, -ENT endings in TO assistant, consistent, persistent, resistant, compared with -ANT in French assistant, consistant, persistant, résistant and -ENT in German Assistent, konsistent, persistent, resistent. And CS Rule 3 deals with the discrepancies of Spanish acomodar, Italian accommodare, French abréviation, exagération, German Komitee, compared with English TO accommodate, abbreviate, exaggerate, committee and CS acomodate, abreviate, exajrate, comitee.

4) It is worth reflecting on the long term consequences a phonographically less ambiguous system of spelling English words might have for pronunciation standards around the world. The pronunciation of English can often vary precisely because TO does not specify what the pronunciation of a word should be (eg, whether schedule should be spoken as with an initial SH- as in schist, or SK- as in school). However if the spelling unambiguously represented the most economical pronunciation, it could become, by a natural process of preferred ‘spelling-pronunciation’, a benchmark for ‘correct’ speech. Thus there may now be no standard as to whether Wednesday is spoken with two or three syllables, but CS wensday allows for only two. In this way, and by favouring the most economical pronunciation of each word rather than any one accent, CS could help a single world standard for English pronunciation to evolve. Such a standard would be useful for foreign learners and for world communication generally.

5) More remote still is the question of the long term future of English as a lingua franca. Prophets of its doom have sometimes drawn a parallel with the break-up of Latin into the various Romance languages (French, Italian, Spanish, etc), suggesting that the different varieties of English around the world may presage a similar disintegration. We can discount any such eventuality in the near future, but it is worth considering the implications of an erratic writing system such as TO for the long term effectiveness of English for world communication. It may be argued that in fact, far from disintegrating, Latin survived for the best part of 2,000
years, long after it had ceased to be used for everyday discourse, precisely because it had a good writing system that observed the alphabetic principle reasonably well and so allowed literacy skills to be acquired and practised fairly straightforwardly. By contrast, we may note that when English gives rise to ‘daughter’-languages in the form of creoles and pidgins, these typically reject TO entirely, and re-spell their words in the simplest possible way with new rules of sound-symbol correspondence (eg, Tok Pisin in Papua New Guinea reduces place to ples, quick to kwik, talk to tok); but their written forms can as a result barely be deciphered just from a knowledge of TO. Here, rather than in the regional varieties of native-spoken English, are perhaps the danger signals for the future of English. Any such trend could however be countered by gradually, but continuously, modernizing the writing system to improve its effectiveness as a tool of international communication. CS should also be judged for its potential in that respect.

3 Some questions of implementation
It is one thing to design and propose improvements to a spelling system, but quite another to implement them. A number of points relating to implementation were touched upon in preceding sections, but they were mostly concerned to show that CS possesses some important prerequisites for implementation, rather than to explore the mechanics of the process itself. However speculative such considerations are bound to be in present circumstances, it is nevertheless useful to present some preliminary ideas on the subject, to show what the range of possibilities (or impossibilities) might be, and to suggest where initiatives might come from.

3.1 Spreading the idea
Unlike most previous proposals for English spelling reform, CS is not to be seen as a cut-and-dried system, intended to be imposed in its entirety. Rather, it is a general concept, whose central message is that removing redundant letters from written English is a most useful and practicable way of improving TO. Precisely which letters are redundant, whether all redundant letters should be cut, and whether other changes should be made at the same time, are left as more open questions. Such flexibility is regarded as essential if any steps towards implementation are to be considered at all. At present, the very idea that English spelling could or should be modernized is generally unfamiliar in the English speaking world, and a first step must therefore be to sow the idea. A prime aim of this Handbook is therefore to sow ideas. It is not to proclaim a dogma.
3.2 Levels and machinery for implementation

Implementation of spelling reform in English could, in theory, be organized on a number of different levels.

At the highest level, one might dream of simultaneous implementation worldwide by all users of English, native speakers and non-native speakers alike, from lexicographers in the great metropolitan centres of the English-speaking world, to peasant farmers and market traders in countries that have at best indirect contact with the English language, at the other end of the scale. Just how utopian such a scenario must be becomes apparent as soon as one asks how the knowledge and skill to use new spellings is to be communicated to and acquired by all these users of written English around the globe.

If one does take a world view, the best one might hope for is perhaps that the relevant authorities should agree on the new spellings to be adopted, and that these might in the course of time filter down through publishing and education to the billion or so users who would be the ultimate target. Such a gradual filtering process itself of course necessarily implies new spellings in use in some places while old spellings were still in use elsewhere, and that would set a premium on two-way compatibility between old and new, such as is designed into CS.

But this gradualist scenario itself depends on some high-level agreement between unspecified ‘relevant authorities’. Who might they be? Worldwide implementation requires authorities above individual governments, which might mean an international body such as the United Nations (one thinks of UNESCO’s educational remit), or it might mean a gathering of representatives from interested countries (ie, not only English speaking countries — the rest of the world has at least an equal, perhaps an even greater interest, in the simplification of written English). While such international co-ordination is in the late 20th century no longer confined to the realms of science fiction, to visualize it applied to English spelling reform still requires a considerable effort of the imagination. Alternatively, though, a supra-national body, such as the UN, which has its own internal interest in the efficient handling of English, might wish to adopt simpler spellings for its own internal use, and leave them to ‘trickle down’ or ‘filter’ more widely of their own accord. If spelling reform is to take on such a momentum of its own, it must have some built-in attraction, an incentive for its adoption. The economy, as well as the simplicity, of CS might provide such an incentive.
The next level down is regional, but still supra-national. Perhaps the United States and Canada, or the British Commonwealth, or Australia and New Zealand, or Britain and the European Community, might co-ordinate a policy on spelling reform for their own purposes, while not forgetting the needs of English as a world language.

The level of individual governments may be thought the least promising: even if they wished to innovate, the forces of inertia, domestic controversy and electoral inhibition would be likely to impose a heavy brake. Only perhaps if questions of educational standard were high on the political agenda might any progress be expected — and that might open the way for reformers in individual countries to become active as pressure groups.

Below the level of governments and states, the possibility of progress might depend on the willingness and ability of education authorities, academics, publishers, or other commercial bodies to innovate. This they might be unlikely to do without the sanction of some higher authority, whether a prestigious research body (could reform flow from a single, dramatically successful research project?) or a generous sponsor. (Advertising makes great use of innovative spellings, but by definition such forms are not intended for general use.) The role of dictionaries might be critical: a dictionary that included new, simplified spellings as acceptable alternatives among its entries could be taken to give the essential permission for publishers, teachers or individuals to use such forms. The creation of a climate where simplified spellings were debated and used, even if experimentally, could be an aim for campaigning groups.

A model for organizing this kind of development that has been suggested are the Australian Style Councils, which for their particular geographical area recommend preferred forms of written language (including spellings) to anyone seeking advice. The participants in the Councils include such interested parties as editors, journalists, lexicographers, linguists, publishers, teachers, and they meet approximately annually. Why should not a similar range of constituencies assemble representatives from the whole English-using world, and promote improved spellings as part of a wider brief for world English?

Lastly, we may ask whether individuals might of their own initiative deliberately adopt simplified spellings for their private or even professional use. The economy and simplicity of CS should again act as an incentive for them to do so: faster notetaking, less hesitation over difficult spellings, less danger of misspelling, less need to check words in dictionaries, and the
reduced space required could all prove qualities to attract individuals to CS. Some individuals, such as office managers, might consider introducing simplified spellings at the workplace for economic or commercial reasons.

Highly speculative though the scenarios sketched above are, they all depend on the availability of a convincing concept for reform, such as it is hoped this Handbook may help provide. What is certain is that, without a straightforward concept and without clear guidelines, no useful or coherent reform of any scope can take place. Such a concept is a precondition for the first step of spreading the idea. The need for reform, the nature of the proposed reform, and the benefits that would flow from it, must be understood by anyone considering such a change to an important facet of their lives.

3.3 The social psychology of implementation

The previous section discussed implementation at a strategic level: who, or what body, might decide to introduce reformed spellings? No less important however is the question of how implementation would affect individuals faced with reformed spelling without having consciously wished it upon themselves. How could reform be ‘sold’ to — or imposed upon — the public?

To begin with, a simple leaflet outlining the changes would need to be distributed. It would explain the alphabetic principle as the underlying criterion for the changes and as the prerequisite for improved standards of literacy, so that it was understood why the changes were being made. It would make clear that adults were under no compulsion to change the spelling habits they had grown up with (unless required to for professional reasons). However, they should increasingly expect to encounter the simpler forms in their reading: they would see them used by their children, and they might like to consider adopting some of them for convenience in their own writing. Adults receiving remedial literacy tuition on the other hand could benefit directly from learning to write the new simplified forms immediately. Adults who were professionally involved in producing printed material for public consumption, or in teaching basic literacy skills, would need some training in CS if they were confidently to apply it in their work.

In schools, implementation would require a period of preparation, to organize trials, to produce beginners’ books using the simpler spellings, and to train the teachers. That might last two or more years, but after its completion the next intake of children into the school system could be taught to read and write simplified spellings for the basic vocabulary they
used in their early reading and writing. They would be motivated by being
told that what they were learning was more modern, more sensible and
above all easier than what their parents had to learn in their day. As these
children rose up the school year by year, so the range of re-spelt
vocabulary they learnt to use would increase, until by the end of their
schooling they would have mastered a wide range, perhaps as listed in the
dictionary in Part III of this Handbook. An important part of their
alphabetic education would be understanding the relationship between the
TO forms they would continue to encounter for many years and the CS
equivalents they had learnt in school. On leaving school, they would
continue to use the simpler forms for the rest of their lives. Older children,
who had acquired their first literacy skills in TO, might or might not
convert to the simpler spellings, but if they unwittingly used CS forms (as
poor spellers often do today), these would not be corrected or penalized.

A pedagogically still largely untried system such as CS should probably
not be introduced to schoolchildren with the intention of it immediately and
permanently supplanting TO. To avoid the danger of unforeseen pitfalls in
the system and to develop teaching methods and materials, there would
probably need to be a trial period, so that the effects of CS on initial
learners could be assessed. Spellings could then be adjusted in the light of
those findings, and the most appropriate teaching techniques and materials
developed. It would for instance be necessary (especially to help children
master the new consonant strings of CS) to exploit phonic methods much
more systematically than is currently done (indeed, more systematically
than can be done) in TO. During such a trial period, CS might be used, as
the i.t.a. (initial teaching alphabet) was used in many schools between 1960
and 1980, in a ‘bridging’ mode, with children transferring to TO once they
had acquired fluency in reading and writing in the simplified spelling. Only
after such a trial period would children cease to transfer back to TO and
continue to use CS permanently. Alternatively, a pilot study could be
conducted with children experiencing learning difficulties, or with adults
receiving remedial literacy tuition. Having, in a sense, little to lose, such
students would probably have fewer objections (indeed, reactions to date
suggest they could be positively enthusiastic) than would the parents of
average children, who might hesitate to risk letting their offspring be used
as ‘guinea-pigs’.

As is seen in other languages, a spelling reform is typically a gradual,
process that may take a generation to become fully established. But so
massive are the problems and the backlog of reforms needed by TO that for English one should perhaps envisage a rolling programme. Maybe 10 or 20 years after one set of simplifications had been introduced and consolidated, a second set could follow, without waiting for the first wave of reforms to be fully adopted by the whole adult population. Such an accelerated rolling programme would have the advantage that all users would come to appreciate that ensuring an optimal alignment of the writing system with the alphabetic principle is a neverending task: even after the immediate backlog is dealt with, future changes in pronunciation will eventually generate new discrepancies between the spoken and written forms of the language, which would in turn demand reform. But however the reform was scheduled, it is clear that there could be no question of introducing at once all the changes needed in TO: not merely would they be too many and too massive, but it is hard to be sure what reforms might seem most useful after the initial, obvious and straightforward removal of redundant letters by CS (although Chapter 6 discusses a number of the more obvious possibilities).

4 Future development
This Handbook is the product of research and analysis carried out over more than a decade. Its central concern has been to establish a practical system for simplifying English spelling by omission of redundant letters. The publication of the first edition in 1992 showed CS arousing wide (international), if modest, interest, which took the form sometimes of controversy and sometimes of acclaim. There has so far been little by way of critical evaluation from bodies who might have it in their power to adopt any of the ideas developed in the Handbook. Since 1992 that level of interest has been maintained, but pressure of other projects has not allowed CS to be vigorously promoted. This second edition represents an intellectual consolidation of the first, its main aim being to keep the system available for public scrutiny, rather than to serve as a vehicle for campaigning or popularization.

For the benefit of readers wanting to evaluate CS, it should be stressed that it is designed as a coherent system, and that immediate reactions of distaste at particular spellings that may appear unduly ‘mutilated’ should be checked against the structure of the system as a whole. For instance, although CS *sudonm* may at first appear unacceptable as a simplified form of TO *pseudonym*, before it is rejected it needs to be related to all the
parallel forms in which the same cuts are made: the loss of initial silent \( P \) from other PS- words such as TO *psychology* (CS *sycology*), the reduction of EU to U in such words as TO *rheumatism, sleuth* (CS *rumatism, sluth*), the general cutting of the prefix *pseudo-* to CS *sudo-*, and the loss of the unstressed vowel in final syllables between N-M, as when TO *platinum, synonym* become CS *platnm, synnm*. If some of these cuts were not made in *pseudonym*, the question must be asked whether all similar cuts in parallel forms should be excluded too. Exceptions for individual words are by definition a defect in any spelling system, and CS seeks to avoid them unless there are compelling reasons.

Now that the CS Handbook, in its new strengthened form, is again available for evaluation, several other developments of CS are being called for, but although plans for some of these are in hand, their implementation is unlikely to be rapid. First, there is demand on the part of potential users of CS for a simple *User’s Guide to Cut Spelling*, which would consist primarily of the TO–CS dictionary, accompanied by a greatly simplified listing of the main letter-cutting patterns, but without the lengthy explanations or comprehensive exercises that make up so much of the present Handbook. Second, since the prime beneficiaries of any spelling reform are expected to be learners in their first years of schooling, it is clear that suitable teaching and learning materials are needed to promote literacy skills in CS; similar materials would be needed for adult remedial tuition and for non-native speakers of English, indeed adult literacy materials might be most appropriate for initial practical trials of CS. Third, there is demand for a computerized conversion program, allowing text in TO to be (semi-)automatically converted into CS, and vice versa; it has been suggested that, for a trial period, such a conversion service might be made available over the Internet rather than by direct distribution of the conversion program on disk.

Automatic orthographic conversion of text will be an indispensable facility required for any spelling reform in the future. The simplest program would only be semi-automatic inasmuch as (unless it had a parsing capability) the user would occasionally need to make choices; thus, in translating from TO to CS users would have to decide whether, for instance, TO *leaves* should become CS *leavs* (plural of *leaf*) or CS *leves* (from the verb *to leve*); and in translating from CS to TO users would have to decide whether CS *ther* should become TO *their* or *there* (see Chapter 6, §2.4.6 [1], for fuller discussion of such cases).
A further program to help learners mastr CS might subsequently also be called for. The established techniques of computer-assisted language learning would lend themselves to this task, with self-correcting exercises structured perhaps as in Part II of the Handbook, taking learners step by step through the rules of CS until automaticity was achieved.

If it were accepted that TO contained too many letters, and CS (or elements of it) began to enter into general use, the time would eventually come when more advanced reforms, making more radical changes than CS to the appearance of TO, would be called for. Some possibilities for this are explored in Chapter 6, §1. The significance of a longer-term view of this kind now is that it provides the perspective of a writing system continually evolving to meet people’s needs and abilities. If we have any care for the future potential of literacy in English, we need to accept that, like a garden, a writing system cannot be left neglected for centuries — as TO has been.
Chapter 2
CUT SPELLING: FORM AND CONTENT

1 ON FIRST APPROACHING CS

1.1 CS is easy to read
With three simple exceptions (the substitutions discussed in Chapter 4), CS uses only letters already found in the TO spelling of words. This has an important consequence: for readers familiar with TO, CS is easy to read from the start, as nearly all its spellings are recognizably similar to TO, and the majority indeed are unchanged. For such readers, the first impression of text in CS is more of TO studded with misprints than of a totally new orthography. While reformed spellings with substituted letters can give the impression of gross errors, spellings with occasional letters omitted are more likely to appear as small slips: compare the blatantly wrong-looking *receev with the subtly simplified CS receve. A repeated observation has been that CS approximates more closely to the “essential form” of English words than TO does.

It is nevertheless undeniable that CS, like any change to the familiar appearance of things, does at first produce a certain ‘alienation effect’, whose severity varies from one reader to another. With some it is minimal, even pleasing, the effect being that of “streamlining”; but some initial reactions are less positive: one new reader described CS as appearing like “a shorn lamb” (the general shape is familiar, but the specific nudity shocks), and the term “mutilated” has been used more than once. However, with growing familiarity this “shock of the new” subsides, especially when the advantages of new forms are increasingly recognized. With a little practice readers quickly become used to CS, existing reading skills reassert themselves, and text in CS can be scanned fluently just as in TO, with only very occasional distraction from unusual forms. Readers have repeatedly remarked that in due course they have ceased even particularly to notice whether a text is written in CS or TO. And indeed, there is no sharp dividing line between CS and TO, and the two systems are in important ways compatible with each other (see §1.5—1.9 below).

CS has been found to create rather greater difficulties for non-native speakers, especially learners. If they are unsure of the identity and pronunciation of a word, they may not immediately be able to relate a CS
form to its TO equivalent; for instance the CS form *nyt* may not bring to mind TO *knight*, even if the more common *night* can be guessed at. In particular, when non-native speakers encounter an unknown form in CS, it is not always obvious whether it is an unchanged TO spelling which can be looked up in an ordinary dictionary, or whether it is a new CS form that needs to be related to a TO equivalent, which itself may or may not be known to the learner. Native speakers can, in fact, experience the same difficulty with words outside the range of their everyday vocabulary.

Two main lessons may be drawn from these experiences. One is a discovery noted by several readers of CS: because letters redundant to the representation of pronunciation are removed, text in CS comes much closer to the sound of words than does TO, and if a CS form appears puzzling at first glance, sounding out the spelling often reveals, to the reader’s astonished delight, a perfectly familiar word. One non-native speaker, who was quite nonplussed on encountering CS, began reading his first text aloud, and instantly found that the meaning fell quite naturally into place; he commented that the experience gave him the feeling that CS embodied the “true essence” of the English language better than TO did.

The other main lesson is that, if any reformed spellings are to be introduced, greater attention needs to be given to the psychology of the learning and adaptation process than has been hitherto realized. Even a system such as CS, which is eminently readable from a basis of proficiency in TO, will not be without its problems. Research is therefore needed into the preparation which readers of different kinds — native and non-native speakers, young and old, highly and not so highly educated — may require to help them get to grips with new kinds of text.

### 1.2 Degrees of strangeness

The different patterns of letter cutting in CS create spellings with varying degrees of strangeness. In words of several syllables, such as CS *abreviate*, *miraculus*, *benefitng*, the cuts may be scarcely noticed in fluent reading, indeed such forms often occur as misspellings and misprints in TO already.

Elsewhere, especially in shorter words such as TO *debt, gnaw, kneel*, the CS forms *det, naw, neel* represent the sound of the word quite unambiguously by standard TO symbol-sound correspondences, but the loss of a prominent letter from the familiar image of a word is at first disturbing.

Less familiar, though usually also less disturbing because these cuts mostly occur near the ends of words, are the strings of letters produced by
Rule 2 (especially omission of unstressed vowel letters before L, M, N, R). Here spelling patterns arise that are rarely or never found in TO, as in the endings of CS \textit{chapl, madm, fashn, propr} for TO \textit{chapel, madam, fashion, proper}, not to mention the even longer consonant strings of forms like \textit{covnnt, domnnt, consnnt, permnnt, contnnt}. These endings are central to the CS system and are used so often and so consistently that readers rapidly come to terms with them. Some words combine this Rule 2 cut with further cuts, producing such forms as CS \textit{sycolojicl} (which also replaces G by J) for TO \textit{psychological}, but here enough of the TO form is retained for recognition to be quite easy.

Hardest to recognize are those few words which lose several of their most prominent letters. Perhaps the most drastically curtailed are CS \textit{y, no, onr, sudonm, werr} for TO \textit{eye, know, honour, pseudonym, wearer}, but such extreme amputation is rare.

The few letters that are actually substituted in CS (F as in \textit{tuf, fotograf}, J as in \textit{jinjr, juj}, Y as in \textit{sy, syt, syn, replyd}) may at first disturb the learner more than the loss of redundant letters, and that is why CS (unlike most previous spelling reform proposals) restricts substitution to just these three straightforward patterns. The benefits are considerable in terms of predictability and economy for both readers and writers, and since (unlike many other possible letter substitutions such as are discussed in Chapter 6) they entail virtually no complications, it is thought worth including them in CS. They also have the advantage that in some cases the basic cutting rules can then be applied with fewer exceptions than would otherwise be possible (eg, the -ED in TO \textit{alleged} could not take its normal Rule 2 cut to -D unless the G were also changed to J, giving final CS \textit{alejd}). The most striking advantage of the letter substitutions is perhaps that they enable that ultimate eccentricity of TO, the GH digraph, to be consigned to the historical dictionary, as the proper museum for such orthographic relics.

1.3 Homophones and homographs
Homophones (or heterographs, ie, different spellings for different meanings that have the same pronunciation, eg, \textit{flour/flower, peace/piece}) and homographs (or heterophones, ie, different pronunciations for different meanings that have the same spelling, eg, \textit{does} from \textit{to do} and from \textit{a doe}; and \textit{tear} from \textit{to tear} and \textit{a teardrop}) are widespread features of TO which cause great confusion. CS goes some way towards resolving this confusion, but does not tackle the problem systematically.
Homophones differently spelt in TO only merge in CS if they differ by redundant letters. Therefore vain/vane/vein, which have no redundant letters, remain distinct in CS. Least disturbing of the merged homophones are those where each form is cut to create an entirely new spelling, as when TO peace/piece merge as CS pece. Some notable difficulties of TO are removed in this manner, as when the pairs principal/principle, stationary/stationery merge as CS principl, stationry. A little over 100 such sets of homophones are so merged by CS, as listed in Chapter 6, §2.3.7 (2).

Slightly more disturbing are cases where a longer homophone loses redundant letters and thereby adopts the TO form with a shorter spelling; for instance TO plaice adopts the form place in CS. Here there is some risk of an inexperienced reader of CS mistaking the meaning, but the context will normally make the meaning clear, as it does in speech: CS I ordrd place for dinr and I reservd a place for dinr are not likely to be confused. Some mergers of very common words may be disorienting at first, as when TO hour, know, knot become CS our, no, not, although the context (eg two ours, no one nos, to tie a not) again normally ensures there is no misunderstanding. Over 100 such sets of TO homophones are merged by CS too, as listed in Chapter 6, §2.3.7 (3).

CS also often disambiguates TO homographs/heterophones. For instance the verb it dos is distinguished from the noun two does; the adjective live from the verb to liv; the verb to present from the noun and adjective presnt; to ro a boat from a defnng row; and tear as in teardrop from ter in the sense of rip.

1.4 Writing CS
Whereas reading CS is mostly an easy, largely passive task for literate adults, beginning to write CS requires active effort and is initially a slow, deliberate process. Some users start by writing a text in TO, and then deleting the redundant letters; but although this represents useful study of the nature of redundancy, it is not recommended as a procedure for learning to write CS. Alphabetic writing is a multisensory activity, involving auditory recall of the sounds of words, co-ordination of muscular control of the hand, and visual scrutiny of the script as it appears on the paper or screen. The skilled writer’s memory of the correct spelling of words resides in each of these senses, hearing, touch and sight. Mastering a new writing system requires the correct sequence of letters to be imprinted on the brain’s control mechanism for all three senses, ready for simultaneous recall.
At least that is the theory. Unfortunately, writers in English have in varying degrees failed to capitalize on the miraculous simplicity with which the alphabet is designed to allow these senses to be co-ordinated. From their earliest acquisition of literacy skills, English speakers have faced conflicting messages from their visual and auditory senses, inasmuch as the sight of the letters needed to spell a word all too often contradicts the sound of the word stored in their memory. Consequently, native speakers of English are mostly not used to relying on auditory recall as a guide to how they should write. Yet achieving automaticity in writing CS depends to a high degree on developing the phonic skills of alphabetic ear-eye co-ordination. For this reason, we may confidently predict that children receiving systematic initial literacy training in CS would take to it far more readily both than they now take to TO and than adults mostly now take to writing CS.

To master CS, adults need to concentrate on developing such phonic skills, rather than trying to remember what words look like in CS. It may be tentatively suggested that adult learners should deliberately start writing in CS very slowly indeed, considering as they go each letter in the TO form of a word, and omitting it if, by the rules of CS, it appears redundant. Having written the word hopefully without its redundant letters, they need to ask whether the new spelling represents the pronunciation of the word more clearly than the TO form did. Part II of this Handbook (‘th systm demnstrated’) is designed to teach the necessary techniques for this process.

Although slow to begin with, writing CS soon becomes faster, and the greater convenience of the more logical, economical CS forms then comes to be appreciated. Writing common words like ar, hav without final E (CS Rule 1) soon becomes second nature. The regular L, M, N, R endings produced by Rule 2 are reassuringly predictable by comparison with the confusing TO variants; for instance, while the French-derived -ANT and Latin-derived -ENT endings of TO assistant, consistent, non-existnt, persistent, resistant have to be learnt individually, the regular -NT endings of CS allow of no uncertainty in writing asistnt, consistnt, non-existnt, persistnt, resistnt. Similarly, the simplification of most doubled consonants (CS Rule 3) removes a major source of confusion, as when TO innocuous/inoculate, commit/omit, embarrass/harass resolve their differences in CS and align as inocuus/inoculate, comit/omit, embaras/haras.

This is perhaps an appropriate point to try and clarify, with regard to CS, a widespread misapprehension about TO. In recent decades it has been commonly asserted that, however irregular the spelling of the base forms of
words may be in English, they are “morphophonemically stable”, which is to say that, whatever suffixes are attached to base forms, their spellings remain unchanged (this assertion is often used as an argument against reforming TO). Yet the briefest of investigations into how base forms and affixes actually relate in TO is enough to refute this notion: how can we describe in terms amenable to the learner what happens to the final E of the base word hinge in its inflected forms hinged, hinges, hinging? or to the TT of permitted, permitting in permit, permits (and for that matter permissible)? Such variations find no support in the spoken language, and in CS they just melt away, with hinj, hinjd, hinjng, hinjs, and permit, permitd, permitng, permits (as well as permisbl — where the switch of T to S merely reflects spoken usage). CS, in other words, introduces morphophonemic stability where it was lacking in TO; but, as explained in §2.6 below, CS also removes morphemic stability where it is not matched by phonemic stability.

1.5 If in doubt, don’t cut out
The compatibility of TO and CS, which ensures the reader can easily recognize words, also helps the writer. Adult learners of CS sometimes hesitate whether to omit a letter or not, and in that case they can apply a simple rule of thumb: ‘if in doubt, don’t cut out’. It is safer to keep the familiar TO form than to risk making the wrong cuts, which would result in a spelling that no longer represented the pronunciation. For example, although CS cuts TO accommodate to acomodate, writers could, if in doubt, use the intermediate forms accommodate, accommodate: these forms are immediately recognizable and cannot be mispronounced, so little harm is done. (Of course, Rule 3, which normally prohibits consonant doubling, is so easy to apply that few learners are likely to hesitate over acomodate anyway.) On the other hand, although the final ‘magic’ -E in accommodate is silent, it must not be cut, as *acomodat would appear to rhyme with habitat. If adult learners sound out the words letter by letter and syllable by syllable as they write them, they should recognize that 1) the final syllable of *acomodat would have the sound of at, 2) that we have in TO accommodate a case of ‘magic E’, as explained repeatedly and at length below, and as also seen in the word date which cannot be cut to CS *dat, but 3), even in the event of uncertainty over those principles, it would be safer to leave the final E intact, by the rule ‘if in doubt, don’t cut out’.
1.6 Flexibility needed for transitional period

This flexibility of leaving redundant letters in place if the justification for their cut is not clearcut, is not only useful to writers at times of uncertainty. It is an essential feature of the status of CS as, at this stage, a tentative general concept for spelling reform, rather than a definitive system. Some suggested CS forms which arise from strict application of the CS rules, are inevitably controversial, and until such time as CS forms (or some of them) might be adopted as standard spellings, it is important that users feel free not to make cuts which they think excessive. English spelling in the past has always been the product of a consensus, and it must be expected that it will be modernized, in some sense, by consensus in the future. The flexibility of CS is a feature that is also intended to encourage consensus.

It is furthermore inevitable that, if written English were modernized by removing redundant letters, they would disappear gradually, remaining in existing texts which continue in circulation, while being increasingly dropped from new texts. All readers would be accustomed to both old and new styles of writing, since they would coexist, overlap and intermingle in daily life. The choice between TO and CS forms must initially be flexible because for a long transitional period (perhaps a generation) many older writers would prefer to retain TO while younger ones adopted CS, and some publications would prefer traditional forms, while others moved quickly over to the new, simpler spellings. Individual writers would inevitably sometimes mix TO and CS, whether through inattention, or through failure fully to grasp the differences between the two systems. All these kinds of variation are inevitable, and should not be seen as a problem, since the new CS forms are designed to be compatible with TO. And if such variation suggests confusion, it must be remembered that confusion is one of the essential characteristics of TO, with all its alternative, uncertain and ambiguous forms, in addition to the innumerable misspellings it is responsible for.

At the same time, one might speculate that, given such alternatives as TO accommodate and CS acomodate, most writers would quite soon decide to use the shorter, less confusing CS forms exclusively. A survey carried out in 1995 showed, incidentally, that 68% of respondents believed that accommodation was spelt with fewer letters in TO already. In terms of social psychology, the natural tendency to omit redundant letters is here seen in full flood.
1.7 Full CS cuts nevertheless preferable

For all the permissive and flexible spirit that would characterize the CS reform for adults, they would nevertheless be encouraged to aim for the fully cut forms as given in the CS dictionary, because even those that learners may initially find disturbing constitute part of the coherence and consistency of the CS system. Even if learners have initial doubts in some cases, they will soon notice patterns and regularities in them, and begin to appreciate that these forms accurately represent normal, everyday pronunciation — the essential criterion for good spelling. Furthermore, the consistent use of CS forms would itself be a sign of ‘educated’ writing (ie, of understanding the rules), just as the ‘correct’ use of TO is today (although TO has no rules to speak of).

However necessary and desirable a flexible approach to the use of CS and TO forms may be, unthinking flexibility may result in inconsistencies. For instance, since cutting all the redundant letters from TO *honour produces CS *onr, one of the most radically ‘mutilated’ CS forms, the unwary learner may be tempted to keep one or more of its redundant letters. But while there would be no harm in writing *onor or the present American form *honor, the patterns of CS mean that keeping just the -UR from the -OUR ending should be avoided: not merely would *(h)onur conflict with the present American form, but in CS the ending -UR is the final syllable of words like TO picture (CS pictur). The average learner could hardly be expected to take such details into account, and would therefore be better advised either to make no cuts at all in *hono(u)r, or else to use the full CS form, onr, as given in the CS dictionary.

Learners should also beware of applying CS Rule 3 (simplifying doubled consonants) to a word without also applying Rule 2 (omitting unstressed vowel letters before L, M, N, R). For instance, as explained in Chapter 3, written is cut to ritten by Rule 1, ritten is then further cut to rittn by Rule 2, and rittn is finally cut to standard CS rtn by Rule 3. But Rule 3 must not be applied without Rule 2, as this would produce the unacceptable form *ritten, suggesting the pronunciation of righten. Likewise, TO dinner can be cut to CS dinr, or by Rule 2 to the intermediate dinnr, but not to *diner, which is a different word that remains uncut from TO.

Similarly, in the case of often, soften and fasten, christen, the T cannot be removed by Rule 1, unless the E is also removed by Rule 2. Otherwise the form *ofen would parallel open with its long O, and *fasen would parallel CS hasen with its long A.
1.8 Avoiding ambiguity, ensuring compatibility

Occasionally a letter is redundant to the representation of the sound of a word, but cutting it produces a form identical with another word which has a different pronunciation. To prevent ambiguity, CS may then keep the redundant letter, and the word is marked with a following asterisk in the dictionary to show that the CS rules have not been applied in the normal way. This problem occurs most strikingly with a few monosyllables ending in O: *toe*, *tow* cannot be cut to *to* since the differently pronounced preposition *to* is unchanged in CS; similarly *doe*, *doh*, *dough* cannot be cut to the differently pronounced *do*, and *shoe*, *hoe* must be kept distinct from CS *sho*, *ho* (TO *show*, *who*). In the same way, certain types of word containing doubled consonants cannot be cut (compare *holly*/hol, *comma*/coma, *vellum*/velum); patterns where doubled consonants are preserved are discussed in detail in Chapter 3, under Rule 3.

In some other cases the danger of ambiguity is slight, and the cut may still be made. CS thus cuts *tongue* to *tong*, whose plural then merges with TO *tongs* (some speakers pronounce TO *tongs/tongues* alike anyway). Slightly different is the TO/CS ambiguity of *add*: there is no direct merger when TO *added* is cut to CS *add*, since in CS the latter becomes *ad*; but readers coming straight from TO may initially stumble over a CS sentence such as *furthr ingredients ar add to th mixtur*, although the context will clarify the sense after a moment’s reflection. The reduction of *could* to *cud* is felt to be justified by the extremely common pattern established with parallel *shud*, *wud* for three particularly troublesome TO forms, and by the relative rarity of TO *cud*.

Such decisions as to when mergers of heterophones are permitted in CS must however be open to debate, and will ultimately be arbitrary.

1.9 Coming to terms with shorter CS forms

Some learners find certain CS spellings disturbing at first, but come to accept them when they understand the reasoning behind them. A common case is the apparent removal of a syllable that in the learner’s perception is pronounced. When TO *opera* appears as CS *opra*, learners sometimes object that the E is sounded (as indeed it may be in very careful speech); but one must then ask whether pronunciation by the CS spelling sounds wrong. Since *opera* is normally pronounced to rhyme with *copra*, the form *opra* represents the pronunciation quite adequately. Furthermore, the form *opera* is itself actually misleading, as it might be mispronounced to rhyme with *caldera* or *riviera*, or it might be misspelt *opara* by analogy with *Ankara*.
(just as separate is often misspelt *seperate). It is therefore better to write opera, as even such an initially strange-looking CS form will, especially to a child or foreigner, in fact be less misleading than the familiar TO form. Provided they adequately represent the way a word is commonly spoken, shorter spellings are preferable to longer ones, because they are simpler to learn, quicker to write, and less likely to be misspelt.

CS thus generally prefers the spelling that represents the most concise articulation of a word. This criterion enables choices to be made between different pronunciations in different accents. CS therefore recommends the shorter form fertile, representing the American rather than the British pronunciation which would require the TO form fertile; and conversely, CS recommends the shorter forms ceremony, secretary, representing British pronunciation, where American would perhaps prefer the TO forms ceremony, secretary. A similar balance is struck with Scottish pronunciations: such CS forms as mor, wensday may inadequately represent Scottish pronunciation, but the reduction of TO thought to CS thot reflects Scottish rhyming of thought/hot. The same reasoning allows CS to take W as representing WH as well as W.

Learners often initially jib at the strangeness of some very common CS forms. For instance, although the W in TO who, whom, whose is clearly redundant, the CS forms ho, hom, hos at first look disturbingly strange (the ‘shorn lamb’ syndrome). The omission of initial letters is always particularly disturbing (and would require a major shift of dictionary position), and writers may decide they wish to keep such letters. They will however naturally also want to spell consistently, and not sometimes to write who and sometimes ho, so they are advised take a decision of principle to omit all redundant initial letters, or none. This Handbook recommends that silent initial letters always be cut, as they so flagrantly breach the essential alphabetic principle of transparent sound-symbol correspondence.

1.10 Different needs of adults, beginners, professionals
Adults learning CS might eventually wish to convert entirely from TO to CS, but hitherto they have merely wished to use CS for limited purposes, as a second writing system that is more convenient than TO, or just to explore a simplified spelling system. After some practice, writing CS is found easier than TO, since it is faster and poses fewer problems, and some adults therefore worry that they might forget how to write TO. This concern is natural, but experience so far suggests that an adult proficient in TO does
not forget it, as the skill has become automatic and can therefore be recalled when required (like other skills, such as swimming or cycling). However, to minimize any risk of confusion, it is helpful for writers who want to retain the ability to use both systems, to remind themselves explicitly each time they start to write, “Now I am going to use TO, not CS”, or vice versa.

Adult learners, whatever their purpose in learning CS, are in a quite different position from beginners acquiring their first knowledge of written English through CS, whether these would be native-speaking children in school, or students of English as a foreign language. Adults have TO as their starting point, and in the first instance they need to learn not so much the CS forms themselves as which TO letters to cut out. As they can use their discretion whether to write CS, or TO, or intermediate forms, they always have at least one spelling for each word available.

Learners acquiring their initial literacy skills on the other hand would have no prior knowledge of TO, and would learn the regularities of CS directly without considering the TO-CS cutting rules at all. Since the sound-symbol correspondences of CS are far more predictable than in TO, a solid basis in phonics would be a natural starting point, particular attention being given to the role of syllabic consonants (especially syllabic L, M, N, R), which are so much more important in CS than in TO. Initial learners would from the outset be given clear instructions as to the correct CS forms, and not be offered alternatives such as honour/honor/onor/onr, opera/opra, or who/ho. They would be taught the most regular, economical CS forms as standard, and would prefer them both because they are easier to use, and because teachers would present CS as modern and logical, where TO is antiquated and inconsistent. To such beginners, forms like honour, opera, who would seem as strange as the old forms bytte, phantastic, shew for bit, fantastic, show appear today to generations reared on TO. Such spellings as honour, opera, who would be curious, even grotesque, archaic forms found in old texts or used by older people.

The question of how professional producers of text such as printers, publishers, journalists and secretaries might convert to CS is a complex issue which cannot be examined in detail here. It must however be assumed that the transition would be a gradual, partly voluntary (though orderly) process extending over a number of years and initiated as a policy-decision by their employing organizations, with appropriate training provided.
2 THE LETTERS AND THEIR SOUNDS

2.1 The function of letters
The letters of the alphabet were invented to represent the sounds of which words are composed. If, as in some languages, each letter usually stands for the same sound, and each sound is usually written with the same letter, learning to read and write correctly is not difficult. The Roman alphabet, however, makes such simplicity hard to achieve in English, as it has too few letters to give a unique, unambiguous representation to each of the forty or more sounds of the language. Furthermore, English has scarcely even tried to use the letters to represent sounds consistently for nearly 1,000 years, and countless words today contain letters that conflict with pronunciation, some suggesting the wrong sound, and some standing for no sound at all. Consequently, learning to read and write English is uniquely difficult, and many people never properly master it. Mistakes involving redundant letters are especially frequent (poor spellers sometimes use CS forms when trying to write TO), and by cutting these letters out, CS is acting ergonomically, reinforcing the natural human tendency to use the alphabet as best suits our psychological processes and as it was designed to be used: to spell the sounds of words.

2.2 Standard sound-values of letters in English
There is a wide, if often tacit, consensus as to which sounds most letters theoretically represent in English, and, conversely, how most sounds are theoretically spelt. CS accepts these assumptions, and does not normally cut letters out when they are so used. One consequence of the shortage of letters in the alphabet, however, is that some letters, especially vowel letters, are used for more than one sound in English, indeed often for several sounds. Although this is a fundamental problem of English spelling, CS has to accept many of the resulting multiple (and frequently irregular) correspondences: it does not for instance attempt to ‘correct’ the spelling of the word English by writing *Inglish. At the same time, there are some advantages for CS in these ambiguous correspondences, because they can cover a range of pronunciations in different accents; thus the fact that for the Scots cot: caught may be pronounced alike helps to justify cutting TO thought to CS thot, and the fact that some accents rhyme bear/there/her helps justify cutting TO bear/there/their to CS ber/ther.

When letters stand for a sound or sounds as listed below, they are not redundant and not normally cut in CS (though doubled consonants are normally written single).
2.2.1 Consonants

The following are basic standard values:

- B as in be
- D as in do
- F as in fee
- H as in he
- J as in jay
- K as in key
- L as in low
- M as in me
- N as in no
- P as in pay
- R as in ray
- T as in to
- V as in view.

The following consonants involve complications:

- C normally either as in call or as in cell, but sometimes with the value of SH, as in ocean, special, ancient, suspicion. CS accepts all three values as standard, unless an alternative spelling with K or S is available.

- G as in go, but in TO G also often represents the sound of J as in gem; CS removes this ambiguity by substituting J as recommended in Chapter 4, and writing jem. It would then be appropriate to rename the letter G as gee (with a hard /g/), in place of its present name jee.

- Q as in quit stands for the sound /k/, although that sound is more often spelt with K and/or C. CS accepts Q as a standard spelling, unless an alternative with C or K is available.

- S stands for the voiceless consonant in so; but it is also often voiced as /z/, as in owes; this is a very common value between vowels, in plural endings, and in verb inflections. CS accepts both values for single S, but only accepts the voiceless value for SS.

- W (also called a semi-vowel) as in we and why. Some accents distinguish W, WH, voicing the former but giving the latter a voiceless, aspirated pronunciation. The digraph WH has no place in CS, which simplifies the spelling by writing just W for both TO patterns (we, wy).

- X is sometimes voiceless, as /ks/, as in ox, and sometimes voiced, as /gz/ as in exact; CS accepts both values for X.

- Y as in yes; when it has this value, Y is also called a semi-vowel. For other values of Y, see under §2.2.2 Vowels below.

- Z as in zoo, although that consonant sound is more often written S.

2.2.2 Vowels

All vowel letters have several standard values, and CS normally keeps them when they are required to show the values seen in the following words:

- A as in at, baby, all, are, calm
- E as in egg, me, her
- I as in it, kind, sir
- O as in on, no, or
- U has up to 5 values in some accents, as in but, put, truth, unit, fur
- Y has two values as a vowel, as in pity, reply, in addition to its value as the consonant or semi-vowel in yes.
2.3 Letters in combination (digraphs)

Another result of the shortage of alphabetic symbols for the sounds of English is that letters are often combined as ‘digraphs’ or occasionally as ‘trigraphs’ to represent certain sounds, especially those for which there is no single letter. Several of these combinations are taken as standard and kept in CS.

2.3.1 Consonant digraphs

There are a few consonant sounds which no single letter can represent; many of them are spelt with a consonant letter followed by H:

- **CH** as in *chew*
- **SH** as in *she*
- **TH** as the initial sound in *this* (voiced) and *thin* (voiceless)
- **NG** as the final sound in *long*, and medially, with the G sounded separately, as in *longer*

*(ZH)* This consonant has no standard spelling: in *rouge* it is spelt GE, in *Jacques* J, in *vision* SI, in *equation* TI, in *seizure* ZU, and in Russian names we find the digraph ZH (*Brezhnev*). CS accepts all these spellings for ZH.

(CS would also accept DG as in *bridge* as a standard digraph value, if the G > J substitution rule described in Chapter 4 did not apply. With this substitution, CS writes *brij*.)

2.3.2 Vowel digraphs

Since there are about as many vowel sounds in English as consonant sounds (round about 20), but only six letters to represent them (A, E, I, O, U, Y), many vowel digraphs are used, some for more than one sound. Furthermore, while most consonant sounds have only one standard spelling, some vowel sounds have several. The most important which are normally retained in CS are the following:

- **AE, AI, AY, EI, EY** for the vowel in *Gael, vain, way, vein, they*
- **AU, AW** for the vowel in *taut, law*
- **EA, EE, EI, IE** for the long E vowel as in *meat, meet, deceit, field*
- **IE** for the long I vowel as in *tie*, except that, as explained in Chapter 4, the -IED in the endings of verbs such as *simplified* becomes -YD (*simplifyd*). The letters -IGH usually have this value in TO, but Chapter 4 also explains how CS removes GH entirely, replacing this -IGH by Y (TO *night*, CS *nyt*).
- **OA** as in *boat*
- **OI, OY** as in *join, joy*
- **OO, EW** as in *shoot, soot, chew*
- **OU, OW** as in *cloud, cow*.
‘Magic’ E digraphs for the long values of A, E, I, O, U are split by a consonant letter (or occasionally two) between the long vowel and the final, silent, so-called ‘magic’ E, as in *late, eve, wine, pole, flute, waste, title, scruple*. Although silent, the final E is an essential part of these split digraphs, and therefore not redundant and not normally cut in CS (except sometimes when TO indicates the long value of the vowel twice—see §2.4 below). This non-redundant silent E can also occur medially (eg, before suffixes as in *later, solely*), and is not cut then either. However ‘magic’ E is not required in CS to indicate preceding long Y, since in CS Y by itself is as far as possible given the long value which it has in TO *my, hygiene* etc; TO *style, type* can therefore be cut to CS *styl*, *typ*, aligning these words with their E-less derivatives *stylistic, typography* etc (see Chapter 3, §E.1.2.6, and Chapter 4, §5 for further details).

### 2.4 Simplifying doubled spellings for long E

As noted above, long vowels are sometimes doubly indicated in TO, with both a digraph and a following ‘magic’ E, as in *praise, loathe, loaves, hooves*. In these circumstances CS retains whichever vowel letter best aligns the word with wider spelling regularities, and cuts the other vowel letter (giving *prase, lothe, loavs, hoovs*). Long E, for which TO uses a confusing variety of spellings, as in *lease/geese/fleece, Chinese/please/cheese/freeze/ seize, eve/leave/sleeve/receive/believe*, is particularly prone to such double indication, and in all these cases, CS regularizes with ‘magic’ E: *les, gese, flece, plese, chese, freze, seze, leve, sleve, receve, beleve* (see Chapter 3, Rule 1, for details). On the other hand, when an L follows the consonant, Rule 2 is normally applied, so that *beadle, beetle, eagle, easel, feeble, needle, steeple, weasel, weevil* are regularized as CS *beadl, beetl, eagl, easl, feebl, needl, steepl, weasl, weevl*; in this way four spelling variations are reduced to just two, whereas if the ‘magic’ E were kept, three variations would remain. The unique TO form *people* remains unique, though less outrageously aberrant, as CS *peple*.

### 2.5 Keeping non-standard sound-values of letters

Many words use letters with sound-values other than the standard equivalences listed in §2.2, 2.3, 2.4 above. For instance, A in *any* is usually heard as short E; C in *cello* as CH; D in *guessed* as T (as in its homophone, *guest*); E in *pretty* as I; F in *of* as V; O in *mother* as U; SSI in *passion* and TI in *ration* as SH; U in *busy* as I. Though their sound-values are aberrant,
these letters are needed because they do represent sounds, and the rules of
CS do not allow them to be changed: despite the aberrant U, CS cannot cut
busy to bsy.

2.6 Morphemic variation
A feature of CS which has aroused some controversy is its differentiation of
some morphemes. For instance, it has been objected that CS should not cut
the O in TO symbol (CS symbl) because of the O in symbolic, and principal
should not be merged with principle (CS principl for both words) because it
can be related to principality. However, as already observed in the case of
inflections under §1.4 above, TO itself often flouts this principle of
morphemic stability, as in the variant vowel spellings of speak/speech,
high/height, enjoin/injunction, and in the variant endings of nobility/noble
(not *nobil) and comparative/comparison (not *comparason). CS gives
higher priority to the alphabetic principle, that spellings should represent
pronunciation, than to any principle (such as enunciated by Noam Chomsky)
of inviolability of morphemes. In other words, morphemes are better not
preserved in spelling if they are not heard in pronunciation, ie, each word
should be spelt according to its own pronunciation, and not according to the
pronunciation of a different word, however closely related the latter may
be. Despite the stressed O in symbolic, CS therefore writes symbl, whose
final syllable can be neither misspelt nor mispronounced; nor can the -BOL
of TO symbol then be confused with the -BAL of TO cymbal, since that is
cut in parallel fashion to cymbl.

2.7 Alternative TO spellings
One of the curiosities of TO is that, although it prescribes rigid (if often
illogical) spellings for the majority of words, a large number have
acceptable alternative forms (eg, gaol/jail, organise/organize,
yogurt/yoghourt). Many of these alternatives offer a choice between a
simpler, more predictable spelling, and one that is less so. An improvement,
quite independent of CS, that could with very little disturbance be made to
English spelling would be firmly to recommend the simpler, more regular
of the alternative forms as the only approved ‘correct’ spelling. Such a
decision would in many cases have the advantage of removing discrepancies
between American and British spelling conventions (eg, British favour,
whose spelling now misleadingly parallels its non-rhyme devour, could be
cut to the American form favor, as is in fact required by CS). Chapter 3
notes numerous TO alternatives, and states a preference for whichever is
the simpler and more regular, independently of whether such a preference is also called for by the cutting rules (eg *jail* is preferred to *gaol*). Similarly, the CS dictionary specifies many American forms (eg *skeptic* for British *sceptic*) without further comment.

### 3 LEARNING PROCESSES

#### 3.1 Three categories: rules and exercises

To master CS, the adult learner has to appreciate which letters found in the TO spelling of a word are not needed to show how it is pronounced. The three main categories of redundant letter (as listed in Chapter 1) are:

1. those unconnected with pronunciation (like B in *debt*)
2. certain unstressed vowels (like the last vowel letter in *principal/principle* or *adapter/adaptor*)
3. doubled consonants (like the CC, MM in *accommodate*).

Their removal produces the CS forms *dout*, *principl*, *adaptr*, *acomodate*. The cutting rules for each category are set out respectively in Sections 1, 2 and 3 of Chapter 3, and Part II of the Handbook provides structured exercises for recognizing redundant letters category by category.

#### 3.2 Identifying short vowels

Central to the phonology of English are the half dozen so-called short vowels (the exact number depending on accent), as in *pat, pet, pit, pot, put/putt*. Apart from some ambiguity over U, these sounds are easy to recognize, easy to spell, and, if TO spells them with redundant letters, these are easy to cut: the A is clearly redundant in *head*, as are the E in *hearth*, I in *friend*, O in *leopard*, and U in *build*. However, because the O in words like *come, done, love* has an aberrant value (being pronounced like a short U), some learners do not immediately realize that it nevertheless represents a short vowel, as opposed to the long O in *home, tone, drove, move* with their final ‘magic’ E (although in *move* the O also has an aberrant sound value, being pronounced like a long U). The non-‘magic’ E is thus redundant after the short vowel in *come, done, love* (CS *com, don, lov*), but not after the long vowels in *home, tone, move*, etc.

#### 3.3 ‘Magic’ long vowel indicators beside E

Learners soon recognize most redundant letters, but to begin with they sometimes assume that every silent letter must be redundant. Some silent letters, however, are needed because they indicate how another letter is pronounced, often a preceding long vowel. As seen in §2.3 above, the
‘magic’ E in wine is silent, but it is not redundant because it distinguishes the long I of wine from the short I of win. However, it is not only final E which can have this ‘magic’ effect of showing that a preceding vowel is long: the B in climb, comb, tomb also does so, telling us these words do not rhyme with him or from; and this B is therefore not redundant. The same is true of the C in indict and the I in some -ING inflections: TO hopping, with its short vowel, is cut to CS hopng; TO soaping with its long O is similarly cut to soapng since the long O is indicated by the OA digraph; but hoping must keep its I, as it has the ‘magic’ function of showing that the preceding O is long, so distinguishing hopng/hoping.

3.4 Matching against shorter TO forms
A useful way to identify redundant letters is often to compare rhyming words. If some have extra letters, these are likely to be redundant. For instance, since beauty rhymes with duty, CS can write buty; and since frontier rhymes with souvenir, CS can write frontir. Simpler TO spellings of rhyming words are given in brackets in Chapter 3 when they offer a model for the CS form. Similarly, when American and British spellings differ, one (usually the American) may be shorter and therefore also offers a model for CS; CS thus prefers American ax, traveling, worshiped (final CS ax, travlng, worshipd) to British axe, travelling, worshipped, but British fulfil, skilful to American fulfill, skillful.

3.5 Too much to learn?
Faced with the many cutting patterns listed in this Handbook, some adult learners may feel CS is too complicated to learn. However, they should not be discouraged, as mastering CS is rather a matter of learning to think critically about TO than of learning large numbers of rules or patterns. What adult learners are actually doing when they first try out CS is not so much applying laboriously memorized rules and patterns, as simply using their knowledge of TO and asking themselves, “Which letters are redundant according to the three cutting rules?” The technique is not so much one of learning new spellings as of learning how to pare down familiar old ones.

Another reason for not worrying about the apparent complexity of CS is its flexibility and its compatibility with TO. This means that anyone writing CS who only cuts out some of the redundant letters from the TO forms of words will normally still be writing perfectly comprehensible English — indeed readers unfamiliar with CS will find such intermediate spellings less strange than full CS cuts. (But see §1.8 above for inadmissible intermediate
forms.) Failure to cut out all possible redundant letters should therefore not normally be regarded negatively, as making ‘mistakes’ in using CS. Instead, the omission of each redundant letter should be thought of positively, as a small victory over the absurdities of TO. Every redundant letter cut out is one more weed removed from the overgrown garden that written English has degenerated into over the centuries.

Furthermore, the apparent complexity of the cutting patterns described in this Handbook is in a very real sense illusory: not merely can the cutting patterns be defined in terms of just three basically simple rules, but their apparent complexity is a reflection of the complexity of TO rather than of CS. When CS reduces the ten variant endings of burglar, teacher, amateur, Cheshire, doctor, valour, centre, murmur, injure, martyr to a uniform R (giving burglr, teachr, amatr, Cheshr, doctr, valr, centr, murmr, injr, martr), the Handbook lists the ten endings separately for the sake of completeness, but the learner trying to write CS only has to remember the invariant R.

These remarks are intended to reassure adults already to some degree proficient in TO. Above all, however, learners should remember the major positive advantages that CS offers them, as explained in Chapter 1: its economy and freedom from many of the greatest traps of TO.

3.6 How difficult would CS be for initial learners? While some experience has already been gained of how adult learners tackle CS, no comparable experience is yet available for initial learners, whether children with no previous literacy skills or foreign learners with no prior knowledge of English. In the absence of experimental evidence, any remarks about how initial learners might cope with CS must to that extent be conjectural.

For initial learners facing written English for the first time, the task of mastering CS would be quite different from that faced by adult learners. Initial learners would not have to learn how to cut TO, but merely how to master CS as a new writing system, and the hurdles they would face must be assessed by comparison with the hurdles presented by TO. CS is necessarily much easier than TO, because it is essentially just TO simplified by removal of many of the latter’s most troublesome features. What initial learners would have to do would be to internalize the more regular symbol-sound and sound-symbol correspondences of CS, along with those ambiguities and irregularities which CS retains from TO because they do not involve redundant letters.
A possible difficulty, suggested by some teachers, concerns the new strings of consonant letters that arise in CS. Even in TO many children in the first stages of literacy acquisition find consonant strings like the STR- and -NGTHS in strengths hard to analyze, and it is then asked, how they would manage with such extreme instances as CS implmntng, with its eight successive consonants. It must firstly be remembered that CS also reduces consonant strings (GH disappears altogether for instance), as when TO eight, chronic, consumption become CS eit, cronic, consumtion. Secondly, literacy teaching would be able to exploit phonic techniques in CS far more effectively than is possible in TO and teachers would therefore be able to rehearse the sounding-out of such strings with their pupils. In the extreme case of a word like CS implmntng (which only older learners would be likely to encounter anyway), the technique would involve morphemic as well as phonic analysis. Learners would be shown from an early stage how certain common affixes can be attached to and removed from words, and they would immediately see that the final -NG of implmntng can be separated from its base, and that the base itself has the common ending -MNT. Particular practice would be needed in sounding out the many syllabic L, M, N, R spellings, which are such a feature of CS but are rather rare in TO. Because most of the new consonant strings of CS result from the removal of confusing vowel letters, it is anticipated that the regular patterning even of words like implmntng would be easier to master than the equivalent TO forms.

3.7 Assessing backwards compatibility

The question of how easily initial learners of CS would be able to read TO (the question of ‘backwards compatibility’) must also be considered, though here again the answer is partly conjectural. In general, TO would be seen as a grotesque historical relic, whose forms appear much as the spelling of 16th century English does to today’s adults educated in TO. By and large today’s adults can still decipher 16th century English with its many additional letters and various letter substitutions, but without practice they may initially hesitate over certain forms, such as certeinie, sauadge, vncovered for modern certainly, savage, uncovered. A new generation of learners schooled in CS should still be able to decipher the TO forms of most words (TO receipt, hypothetical, accommodate would be no problem to readers who had learnt CS receit, hypotheticl, acomodate). They might, however, hesitate or need some guidance over GH words, for instance, or words which lost an initial letter in CS: if they had learnt the CS forms hyt,
nolef, how easily would they recognize TO height, knowledge? Such problem cases would however be few, and could be specially learnt and practised.

Backwards compatibility is a most important feature of the relationship between CS and TO: no spelling reform can risk a situation where a generation of new, reformed spellers cannot easily read what older people write, or what earlier texts say. Most previous English spelling reform proposals appear not to have considered this point.
Chapter 3
WHICH LETTERS ARE CUT?

1 Cutting as far as possible
This chapter describes which letters used in the TO forms of words can be cut without undermining (rather, the cut improves) the regularity of the sound-symbol correspondence. In most cases it is clear which letters need to be removed: for instance, the B in doubt (Rule 1), the last vowel in principal/principle (Rule 2), and one C and one M in accommodate (Rule 3). In a few cases, however, the proposed cuts entail disadvantages that may be thought to outweigh the advantages. This chapter aims to explore the potential for cutting out letters to the maximum, but explains the disadvantages that occasionally arise. It must be left to the discretion of adult learners not to make cuts which they find excessive, but if CS were to be formally implemented as a standard spelling system for teaching literacy skills to beginners, the implications of the more radical or controversial cuts recommended in this Handbook would need further consideration, with a view to excluding some of them, at least initially, from the system.

2 Illustration by progressive use of CS spellings
As each pattern of letter cutting is explained, the CS forms concerned will from then on be used in the Handbook, so that the effect may be observed. At first, therefore, only a few CS forms occur, but they become steadily more common, until by the end of Chapter 5 the full CS simplified orthography is seen in operation. This progressive introduction of CS means that, early on, many partial CS forms are found, with some redundant letters cut, but others not. For example, Rule 1 cuts initial W from TO written, giving ritten; but Rule 2 later cuts the E, so that rittn is then the form used until Rule 3 simplifies the double T, producing the final CS form, rittn. The spellings used in Chapter 3 are therefore often not final CS, but intermediate, illustrating the effects of cutting step by step. To check the final CS form of any word, readers should refer to the dictionary in Part III.

3 The Cutting Rules
Of the three Cutting Rules, readers will notice that Rule 1, which cuts letters irrelevant to pronunciation, occupies as much space as Rules 2 and 3 together. This is partly because in TO every letter of the alphabet except
(arguably) Q, R, V, Z sometimes meets the Rule 1 criterion of irrelevance to pronunciation, several letters doing so in a large number of different contexts, and a long catalogue is therefore needed to cover the many words and patterns involved; but Rule 1 is also more complex because it discusses numerous isolated, doubtful cases (eg, whether or not the unique TO form *choir* can be cut to CS *coir*). Rules 2 and 3 on the other hand may cut as many letters from a typical text as Rule 1, but as the patterns are fewer and more comprehensive, they can be described more succinctly.

As explained in Chapter 2, the learner is not expected to memorize the many patterns presented in this chapter. Chapter 3 and the following two are designed for reference, providing a detailed catalogue and analysis of cutting patterns. The exercises in Part II on the other hand will be found to provide not merely learning material with copious examples, but a much more transparent survey of the patterns themselves. The briefest overview, with paradigms for most of the different patterns, is however found on pages 2-15, in the ‘Contents & Catalogue’ preceding Chapter 1.

4 Presentation
Each cutting pattern is headed in bold type with a schematic, generalized description of the cut being made. Examples and explanations then follow, with any TO model for the cut form in brackets. A typical item under Rule 1, Letter A, would then be EA > E: *head/hed (bed)*. Forms preceded by an asterisk (eg, *pencl*) are inadmissible, while those followed by an asterisk are exempt from the normal cutting rules (eg, *comma*).

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**Rule 1: LETTERS IRRELEVANT TO PRONUNCIATION**

For Rule 1, the letters and their redundant occurrences are listed below alphabetically, letter by letter. Within the entries for the more complex letters, the various patterns are also listed alphabetically (though sometimes under broader sub-headings, such as ‘initial’, ‘final’, ‘postvocalic’ etc), so that any particular spelling pattern can be quickly located.
Redundant A

A.1 AE > E

A.1.1 AE > E: anaemia > anemia The letters AE (formerly often written as the ligature Æ) in words derived from Greek or Latin, such as encyclopaedia, mediaeval and many medical terms (eg, anaemia, anaesthetic, faeces, haemorrhage) are now increasingly written without A, especially in America (and generally in French). CS follows this trend, which gives encyclopedia (cf French encyclopédie), medieval, anemia (cf French anémie), anesthetic, feces, hemorrhage, etc.

A.1.2 AER- > AR-, ER-? The root AER- as in aerial, aeroplane, etc, clearly contains a redundant vowel letter, as seen by comparison with A in area and E in sombrero; but whether the A or the E should be regarded as redundant is unclear. Forms such as *aroplane, *eroplane are both potentially misleading when set beside, for instance, arid, aroma, era, erotic, and since initial AER- is in any case a rare spelling pattern, it is felt better to leave it uncut. It might furthermore be preserved in these cases as a possible model for later spelling regularization of this sound, with forms like air, bear, spare being respelt aer, baer, spaer; but such changes are not contemplated for CS.

A.2 EA > E

A.2.1 Final EA > E in monosyllables: tea/te Flea, pea, plea, sea, tea etc are cut by analogy with TO be, he, me, she, we, giving CS fle, pe, ple, se, te (cf E.1.2.1 for see — se, Y.2 for key — ke etc). Some users hesitate at the brevity of the resulting forms, especially when suffixes are added, as in the plural (TO seas, CS ses) and in compounds (CS penut, seside, tecup may appear to have short E as in pet, set etc); but the cut forms (se, ses etc) are recommended for their economy and predictability, enabling TO me, tea, fee, key to align as CS me, te, fe, ke. Parallel in other languages are te in the Scandinavian languages, té in Spanish, and tè in Italian.

A.2.2 EA > E-E: long E doubly indicated

A.2.2.1 peace > pece By cutting the redundant A, CS aligns TO peace with rhymes fleece, Greece, which lose a medial E (see E.2.1.3), and niece, piece, which lose I (see I.1.3). CS then writes flece, Grece (cf Grecian), nece, pece.

A.2.2.2 -EASE > -ESE: ease > ese The long E in cease, crease, decease, grease, increase, lease, release (with voiceless S) and disease, ease, please, tease (with voiced S) is shown twice in TO, by the digraph EA and by ‘magic’ E. The TO ending of these, diocese, Chinese provides a model for CS cese (cf French cesser), crese, decese, grese, increse, relese, disese, ese, plese, tese. Cutting ease to ese requires easy to be written esy, which some users find disturbing. The above cuts do not
distinguish between voiced/voiceless S in ese, cese etc, although this could be done in a number of ways. Most simply, the A could be kept in the voiceless forms (cease etc), with only the voiced forms allowed to align with these, Chinese (ese, plese etc). If letters were to be substituted, the voiceless forms could be spelt with SS (ceass, creass, releass etc), while S was retained for the voiced forms (ese, plese etc). Alternatively, Z could be substituted in the voiceless forms (theze, Chineze, dioceze, diseze, eze [also ezy], pleze), with S left in the voiceless forms (cese, crese etc). However, since TO does not distinguish voiced/voiceless S in the -EASE words, and since TO forms with -EESE (geese, cheese, E.2.1.3) can also be reduced to -ESE, the latter is recommended for all the above words, leaving the /s, z/ distinction to be introduced, if desired, by a later reform (see Chapter 6, §1.4).

A.2.2.3 -EATHE > -ETHE: breathe > brethe The TO verbs breathe, sheathe, wreath also have their long vowels doubly indicated, and lose A, to become brethe, shethe, wreteth (contrast the CS nouns breth, sheath, wreath; and cf E.2.1.3 for CS sethe from TO seethe). The final E in brethe etc may be taken also to show voiced TH, which further distinguishes the pronunciation of breth/brethe, wreath/wretethe. It is perhaps regrettable that the noun/verb pairs sheath/shethe, wreath/wreteth come to spell their vowels differently; but CS does not allow the kind of solution to this anomaly which a more radical reform might suggest (eg, shieth/shiethe, etc).

A.2.2.4 -EAVE > -EVE: leave > leve This spelling occurs in bereave, cleave, eaves, heave, leave, weave, but TO offers a simpler model in eve, breve, Steve, and CS therefore writes bereve, cleve, eves, heve, leve, weve. (E.2.1.3 and I.1.3 show how by similarly cutting the patterns of sleeve, receive, believe to sleve, receve, beleve some notoriously troublesome variants of English spelling are aligned.) The loss of A in these words also brings them closer to related forms such as bereft, cleft, left, weft, and provides a direct parallel with breth > brethe. TO cleaver becomes CS clever, but since TO clever becomes CS clever by Rule 2, the two words remain distinct. The plural of leaf, sheaf retains the A of the singular, giving CS leavs, sheavs, not *leves, *sheves (cf E.1.1.15).

A.2.3 -EA- > -E- pronounced as short E
A.2.3.1 -EA- > -E-: head > hed There are in TO about 50 mostly common base-words (and many more derivatives) spelt with EA pronounced as short E (the A being redundant): bread, breadth, breakfast, breast, breath, cleanliness, cleanse, dead, deaf, dealt, death, dread, dreamt, endeavour, feather, head, health, heather, heaven, heavy, instead, jealous, lead (the metal), leant, leapt, leather, leaven, meadow, meant, measure, peasant, pheasant, pleasure, read (past tense), ready, realm, spread, steady, stealth, sweat, thread, threat, treachery, tread, treasure, wealth, weapon, weather, zealous. The standard use of E, EA (as in bed, bead) gives CS bred,
bredth, brekfast, brest, breth, clenliness, clense, ded, def, delt, deth, dred, dremt, hed, helth, hevy, insted, led, lent, lept, ment, red, redy, relm, spred, stedy, stelth, swet, thred, thret, tred, weth; the other words in the TO list above also lose A, but their CS forms are not shown here as they lose other letters too (eg, jealous > jelus). (cf French levain, mesure, trésor; Welsh ffsant, mesur, pleser) Two particularly useful effects of this cut are firstly to align the metal led with the homophonous past tense of the verb to lead (he led), rather than, as in TO, with the infinitive; and secondly, the past tense of to read is aligned with its homophone, the colour red, rather than with the infinitive and present tense of the verb, as confusingly occurs in TO. A slight complication arises from cutting those of the above words in which the EA is followed by a single consonant and a vowel (heady, ready, steady, sweaty, treading etc), in that, by TO patterns of sound-symbol correspondence, the CS form may appear to suggest a long E vowel rather than the short one; thus redy, swety might be misread as reedy, sweety. To prevent any such ambiguity, it would be possible to double the consonants and write heddy (cf eddy) and swetty (cf jetty). However, E rarely has its long value in such positions (long E is usually spelt with a digraph), so such misreading would be unlikely; furthermore, the reduction of most -ING suffixes to CS -NG enables final CS to distinguish the endings of tredng and preceding, the latter keeping its full -ING ending. This pattern is discussed further in Sections 2 and 3 of the present chapter (Rule 2 on inflections, Rule 3 on simplifying doubled consonants, §2.5), and we will here simply note the recommended final CS forms hedy, redy, stedy, swetng, dredng, hedng, spredng, thredng, tredng.

A.2.3.2 -EAR- > -ER-: earn > ern  A few words with -EAR- pronounced as ER also lose A: earl, early, earn, earnest, earth, heard, hearse, learn, pearl become CS erl, erly, ern (cf fern), ernest (cf the name Ernest), erth (cf berth), herd, herse (cf verse), lern (cf tern), perl (cf French perle).

A.2.4 EA > E pronounced as long A
A.2.4.1 -EA- > -E-: break > brek  More controversial than the above EA > E cuts are three words with EA pronounced as AY: break, great, steak (also biblical yea and some Irish names such as Reagan, Shea, Yeats). CS can cut the A and write brek, gret, stek (cf French biflek, Italian bistecca for beefsteak); but some writers may prefer the TO forms, although they misleadingly suggest that break/beak, great/eat rhyme. CS asks not whether brek, gret, stek are ideal spellings, but whether they offer a sufficient improvement on break, great, steak to justify cutting the A. Is it better for great to appear to rhyme with bet (whose vowel is phonetically closer) or with beat? CS writes brekfast in any case by Rule A.2.3.1. This Handbook will henceforth use the phonetically closer, more economical forms without A, but a sounder, if more radical, solution (not proposed for CS) would be to respell these words with another vowel digraph;
possibilities include replacing the A by I to give *breik, steik, greit (cf TO eight, freight, weight which become CS eit, weit, freit), or else reversing the EA with the digraph AE to give *braek, graet, staek, or else (visually more disturbing than EI or AE) using the common TO digraph AI to give *braik, grait, staik.

A.2.4.2 -EAR > -ER: pear > per Especially confusing in TO are the tear words, of which five (bear, pear, swear, tear, wear) conflict with the standard pronunciation of the rest (appear, clear, dear, drear, ear, fear, gear, hear, near, rear, shear, smear, speer, tear, year), with tear itself pronounced either way according to meaning (contrast teardrop, wear & tear). These can be distinguished in CS by cutting the A from the anomalous five (ber, per, swer, ter, wer). Some users feel that bear etc should not appear to rhyme with her, and the merger of TO wear/were as CS wer may seem even more questionable; but in some accents bear, her rhyme anyway, and the merged CS form ther for TO their/there (cf E.1.3, I.1.4) establishes a coherent set of words with this pattern of symbol-sound correspondence. This regularity is recommended as economical and much preferable to the irregularity of TO. More radical would be to use TO their as a model and respell the bear-group as beir, peir, sweir, teir, but TO wear respelt as weir would conflict with TO weir; another radical alternative would be to write baer, paer, swaer, taer, waer (cf A.1.2, aerial), but such forms are not proposed for CS.

A.3 -OA- > -O-

A.3.1 broad > brod Just as CS recommends cutting the TO spellings break, great, steak to brek, gret, stek to give a less anomalous but still imperfect spelling, so it can cut the A in broad which in TO suggests a rhyme with road. Clearly the A is anomalous, but it may be objected that CS brod is no better, as it falsely appears to rhyme with rod. Arguments in favour of brod are: O often has the AW value (eg, as before R in or, bore, story and in some accents before other letters too — Scots pronounce cot as caught, offal as awful, and some speakers give the O in lost, off, ought the same value as in broad), and the OA of broad is phonetically closer to the O of rod than to the OA of road anyway. As with brek etc, we must ask not whether brod is an ideal spelling, but whether it is better than broad. With A, broad is uniquely anomalous and inevitably leads to mispronunciation by foreign speakers; without A, brod conforms to some existing patterns and is more economical; it is therefore recommended for CS.

A.3.2 -OAL > -OL? An O before L is widely pronounced long (bold, bolt, soldier, control), and this model might enable coal, foal, goal, shoal to cut A, giving *col, *fol etc (cf U.3.3 for TO soul cut to CS sol, also W.2 for TO bowl cut to CS bol and E.1.1.8.2 for objections to cutting dole, mole, pole, sole, vole to *dol etc; droll, roll, stroll etc become drol, rol,
Historically there has been much uncertainty over these patterns, with coal/cole formerly alternative spellings. Yet although cutting A in -OAL would help align the TO variants foal, pole, roll, soul, bowl, there are difficulties: TO col, doll (CS dol) with short O show a different sound-symbol correspondence, and -ING forms such as coaling might be unrecognizable as *colng. It is therefore recommended that when TO represents the long value of O with the pattern OAL or with ‘magic’ E, no cut should be made, so that TO coal, pole and parallel spellings are unchanged, although soul, bowl, roll etc are cut. A more radical reform than CS might, however, suggest the unambiguous ‘German’ digraph OH for the long O here, giving cohl, pohl, sohl, bohl, etc.

A.3.3 -OAR > -OR: coarse > corse  CS can cut A from words containing OAR by deeming them to have the vowel sound of OR: oar, board, coarse, hoarse are then written or, bord, corse, horse. However, pronunciation varies, and some users may prefer to keep or/oar, horse/hoarse, coarse/course etc distinct.

A.3.4 LOATH > LOTH: loathe > lothe  CS cuts A from loath, loathe by analogy with loth, both, clothe to give loth, lothe.

A.4 -ICALLY > -ICLY: basically > basicly  In TO most adjectives ending in -IC add -ALLY to form their adverbs (basic > basically). However, public does not do so, and final CS adopts the pattern of publicly for the TO -ICALLY words too, giving basically, chronicly, domesticly, enthusiastically etc. In fact, after CS Rule 2 has harmonized endings as in musical, simple to give musicl, simpl, CS aligns several variant patterns by which TO forms adverbs (TO publicly, basically, musicly, simply); the CS rule is that adverbs are formed by adding -LY to the adjective (or just -Y if the adjective already ends in -L), giving CS publicly, basicly, musicly, simply (final E is still dropped as in TO: noble > nobly). In this section of Chapter 3 adverbs based on -IC words will henceforth be written -ICLY (basicly), but -AL words will still write their adverbs -ALLY (eg, naturally, normally) until Rule 2 (Category 1, 1.1.L.A) is applied, giving natrly, normly; Rule 3 (5.2.1.L.L) then simplifies the LL to give CS natrly, normly, to achieve final, full alignment with publicly.

A.5 Miscellaneous: cocoa > coco  The letter A in aisle, ay, aye, beauty, cocoa, quay is anomalous and is cut (isle, y, beauty, coco, quay, though final CS makes further cuts in some of these). CS also prefers the shorter form bazar to its longer TO alternative bazaar, and if we pronounce restaurant with only two syllables, we can cut the AU to give restrant. TO carriage, marriage align with TO vestige without A, as carrige, marrige. The common American reduction of toward(s) to a single syllable could suggest a CS form tord(s).
Redundant B

B.1 Short vowel +MB > +M: dumb > dum  Silent final B occurs in a number of words after a short vowel +M, with the B in those marked † below inserted by analogy although never pronounced and etymologically unfounded: aplomb, bomb, crumb† (Samuel Johnson’s 1755 dictionary gave crum as an alternative to crumb), dumb, jamb, lamb, limb†, numb†, plumb, succumb, thumb†. CS writes these words with final M: aplom, bom (cf from), crum, dum (cf sum; TO already has dumfound and dummy without B), plum (cf Welsh plwm ‘led metal’) etc. But B must be kept in bombard, crumble etc, where it is pronounced. Parallel forms ending in M (ram, dim etc) double the M before -ING in TO (ramming, dimming), but by CS Rule 2 merely add -NG (ramng, dimng); the same pattern applies after the loss of final B in verbs ending in TO -MB, giving bomng, lamng, plumng, succumng, thumng. (For further discussion of this question, see Rule 2, §2.NG on cutting -ING, and Rule 3, §3.2 on simplifying doubled consonants.)

B.2 -BT > -T: debt > det  Silent, medial B occurs in debt, doubt, subtle, although these words were earlier written without B. CS writes: det (cf French dette, and rhyming let), dout (cf French doute, and rhyming out) and (after applying Rule 2) sul.

B.3 No cut in long vowel +MB: comb  When final -MB follows a long vowel as in climb, comb, tomb, womb, CS keeps the silent B, as it has the same function as ‘magic’ E. Thus tomb is not cut to *tom, nor must climb appear to rhyme with him. Respelling, perhaps as clym, cohm (or coam), toom, woom (or even tuum, wuum, or twm, wwm), would resolve the problem, but such radical changes are not envisaged for CS (see Chapter 6, §1.3.2 for further discussion of clym for climb).

Redundant C

C.1 -CK > -K: see Rule 3  Although the C in CK is effectively redundant and so normally cut, the CK digraph will be treated as a doubled consonant, equivalent to CC or KK, and its loss of C is therefore discussed in Section 3 of this chapter, under Rule 3, along with the simplification of all other doubled consonants.

C.2 -CQ- > -Q-: acquit > aquit  Redundant C occurs in the digraph CQ (acquaint, acquiesce, acquire, acquit, lacquer), and cutting then produces aquaint (cf aquatic), aquiesce, aquire (cf aquiline), aquit (and, after other cuts, laqr). See also Rule 3 (§4.1, Note 3).

C.3 SC- > S-: descend > desend  After S, the letter C is often redundant before E, I, Y (in scent, scissors, scythe it was even inserted without etymological justification): adolescent, ascetic, descend (contrast
descant, disciple (contrast disco), miscellaneous, muscle (despite muscular; but cf mussel), nascent, scene, scent, sceptre (contrast sceptic, septic), science, scissors, scythe, viscera. CS writes aetic, desend, disiple, nasent, sene, sent, sience, sythe (and, after other cuts, adlesnt, mislaneus, musl [for both muscle, mussel], septr, sisrs, visra). But after a short stressed vowel and immediately before another vowel letter, as in resuscitate and in words ending in -SCE (eg, TO acquiesce, coalesce, effervesce, reminisce), the C is needed, exactly as SS is in these circumstances (see Rule 3, §2.4SS) — such forms as *coales or *reminise would be quite misleading. (After Rule 2 has introduced a following consonant, the C can be cut in the normal way, giving final CS adlesnt, aquiesnt, coalesd, remnisng.)

C.4 SCH > SH: schist > shist In various (often German or Yiddish) words with initial SCH- pronounced as SH, the C can be cut, giving eg, meershaum, shist, shmaltz, shnapps, shnitzel, shwa, unless priority were given to retaining the international spelling of such words. Schedule has the problem that it would become shedule by British pronunciation, but scedule by American pronunciation as recommended by Noah Webster; for the sake of uniformity it is therefore recommended the initial SCH- of schedule be left uncut (cf O.4.2 for a similar Anglo-American dilemma over TO route). (See E.1.1.8.3 for cutting to schedul.) Schism could be cut to sism, shism or scism, according to an agreed pronunciation.

C.5 -XC- > -X-: except > exept Cutting C in exceed, excel, except, excerpt, excess, excise, excite produces CS exeed, exel, exept, exerpt, exess, exise, exite. It may be objected that the C here serves to show that the X is pronounced as voiceless /ks/, rather than as voiced /gz/ (except/exempt for instance often contrast voiceless/voiced X); but voicing is already so variable without C in TO (execute may have voiceless X, but in executor the X may be voiced) that cutting C after EX- may be seen rather as a helpful simplification. Furthermore, morphemic S was lost after X in Latin before the pattern entered English and is therefore not found in exist (despite consist, persist, resist etc), expect (despite aspect, inspect, respect), expatiate (despite spatial), expire (despite conspire, inspire, perspire, respire), extinguish, exert (contrast desert), exude, exult (contrast insult, result), and by this analogy CS need not keep C in exite (despite incite, recite etc) either. The final CS form of TO excellent is exlnt. See also Rule 3 (§4.1, Note 3).

C.6 Silent C is cut from victuals, yacht (final CS vitls, yat). The alternative TO form tsar is preferred to czar, as better indicating the sound and as a more exact transcription of the Russian spelling.

C.7 Retaining C as SH: conscience > concience In a number of words C is associated with S, together representing the sound of SH, and the possibility can be considered of cutting either S or C from TO conscience, conscious, crescendo, fascist, fuchsia, luscious. Since C already has the value
of SH in some words (eg, ocean, musician, ancient, suspicion, delicious),
that might be regarded as another standard value of C, perhaps with a view
to a longer term reallocation of the values of C which could transfer its two
main values to K and S and keep SH as its sole unambiguous value (steps in
this direction are taken under C.8, C.9, below; see also Chapter 6, §1.3.2).
See under S.5 for discussion of the CS cut of S from conscience, conscious, etc.

C.8 S preferred to C: defence > defense When alternative (often
American) forms use S, CS prefers them to forms with C: defense (cf also
French défense), license, mortise, offense (cf French offense), practise (for
TO practice, but with final CS practis), pretense; earlier expence is now
expense in TO. We may, however, hesitate in the case of American vice for
British vice (the tool), insofar as it conflicts with the voiceless/voiced C/S
alternation of advice/advise, etc.

C.9 K preferred to C: disc > disk CS prefers unambiguous (often
American) K to ambiguous C where alternative forms with K already exist in
TO: ankylosis, disk, leukemia, mollusk, skeptic rather than ankylosis, disc,
leuchaemia, mollusc, sceptic.

C.10 -CTI- or -XI-: connection or connexion? For discussion of
the -CTI-/XI- alternatives, see X.

C.11 Silent ‘magic’ C retained: indict Silent C has a ‘magic’,
lengthening effect on the preceding I in indict, and would have to be kept,
unless the word were respelt indyt (perhaps by extending the IG > Y
substitution rule explained in Chapter 4 and also discussed in Chapter 6,
1.3.2). TO indite has a different meaning.

Redundant D

D.1 -DG- > -J-: see Chapter 4 The digraph -DG- serves as a kind
of doubled soft G after a short vowel (badge, ledge, bridge, lodge, budge,
gadget, porridge, dodgem, cudgel, judgment). However, if soft G is always
spelt J in CS (see Chapter 4), the D is redundant and can be cut, resulting
(after other cuts) in baj, lej, brij, loj, buj, gajet, porij, dojm, cujl, jujmnt.
Until J is substituted for DG, the D will be kept in this digraph.

D.2 ADJ- > AJ-: adjust > ajust In initial ADJ- (adjacent, adjective,
adjoin, adjourn, adjudicate, adjust, adjutant) the sound of the D is already
represented in the following J (as shown by the phonetic representation of
the sound as /dʒ/), and is cut to give ajacent, ajective, ajoin, ajourn,
adjudicate, ajust, ajutant (cf ajar). French, it will be noted, already uses the
forms: ajourner, ajuster. See also Rule 3 (§4.1, Note 3).
D.3 -D- beside -N-: handkerchief > hankerchief In a few words (handkerchief, handsome, sandwich, Wednesday) D is commonly unpronounced next to N and can then be cut, giving hankerchief, hansome, sanwich, wenesday (final CS hankrchief, hansm, wensday).

Redundant E,
the most commonly cut letter when converting TO to CS, may occur in final position (discussed in Subsection 1, below), in medial, or, occasionally, initial position (Subsection 2), and in inflections (Subsection 3).

E.1 Redundant final E
E.1.1 After consonants.
E.1.1.1 the > th The economy of writing the most common word in English as th is attractive, but the reduction tends to grate with new readers of CS, and some users feel that its pronunciation demands E. However, if sea, see, key etc are cut to se, se, ke (see A.2.1, E.1.2.1, Y.2), it would be useful for th/be not to suggest a rhyme, as be/the misleadingly do in TO. It is worth recalling that in 16th century writing an phrase such as TO the other could be compressed to thether.

E.1.1.2 TO alternatives: axe > ax Some alternative spellings with and without final E are already found in TO, th shorter form especially in America. Where TO may write axe, adze, caviare, Cypriote, preterite, ptomaine, sty (cf E.1.2.5), CS prefers ax (American; cf tax), adz (American), caviar, Cypriot, preterit, ptomain, sty. Similarly CS prefers American program to programme, and would prefer th SS endings of carcass, premis to th alternatives with final E (carcase, premise), if E.1.1.13 below did not align these words with canvas (carcas, premis).

E.1.1.3 O with short U-value + consonant +E: come > com Words having O with a short U-value lose misleading final E: com, som (cf company, home), don, non (cf son), dov, glv, lov (contrast move, drove). Words ending in suffix -SOME (eg, awsome) similarly lose this E (final CS awsm).

E.1.1.4 -FE > -F: carafe > caraf This ending occurs in carafe, giraffe, wich ar cut to caraf, giraff (final CS jiraf).

E.1.1.5.1 -DGE > -DG > -J: see Chapter 4 (See D3 and Chapter 4 for DG > J substitution.) Redundant -E is cut after DG as in badge, ledge, bridge, lodge, judge, knowledge, porridge (cf TO Bridgnorth, acknowledgment, judgment with DG without following E).

E.1.1.5.2 -GE > -J: see Chapter 4 If, as is suggested in Chapter 4, CS always substitutes J for soft G, final -E is cut from word-final TO -GE, unless it has ‘magic’ function indicating a preceding long vowel.
Final -E is therefore kept in *waje*, *enraje*, *besieje*, *oblje*, *huje* etc, but cut from words such as *language*, *village*, *privilege*, *vestige*, giving *languaj*, *villaj*, *privilej*, *vestij* (final CS *beseje*, *vilaj*, *privlej*).

**E.1.1.6 -GUE > -G: league > leag** Several polysyllabic words ending in British TO -OGUE are written just -OG in America and therefore also in CS: *analog*, *catalog*, *demagog*, *dialog*, *epilog*, *monolog*, *pedagog*, *synagog*, etc. Similarly, *league*, *colleague*, *meringue*, *tongue* become *leag*, *colleag*, *mering*, *tong* (ambiguity between TO *tongs/tongues*, both spelt *tongs* in CS, would be clarified by the context). Final (‘magic’) -E is not cut when the preceding vowel has long value, as in *vague*, *fatigue*, *intrigue*, *vogue*, *fugue*, although respelling of soft G with J (see Chapter 4) can allow the U to be cut (see U.2.1), giving CS *vage*, *fatige*, *intrige*, *voge*, *fuge* (contrast soft G respelt J in CS *paje*, *prestije*, *oblje*, *huje*).

**E.1.1.7 Consonant +LE > consonant +L: little > littl** Unless the final -E is ‘magic’, indicating that the preceding vowel is long, CS cuts it in this position, giving *eatabl*, *edibl*, *solubl*, *doubl*, *uncl*, *tickl*, *beadl*, *paddl*, *muffl*, *eagl*, *toggl*, *principl*, *appl*, *steepl*, *wrestl*, *beetl*, *littl*, *dazzl* (preceding double consonants in these words are subsequently simplified by Rule 3). But the long A, I, U in *able*, *maple*, *bible*, *rifle*, *noble*, *scruple* etc require the ‘magic’ -E to be kept, as does the long E in CS *peple*. Final syllabic -L will at first seem strange in English, but examples of its use elsewhere may reassure: it is seen in some German forms (eg, *dirndl*, *Lendl*), in Welsh (eg, *trestl*, *posibl*), in Old English (Anglo-Saxon *aepl* ‘apple’) and in various other languages such as Arabic and Icelandic. The use of final syllabic -L provides a model for cutting many other endings under Rule 2, as when TO *apple/chapel*, *principal/principle* align as *appl* (by Rule 3 CS *apl*/chapl and *principl*).

**E.1.1.8 Vowel +-LE > vowel +-L**

**E.1.1.8.1 -ILE > American -L: virile > viril** Those (eg, Americans) who pronounce *hostel/hostile*, *missal/missile* alike, and give the same ending to *agile*, *docile*, *fertile*, *fragile*, *futil*, *infantile*, *juvenile*, *mobile*, *servile*, *sterile*, *tactile*, *tensile*, *textile*, *virile*, *versatile*, *volatile*, etc may wish to cut final -E from such words (cf *fossil* as earlier spelling of *fossil*), giving *agil*, *docil*, *fertil*, *fragil*, *futil*, *hostil*, *infantil*, *juvenil*, *missil*, *mobil*, *servil*, *steril*, *tactil*, *tensil*, *textil*, *viril*, *versatil*, *volatil*. (By Rule 2, many of these words lose -I- as well, giving eg, CS *fertl*, *infantl*, *servl*, *versatl*, etc.) These cuts are unlikely to appeal to speakers with British pronunciation, for whom the final syllable of these words rhymes with *mile*.

**E.1.1.8.2 -OLE not cut to -OL: pole** See A.3.2 above for discussion of the possible reduction of the patterns in TO *coal*, *pole*, *roll*, *soul*, *bowl* to the minimal -OL pattern, as in *control*. It is there explained why the pattern of *dole*, *mole*, *pole*, *role*, *sole*, *vole* should not lose final -E.
E.1.1.8.3  -ULE > -UL: module > modul  Th broadly similar pronunciation of words ending in -UAL (actual, etc) and -ULE (module, etc) can be shown in CS by cutting both endings to -UL, giving modul and by Rule 2 (§1.6.3 etc) actul. Other -ULE endings occur in TO globule, ridicule, schedule, which then become CS globul, ridicul, schedul. TO annul* is the only polysyllabic form already ending in -UL, and it remains anomalous — see Rule 2, §1.6.3.XV.3.XUL.

E.1.1.9  -NE > -N: destine > destin  Words with final -INE sounded as -IN such as TO destine, determine, discipline, doctrine, engine, examine, famine, feminine, genuine, heroine, intestine, jasmine, masculine, medicine, urine lose the -E, giving destin, determin, disiplin, doctrin, engin (cf French engin), examin, famin, feminin (cf French féminin), genuin, imagin, heroin, intestin, jasmin (cf French jasmin), masculin (cf French masculin), medicin, urin; these forms then match their rhymes assassin, bumpkin, catkin, coffin, cousin, dolphin, margin, origin, penguin, resin, robin, virgin, etc and are distinguished from words with long I such as define, supine etc. (Many words of the destin type also lose their I by Rule 2, eg, final CS destin.) Where the I has long ‘continental’ value as in machine, routine etc, final -E is not cut, though especially in the case of chemical substances the pronunciation may vary — TO glycerine, for instance, may rhyme with either machine or with medicin, and CS then prefers the shorter value for its more economical spelling. Redundant final -E also occurs in a few monosyllables after N: in addition to don, non (cf E.1.1.3 above), the past tense of shine loses its -E, turning TO shone into CS shon (cf on, tone).

E.1.1.10  Europe > Europ  If place-names are cut, Europe would lose final -E (cf develop).

E.1.1.11  -QUE > -Q: plaque > plaq  Unless it has ‘magic’ function, indicating a preceding long vowel (as in opaque, clique, critique, mystique, oblique, pique, physique, technique, brusque), final -E is removed from the -QUE ending, and masque, plaque, arabesque, burlesque, grotesque, picaresque, picturesque, baroque, torque, mosque become (with additional loss of silent U after Q for which see U.2.2) masq, plaq, arbesq, burlesq, grotesq, picaresq, picturesq, baroq, mosq. For British barque, cheque, CS bark, chek, see under Q.

E.1.1.12  -RE > -R

E.1.1.12.1  Ar, wer, wher  These very common words have a misleading final -E which CS removes: ar (cf bar, bare), wer (cf her, here). The pronunciation of there, where can be usefully distinguished from that of here by writing ther, wher, though at the expense of an apparent rhyme with her (see under A.2.4.2 pear — per, I.1.4 their — ther for discussion of this point). CS wher already occurs in TO wherever.
E.1.1.12.2 Consonant +-RE > -E: centre > centr CS cuts final -E from the British forms calibre, centre, goitre, manoeuvre, meagre, reconnoitre, septre (TO sceptre), sombre, spectre, theatre giving calibr, centr, goitr, meagur, manoeuvr, reconnoitr, sept, sombr, spectr, theatr. (If the final -E has a ‘magic’ function, indicating a preceding long vowel, the TO form is not cut: acre, fibre, litre, lucre, mediocre, metre, mitre, ochre, ogre, sabre, saltpetre.) Forms such as CS centr overcome the American-British discrepancy between the spellings center/centre, since the equivalent American forms with -ER also lose the E; but this occurs by Rule 2, not Rule 1 as here, and is explained in Section 2 of this chapter.

E.1.1.12.3 -IRE > -IR: Cheshire > Cheshir If shire names are not pronounced with long I, the final -E may be cut: Cheshir.

E.1.1.12.4 -ORE > -OR: before > befor Final -ORE loses -E in adore, before, bore, core, deplore, explore, fore, ignore, more, ore, sore, store, swore, tore, whore (cf for, abhor), giving CS ador, befor, bor, cor, deplor, explor, for, ignor, mor, or, sor, stor, swor, tor, whor. Th E is similarly cut before suffixes, as in CS adord, explorr, ignorng (see Rule 2 for these forms). Th reduction of the prefix fore- to for- overcomes the uncertainty surrounding the spelling of forgo/forego. For some speakers, notably Scottish, the loss of this final -E may disturb if their pronunciation distinguishes short O in or (giving it the same value as in off) and long O in more, giving it the same value as in mole. Here, as elsewhere, CS proposes that the standard spelling should represent the simplest common denominator among current pronunciations.

E.1.1.12.5 -URE > -UR: nature > natur Unstressed -URE, as in exposure, figure, injure, lecture, leisure, mesure, nature, picture, pressure, procedure, seizure, tenure, tresure, verdure etc, loses final -E, giving CS exposur, figur, injur, lectur, leisur, mesur, natur, pictur, pressur, procedur, seizur, tenur, tresur, verdur etc. (See Rule 2 for forms such as figr, lecturr, mesurng.) However, when final -URE is stressed with the -E effectively having ‘magic’ function, it is not cut and CS keeps the TO form of endure, manure, mature, secure etc. CS brochur implies first syllable stress.

E.1.1.13 Retaining or cutting -SE: tense, practis CS normally keeps final -E after voiceless S to avoid confusion with voiced inflectional -S; dense, tease etc are thus not cut to dens, teas (cf retention of final -SS by Rule 3, §1.7 & 2.4.SS). Before a suffix beginning with a consonant, the E can be cut, so CS rites else, but elswher. Various disyllabic words with stress on the first syllable and voiceless S lose final E by analogy with TO atlas, tennis, giving carcass, practis (for TO practice as well as practise; cf Welsh practis), premis, promis, purchas, purpos, porpois, tortois; these endings then align usefully with simplified -SS forms like CS compas, trespas (see Rule 3, §1.7.SS), and contrast with the different letter
values of forms retaining -SE, like erase, surprise, suppose, turquoise, etc. Th TO alternatives carcass, premiss for carcase, premise wer discussed under E.1.1.2 above; for TO cheese, geese (CS chese, gese), see E.2.1.3 below. A particular anomaly is whose, which as a possessive, comparabl to hers, its, ours, thers, yours (see Chapter 5 for possesive apostrophe), is cut to whos (final CS hos). French final -SSE with stressed final syllable is cut to -SS, giving finess, largess, lacross, as well as mouss.

E.1.1.14  -TE > -T: opposite > opposit Final vowel +TE loses -E exect when th -E is ‘magic’, indicating a preceding long vowel. This enables CS to distinguish nouns/jectives such as appropriat, delegat, graduat, immediat from corresponding verbs such as to appropriate, to delegate, to graduate, to mediate on the other, and likewise many other such pairs. Similarly CS distinguishes definit, infinit (final CS defnit, infnit) from finite, and aligns opposit with deposit (formerly spelt deposite). Minut (= 60 seconds) is distinguished from th ajective minute (= ‘very small’).

E.1.1.15  -VE > -V: give > giv Words ending in th sound /v/ usually have a following silent and (unless ‘magic’) redundant final -E in TO. If th -E is not needed to show a preceding long vowel (as in save, eve, alive, move, rove), CS cuts it, as in som very common words such as hav (cf lav, save), giv, liv (cf spiv, dive), as well as in siev (for loss of medial E to give final CS siv, E.2.1.4 below), and in many words ending in TO -LVE, -RVE, such as salv, twelv, solv, starv, serv, curv. TO mauve is cut to CS mauv. Particularly common ar words ending in -IVE: activ, subversiv, oliv. If th A in TO octave is deemed not to hav long value, CS can write octav. Th loss of -E in hav means that contracted forms such as TO I’ve, we’ve, you’ve, they’ve becom CS I’v, we’v, you’v, they’v. Th plural of leaf, sheaf, elf, loaf, thief, wolf, half, self, shelf becomes CS leavs, sheavs, els, loavs, thievs, wolvs, halvs, selvs, shelvs (cf A.2.2.4). Sleeve, however, keeps its final -E, being cut to sleve to align with eve, leve, receive, beleve (cf A.2.2.4 for leve, I.1.3 for receive, beleve).

E.1.1.16  -WE > -W: ewe > ew Ewe rhymes with few and loses final -E, to giv CS ew. Likewise TO owe loses final -E to becom ow (in final CS th rebus I.o.u. represents th full spelling, and no longer requires full-stops).

E.1.1.17 French final -E: brunette > brunett A dilemma is posed by som French loans, wher final -E may hav a function not otherwise found in English. Thus in brunette, cigarette, pipette, vignette th typically French suffix -ETTE indicates a stressed final syllabl, and it may be felt that both as a stress-marker and for th sake of international compatibility this ending should not be cut. However, forms such as cadet, minuet, quartet and th American alternativ spelling cigaret can serv as models for such a cut with final stressed syllabl, giving (with TT simplified by Rule 3) brunet, pipet, vignet (similarly CS gavot from TO gavotte). (It
would, however, also be possible to indicate the stress pattern by retaining the TT, as in the German Quartett.) On the other hand, CS keeps final -E from French loans such as collage (final CS colaje), so that they may be distinguished from the ending of village, etc. More problematic are British-American moustache: mustache, in that the final -E may be felt to signal the special value of the CH, pronounced as SH, although this symbol-sound correspondence does not occur in final position in TO. CS here takes economy as its first priority and writes mustach, although the value of the -CH is then non-standard.

E.1.2 Redundant final -E after vowels.

E.1.2.1 Monosyllabic -EE > -E: fee > fe Th TO forms be, he, me, she, we show that rhyming monosyllables such as bee, fee, knee, lee, pee, see, tee can be cut to consonant +E: be, fe, kne (final CS ne), le, pe, se, te (cf A.2.1 for sea > se etc, and for objections to these cuts; note here the peculiarity of TO foresee > CS forse; see also Y.2 for key > ke). Some parallel forms occur in the Scandinavian languages: se ‘see’, in Norwegian kne ‘knee’. Polysyllabic words such as agree, pedigree, committee cannot lose final E (the contrast between acre, ogre, agree needs to be shown in the spelling), although there is a group of polysyllabic Greek-derived words (eg, acme, catastrophe) which do use single final -E with roughly the same value.

E.1.2.2 Final -IE remains -IE: die Unlike O, U and (in monosyllables) E, final -I does not normally have long value (as in like); its value in forms such as fungi, alibi and the names of the Greek letters xi, pi, phi, chi, psi is exceptional, as contrasted with its normal value in taxi, spaghetti etc. Therefore CS does not cut final -E from die, lie, pie, tie, vie. These words could be respelt dy, ly, py, ty, vy (cf Chapter 4) to match their -ING forms (dying etc), and perhaps only spelt with IE in TO to prevent two-letter content words arising; when more than one letter precedes the final vowel, TO normally uses the -Y ending (fly, shy, sky, try, reply, qualify) which are models for several new applications of Y in CS (see Chapter 4).

E.1.2.3 -OE > -O: foe > fo Words ending in -OE, pronounced long /oː/, usually cut the -E, so that TO felloe, foe, floe, mistletoe, roe, sloe, woe become fello, fo, flo, mistlto, ro, slo, wo. Exceptions (shown with a following asterisk in the dictionary) are required in the following cases to avoid ambiguity: doe* (cf TO do and CS doh for dough — see G.2.5.1), hoe* (cf TO who, CS ho), shoe* (cf TO show, CS sho), toe* (cf TO to; for the same reason TO tow cannot lose its -W — cf W.3.1). Possibly the special value of -OE (as in Dutch) in canoe*, shoe* may further justify keeping the -E in these two words.

E.1.2.4 -UE > -U: argue > argu Final -U in coypu, emu, flu, Hindu, menu, Peru shows that TO accru, ague, argue, avenue, blue, construe, continue, due, ensue, glue, hue, imbue, issue, pursue, queue, rescue, residue, retinue, revenue, revue, rue, sprue, statue, subdue, sue,
tissue, true, value, venue, virtue can lose final -E, to giv accru, agu, argu, avenu, blu, constru, continu, du, ensu, glu (cf French glu), hu, imbu, issu (cf French issu), pursu, queu (final CS qu), rescu, residu (cf French résidu), retinu, revenu (cf French revenu), revu, ru, spru, statu, su, subdu, tissu (cf French tissu), tru, valu, venu, virtu (cf French vertu). Th systematic removal of this final -E resolvs a common source of error in TO (eg, *arguement, *truely for argument, truly) by giving th base-words du, tru, argu, continu etc th same spelling as their derivativs, eg, duly, truly, argument, continuation, which alredy lack th E in TO. Se E.3.2.2 and Chapter 3 Rule 2 for inflection of -U endings with -D and -S, but -ING.

E.1.2.5  -YE > -Y: rye > ry  Such forms as by, my, sty show that final -E is redundant in bye, dye, eye, rye, giving CS by, dy, ey, ry. In TO sty is alredy an alternativ form for sty and is preferred in CS (cf E.1.1.2, Y.3). Th extension of this regularization to die, pie, tie, vie in a subsequent reform to CS is discussed in Chapter 6, §1.3.2.

E.1.2.6  -Y-E > -Y-: type > typ  CS takes several steps towards regularizing th long I-sound (as in like) by using just Y (cf Chapter 4, §5 for substitutions involving Y). One way of doing this is by cutting what looks like ‘magic’ -E after long Y: if Y by itself represents th long vowel, then a following ‘magic’ -E is redundant and can be cut. For instance, th difference in pronunciation between sty and style lies only in th L, not in th final -E, which is therfor redundant, and CS can write just styl. By th same logic, words such as TO analyze, gybe, paralyze, pyre, rhyme, thyme, type, tyre ar cut to analyz, gyb, paralyz, pyr, rhyzm (final CS rym), thym, typ, tyr. (TO scythe, CS sythe keeps final -E to show that th preceding TH is voiced, as in sooth/soothe, wreath/wreathe [CS reath/rethe]; CS sythe has th further advantage of avoiding a misleading parallel with th non-standard short valu of Y in myth, which ought ideally to be respelt mith). (cf Y.3)

E.2  Redundant medial (or initial) E
E.2.1  In vowel digraphs.
E.2.1.1  HEAR- > HAR-: hearth > harth  Th -EAR in hearken, heart, hearth misleadingly suggests th vowel of hear and is cut to -AR-, giving harken (cf hark), hart, harth.

E.2.1.2  -EAU > -AU: bureau > burau  Since th French spellings EAU, AU both hav th valu of long O (eg, mauve), th E can be cut from loanwords containing EAU, giving CS burau, buraucracy, platau. This admittedly has th disadvantage of undermining som internationally widespred forms, and furthermore AU for /o/ is not one of th standard English symbol-sound correspondences listed in Chapter 2. For beauty cut to beuty, se A.5 abov, and for th final cut to buty, se E.2.1.6 below.
E.2.1.3 -EE-E > E-E: sleeve > sleve

Just as A.2.2.2 cut TO lease, please etc to CS lese, plese (cf also A.2.2.3, giving CS brethe from TO breathe etc, and A.2.2.4, giving leve from TO leave etc), so medial -EE- is cut when a ‘magic’ -E follows to indicate the long vowel. Thus fleece, Greece, geese, cheese, seethe, sleeve, breeze, freeze are cut to CS flece, Grece (cf Grecian), gese, chese, sethe, sleve, breeze, freze (but see A.2.2.2 for discussion of advantages, disadvantages and alternatives, and cf also I.1.3 for piece, receive, believe, seize, frieze cut to pece, receve, beleve, seze, freze). Unfortunately the rules of CS do not allow any regularization of the anomalous TO forms precede, proceed, procedure (CS procedur), although harmonization either as precede, procecd, procedur or else as proceed, proceed, proceedur would be sensible.

E.2.1.4 EI, IE > I: fiery > firy, frontier > frontir

Th misleading E in height, sleight (cf high, sight, sly), fiery (cf fire, wire, wiry) and siev (cf CS liv) is cut, giving hight, slight (or better, as suggested in Chapter 4, §5, hyt, slyt), firy, siv. CS can also remove initial E- from TO eiderdown (if the loss of the initial letter is not too disturbing), and medial -E- in CS kalidoscope (but not in seismic, as *sismic would appear to have short I). Similarly, the ending of souvenir shows that courtier, frontier, chandelier, soldier, glacier, cavalier etc can be cut to courtir, frontir, chandelir, soldir, glacir, cavalir etc. This final -IR syllab also occurs in the monosyllables bier, pier, tier, which can be cut to CS bir, pir, tir (the apparent rhyme with fir, sir is regrettable, but may be compared with the apparent rhyme of TO pear, CS per with her, for discussion of which see A.2.4.2); the forms bir, pir, tir are recommended for their simplicity and economy. An exception may have to be made for weir* which if cut to *wir would merge with the final CS form of whir(r). In the following cases, EI, IE, must remain uncut: without E, field would merge with filled (CS fild), weird would appear to rhyme with bird, and conceit, deceit, receipt would appear to rhyme with tacit. Either, neither need to keep their first E- to represent their alternative pronunciations (as ‘eether’ or ‘yther’).

E.2.1.5 Yeoman > yoman

Yeoman loses E to match Roman.

E.2.1.6 EU > U: adieu > adiu

Th digraph EU can often lose E if pronounced as long U, as in adieu, amateur, grandeur, leukemia, neural, queu, rheumatism, sleuth, which give CS adiu, amatur (cf armatur, final CS amatr), grandur (cf verdur), lukemia, nural, quu (final CS qu), rhumatism (cf ruminat, and French rhumatisme), sluth (cf truth; for CS yuth, see O.4.2). Initial E- as in TO euphony, Europe might be cut, but the omission is very disturbing (*ufony, *Urop), with th U- in *Ustn for TO Euston appearing to have th short U of us; also, Europ is publicly identified with initial E. TO neutral, neuter are better cut by Rule 2, and pharmaceutical needs E to show the preceding soft C. Th words beuty, beutiful, beuteous (loss of A in TO beauty etc discussed under A.5) rhyme with TO duty etc, which shows that the E is also redundant, so that CS can write buty, butiful, buteous.
E.2.1.7 -EW > -*W: brew > *brw Th digraph -EW has at most a historical affinity with its sound value, whose standard representation would otherwise require th digraph OO or th letter U in modern English. However, th letter W might hold som potential for representing such a sound in th context of a mor radical reform than CS — se Chapter 6, §1.5 for fuller discussion of this longer-term possibility.

E.2.1.8 -EY > -Y: donkey > donky Ther is much confusion in TO between th two endings -EY, -Y, and th distinction is historically often arbitrary (eg, historically chimney, country should hav th same ending). They ar often misspelt in TO and ar somtimes alternativs, as seen in TO bogey/bogy, curtsy/curtsy, dopey/dopy, storey/story, whiskey/whisky. CS might consider keeping a ‘magic’ E to indicate a preceding long vowel, as in bogey, dopey, while not writing it in curtsy, story (alredy an American spelling for storey), whisky. However, ther ar several complications: th comparativ form of dopey/dopy is always dopier (CS dopir), never *dopeyer (th TO forms cagey/cagier ar then particularly anomalous); certain other long-vowel forms ar never written with -EY (always pony, never *poney), so a long vowel would still not be a reliabl indicator of an -EY ending; and despite a few common exeptions such as many, very, city, body, busy, TO normally distinguishes parallel short-vowel forms by doubling the preceding consonant (eg, holy/holly). Altogether therfor a lengthening ‘magic’ E befor th final -Y can generally be regarded as redundant, and CS regularly writes such words with final -Y, not final -EY, regardless of th length of th preceding vowel. Typical CS forms ar then bogy, curtsy, dopy, story, holy, holly, chimmy, donky, vally (se Chapter 3, Rule 3, §2.5.1 for retention of doubld consonants in such words) etc, and after G > J substitution (se Chapter 4) cajy/cajir. (Se E.3 for plural and past tense inflections.) By cutting E from those -EY endings, CS also removes confusion with th standard valu of final -EY in they, whey, convey, purvey, survey, which keep th E (for inveigh, se G.2.3, below).

E.2.1.9 manoeuvre > maneuvr After cutting th O from British manoeuvre (se O.2), giving maneuvr, CS has a choice between cutting th medial or th final E, one of them being needed to indicate th long U. By choosing th form maneuvr (in accordance with E.1.1.12.2, abov) rather than *manuvre with its ‘magic’ -E, CS aims to harmonize th British and American endings -VRE versus -VER. This is achieved by writing VR for both; th form *manuvre conflicts with American maneuver, but CS maneuvr dos not.

E.2.2 Ajacent to consonants.

E.2.2.1 -GE- > -J-: se Chapter 4 If CS consistently replaces soft G by J (se Chapter 4), an E serving only to indicate a preceding soft G is cut: ageing, singeing, swingeing becom aijing, sinjing, swinjing. Without this substitution ageing can still lose its anomalous E (by analogy with raging; th form aging is also found as an alternativ in TO); but singeing,
swingeing would hav to keep E to remain distinct from singing, swinging. Befor th suffix -OUS, this E can also only be cut if J is substituted for G, enabling TO advantageous, courageous, gorgeous, outrageous to becom advantajous, courajous, gorjous, outrajous.

**E.2.2.2 Medial -E- > -: every > evry** Many words ar written with a medial -E- in TO that is usually elided in speech. Som hav alredy lost th E in TO (eg, th old spellings enemity, lightening [for TO lightning], remenant, wintery; cf also American jewelry for British jewellery). A very large number of other words also lose elided medial -E- in CS, eg, boistrous, delibrat, evry, genral, opra, prepondrance, sevral, sovregn, Wensday. Many such cuts can also be listed under Rule 2, §1.3, below (eg, th perennially confusing separat, desprat, corporat cut to CS seprat, desprat, corprat, and secretary, monastery, dormitory alignd — at least for British speakers — with minstry as secretry, monastry, dormitry). Medial -E- in TO vegetable can only be cut after G > J substitution (se Chapter 4) to giv CS vejtabl.

**E.3 Redundant inflectional E** Although E in th following patterns is redundant by Rule 1, being silent and irrelevant to pronunciation, th resulting cuts also relate to Rule 2 (Category 2), which governs th omission of unstressed (ie, pronounced) vowel letters in inflections. Taken together, these cuts result in a new norm for spelling inflections in English, namely that (with a few exeptions), they ar indicated by consonants only, and not by vowel letters. For an overview of all vowel omissions in inflections, se Table 3 (Patterns of vowel cut in inflections) at th end of Chapter 3, Rule 2 (Category 2).

**E.3.1 Consonant +ED > D: washed > washd** In past tense forms of verbs whos base does not end in -T or -D, th E of th TO past tense suffix -ED is silent (it was often written with an apostrophe in th eighteenth century). Provided it does not hav ‘magic’ function, indicating a preceding long vowel (as in based, filed, hoped) and does not indicate a preceding soft C or G (as in pounced, urged), th E can be cut, giving robbd, enrichd, bridgd (by G > J substitution, brijd), roofd, soakd, peeld, dappld, roamd, paind, ringd, reapd, feard, enterd, centr, passd, wishd, mouthd, livd, cowd, taxd, replyd (se E.3.3 below and Chapter 4 for I > Y substitution), surveyd, whiz(z)d. This E can even be cut from a base-form ending in consonant +SE, as in pulsd, tensd, lapsd, nursd. But when th E is pronounced in ajectivs ending in -ED, it is kept; so CS can distinguish th verb in they lernd from th ajectiv in they ar very lerned; and verse whos rhythm requires th inflectional E to be pronounced will spell it accordingly — contrast CS “smiling, damned vilan” (verse, Hamlet), and CS “out, damd spot” (prose, Macbeth). Th possibility of also cutting this E after -D, -T, wher it is pronounced (as in needd, fittd), is discussed under Rule 2, in th next main section of this chapter.
E.3.2.1 Vowel +ED > D: taxied > taxid  Except for certain monosyllables, verbs whose base-form ends in a vowel letter add just -D for their past tense, as happens in TO with words ending in silent -E (hate/hated, budge/budgeted). CS applies this pattern after other vowels as follows: subpoena/subpenad, acne/acned, taxi/taxid, embargo/embargod, argu/argud. Some speakers object to the ending -ID in forms such as taxid on the grounds that in their speech the vowel sound in the TO past tense ending -IED has a longer value than the -ID ending of adjectives such as rapid, and that CS should therefore not merge the spelling of TO candied/candid; this objection needs to be considered together with the eyries/iris confusion mentioned under E.3.3 below. Monosyllables ending in a vowel have to add -ED: TO key+ed becomes CS ke+ed, TO glue+d becomes CS glu+ed; and those rhyming with go, such as TO crow, mow, row, snow, sow, stow become CS croed, floed, loed, moed, roed, snoed, soed, stoed. On the other hand, monosyllables rhyming with now lose the E (cowd, vowd). If the base-form retains final silent -E in CS, it is of course also retained in the past tense: hoed, shoed, toed. Exceptions have to be made with TO showed, towed (cf also E.1.2.3), which become CS showd, towd, to prevent confusion with TO shoed, toed. (See W.3 for fuller discussion of CS treatment of -OW endings.)

E.3.2.2 Vowel +ES > S: potatoes > potatos  Nouns ending in -O add just -S in CS, not -ES, to form their plurals. CS thus resolves the confusion in TO as to whether nouns ending in -O form their plurals with -ES (TO potatoes), or just -S (TO pianos), or optionally either ending (TO ghettoses, ghettos). CS writes just -S in all these cases (potatos, pianos, ghettos). Similarly, verbs ending in -O which form their present tense inflections with -OES in TO (does, goes, embargoes), lose their E to become CS dos, gos, embargos. If the base-form itself retains final silent -E in CS, it is of course retained before the -S inflection: hoes, toes, shoes. Words ending in final -U in TO (eg, emu), add -S (emus), as do words which have final -U after loss of -E in CS (continu, continu). The inflected CS form of TO argue, venue is preserved from ambiguity with Argus, Venus by being written with a small letter: argus, venus; but the plural of status dos risk confusion with status, and might therefore exceptionally remain as statues if the context were thought insufficient to distinguish the meaning.

E.3.3 -Y, -EY + -D, -S inflections: replied > replyd, pities > pitis  When final -Y, -EY with value as in reply, survey inflect, they simply add -D, -S in CS, giving replyd, replys (ie, no switch to IE as happens in TO replied, replies; see Chapter 4, §5.3, for fuller discussion of these letter substitutions), and surveyd, surveys. But when final -Y, -EY are pronounced as in TO pity, volley (which is cut to volly, as explained in E.2.1.8), their inflected forms change the -Y to -I, giving the CS inflections -ID, -IS. These patterns retain some of the complexity of TO, but also simplify. When a vowel precedes final -Y, TO usually adds -ED, -S (TO volleyed, volleys, surveyed, surveys) regardless of pronunciation; when th
preceding letter is a consonant, TO usually inflects by changing the -Y to
-IE+D, -IE+S (pitied, pities, replied, replies), although the -Y is kept when
-ING or possessive -’S is added: replying and pity’s; in addition, TO allows
expections such as the alternativ forms honied, monies from honey, money.
CS simplifies these TO variations, adding -ID, -IS whenever the final vowel is
pronounced as short I, giving such forms as citis, vollis, vollid, chimnis,
donks, pitis, pitid, honid, monid, monis. (For discussion of the possessiv -’S inflection of such words, eg, TO pity’s, see Chapter 5, §2.5.)
The possibility of confusion between plural endings with voiced S, as in pitis,
and non-inflected endings with voiceless S in such forms as practis,
bronchitis is not felt to justify retaining the E in TO pities etc (but see Chapter
6, §2.4.LT for discussion of keeping E in the plural -IES ending to avoid such
ambiguity). In general it is expected that in such cases users will recognize the
structur of base-word + inflection; but any problem perceived in the area of
final vowel + S needs to be considered in the same context as final vowel + D
(eg, the candied/candid ambiguity) mentioned under E.3.2.1 above. In non-
inflected words ending in -IES, such as rabies, series, species (CS species), the
E is kept, partly to indicate a slightly lengthened pronunciation of the last
vowel and partly to distinguish these words from inflected forms such as
taxis, pitis (otherwise rabbis/rabies risk acquiring the same spellings after
consonant simplification by Rule 3). This clarification of the rules of
inflection would then resolve that journalist’s headache, the correct plural of
TO Germany: while in TO it vacillates between Germanys and Germanies,
the full CS rules allow only Jermnis. For a simplified listing of these endings
described in this section, see Table 3 at the end of Rule 2.

Redundant F
CS rarely cuts F (though, except in off, FF is normally simplified). If F in
halfpenny is silent, it may be omitted as in TO ha’p’orth (CS hapeny); and if
F is considered silent in TO twelfth, CS may write twelth. However, as
discussed in Chapter 4, in general CS more often introduces F than it cuts it,
substituting F for GH, PH when these are so pronounced: ruf, fotografy.

Redundant G
(Se Chapter 4, §4 for CS substitution of J for soft G as in jinjer.)

G.1 Silent G

G.1.1 Final -GM > -M: diaphragm > diaphragm A number of
TO spellings contain silent G before final -M: apothegm, diaphragm, phlegm.
CS removes it, giving apothem, diaphragm, phlem. In paradigm the G
indicates the long value of the preceding I (ie, not the short value as in
cherubim), but this G can be dropped if Y is substituted for the long value of
IG, giving CS paradym (see Chapter 4, §5 for CS substitution of Y for long
IG). When the G is pronounced in derivations (eg, phlegmatic from phlegm),
it is kept in CS.
G.1.2 Initial GN- > N-: gnaw > naw  Several TO spellings (derived from various sources, native English, German, Greek, African) contain silent initial G- before N. TO gnarl, gnash, gnat, gnaw, gneiss, gnome, gnostic, gnu lose G- to become CS narl, nash, nat, naw, neiss, nome, nostic, nu. When GN- is pronounced as NY- (/nj/), as in Italian gnocchi and, medially, French cognac, poignant, writers may prefer to keep the G, both for the sake of the sound and for the sake of international compatibility.

G.1.3 Final -GN > -N
G.1.3.1 Spurious -GN > -N: foreign > forein  Silent G in TO foreign, sovereign has no etymological justification, and is cut to give forein, sovrein (the 17th century poet Milton wrote sovrán; cf also French forain, souverain).

G.1.3.2 Long vowel + -GN > -N: deign > dein  Several TO forms contain a long vowel + silent G + final -N: arraign, campaign, champagne, deign, feign, reign. Since the long vowel is otherwise indicated, CS removes the G, giving arrain, campain, champane, dein (this might be respelt to match related disdain), fein, rein.

G.1.3.3 -IGN > -Y:  see Chapter 4  In another group of TO spellings ending in -GN, a preceding long vowel is in effect indicated by the G. If ambiguity with sin is to be avoided, the G in sign cannot simply be omitted; similarly, the long I needs to be indicated in align, assign, benign, consign, design, ensign, malign, resign. Chapter 4, §5, discusses how these can be respelt alyn, asyn, benyn, consyn, desyn, ensyn, malyn, resyn, syn, as part of the rule for -IG > -Y substitution. The CS rules do not suggest how silent G could be dropped from impugn, but the form impune would show how it rhymes with tune.

G.2 GH  This digraph is perhaps the most notorious spelling anomaly of TO, as it is never pronounced according to the standard value of the letters, and is most often silent. Not merely is it esthetically grotesque, but it seriously hinders the learning process. It causes many misspellings such as figth for fight, and makes the writing of many common words unnecessarily cumbersome. Rarer words, such as hough, slough, furlough, leave many readers perplexed as to pronunciation, and non-native speakers are prone to mispronunciations such as rhyming dough with now. CS makes every attempt to remove GH altogether, but to achieve this, several strategies are needed, some going beyond simple omission (see Chapter 4 for F, Y substitutions).

G.2.1 -AIGH- > -AI-: straight > strait  CS cuts straight to strait, so removing confusion with TO strait, as in the alternative forms straightjacket/straitjacket.
G.2.2 -AUGHT > -AUT: caught > caut  In many words AUGH can be cut to AU and so more clearly show the pronunciation (cf homophones taught/laut). Thus aught, caught, daughter, distraught (unhistorical GH; cf the related distracted), fraught, haughty (another unhistorical GH, as the word derives from French haut), onslaught, naught, naughty, slaughter, taught become caut, dauter, distraut, fraught, haughty, onslaught, naut, nauty, slauter, taut. For TO draught, the alternative draft is already used in American and in some senses in British spelling, and is adopted as standard by CS. For respelling laugh, laughter as laf, laftr, see Chapter 4, §3.1.

G.2.3 EIGH > EI: eight > eit  TO eight, freight, inveigh, neigh, neighbour, sleigh, weigh, weight become CS eit, freit, invei (unless invey is preferred, to parallel convey, purvey, survey, the GH being unhistorical), nei, neibour, slei, wei, weit. (For height, sleight, see E.2.1.4 above and G.4 below). The anomalous sound-symbol correspondence of the TH in TO eighth is even more apparent in CS eith. Since English words do not normally end in -El, the forms ney, wey might be preferred to the simpler cut forms nei, wei.

G.2.4 -IGH > -Y: see Chapter 4  This proposed substitution is discussed in full in Chapter 4, §5, but cf also Y.3. The development from earlier drigh, fligh, sligh to TO dry, fly, sly (though GH survives in related drought, flight, sleight) suggests the same change for the parallel -IGH forms, many of which end in -IGHT: byt, blyt, bryt, delyt (although its GH is unhistorical, the word being related to delicious, not to light), flyt, fryt, fyt, hy, hyt, lyt, myt, nyt (for both knight, night), plyt, ryt (for both right, Wright), slyt, sprytly, sy, syt, thy (from thigh, despite ambiguity with the archaic possessive adjective thy), tyt. These forms will not be used in this Handbook until Chapter 4, §5.

G.2.5 OUGH, the most irregular use of irregular GH

G.2.5.1 -OUGH > -O: though > tho  TO borough, furlough, thorough, though become CS boro, furlo, thor, tho, some of these forms being already widely used in informal writing. To avoid confusion with the verb to do, TO dough keeps its H in CS doh (which also becomes the standard CS form for the musical note).

G.2.5.2 -OUGH > -U: through > thru  TO through becomes (after losing O — see O.4.2) CS thru — a common TO abbreviation already.

G.2.5.3 -OUGH > -OU: drought > drout  TO bough, slough (= muddy depression), sough, drought become CS bou, slou, sou (cf thou), drout. For plough, CS adopts the American (and former alternative British) spelling plow, and spellings with -OW might generally be preferred for TO bough, sough and even slough, provided TO slow became CS slo (see W.3).

G.2.5.4 OUGHT > OT: ought > ot  TO bought, brought, fought, nought, ought, sought, thought, wrought clearly contain redundant letters, but, apart from the G, it is not self-evident which should be cut. Th
forms *bot, brot, fot, ot, sot, that* are the most economical, and give the vowel the same value as in *or* and, in some accents, *off*, as well as in the proposed CS form *brod* for TO *broad* (see A.6). However, many non-Scottish speakers may dislike the implied rhyme of *ought* with *hot* and especially the merger of the pairs *not/nought, rot/wrought*. One way of avoiding these effects would be to keep the *H*, giving *boht, broht, foht, noht, roht* (or even to keep the *UH*, giving *bouht, rouht* etc); or alternatively, the fact that these words rhyme with *caught, fraught, taught* (*naught* is the US variant for *nought* already) might justify the forms *baut, braut, faut, naut, aut, raut, saut, thaut*. This Handbook and CS dictionary will, however, recommend the shortest forms *bot, brot* etc, but use the American variant *naught* as the basis for CS *naut*, rather than ambiguous *not*.

**G.2.6 -GH > -F:** se Chapter 4 In a few common words, -GH is pronounced as F, and after cutting the O or U according to pronunciation, CS changes *chough, clough, cough, enough, rough, slough* (= shed snakeskin), *tough, trough* to *chuf, cluf, cof, enuf, ruf, sluf, tuf, trof* (see O.4.3 for loss of O, U.3.3 for loss of U, Chapter 4, §3.1 for GH > F substitution).

**G.2.7 GH > K:** *hough > hok*  Hough is also spelt *hock* in TO, which CS cuts to *hok*, to match its rhymes *lok, sok* etc.

**G.2.8 GH > P:** *hiccough > hiccup*  The form *hiccough* was introduced as an alternative to *hiccup*, which was wrongly believed to derive from *cough*. CS spells it only with the original P.

**G.2.9 GH in proper names**  In proper names, GH creates even more problems for the reader than in ordinary words, giving very little idea how to pronounce such forms as *Greenhalgh, Langbaurgh, Lysaght, Houghton, Coughton*. Proper names would require a variety of changes to improve their spelling: in *Shillelagh* the GH would be omitted, in *Keighley* it would be respelt TH, and *Mexborough, Middlesbrough, Edinburgh* might all adopt the same suffix -BRO.

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**Redundant H**

**H.1 Silent H**

**H.1.1 Initial H- > -: honest > onest**  Initial H is silent in some words, and is then cut: TO *heir, honest, honour, hour* become *eir, onest* (cf Italian *onesto*), *onour, our*. Americans might wish to cut *herb* to *erb*.

**H.1.2 Consonant +H > consonant + -: exhaust > exaust**  The letter H is silent after the prefix EX-, and is then cut to give *exale, exaust, exibit, exilarate, exort, exume*. The same cut is made after T in *posthumous*,
giving postumus (this H is probably spurious anyway — se Latin postumus, German postum) and after P in shepherd, giving sheperd (that H has long been lost from th surnames Sheppard, Coward [<cow-herd] and Howard [<ewe-herd]). TO dinghy can be cut to CS dingy, since by G > J letter substitution (se Chapter 4) TO dingy becomes CS dinjy. Th H can also be cut in many place-names ending in -HAM (reducing th ending to just -M by CS Rule 2) depending on pronunciation. For instance, British Birmingham can ultimatly be cut to Birmngm, while Birmingham, Alabama could remain intact. CS can in this way clarify th pronunciation of names which ar otherwise liable to be mispronounced, for instance by cutting TO Masham/Measham to Masm/Meashm respectivly; similarly Clapm, Eltm, Granthm.

H.1.3 Final -AH > -A: cheetah > cheeta TO often spells words of Arabic, Hebrew or Indian origin with final -AH, altho som hav alternativs without H. Thus hookah, chutzpah, Deb(o)ra(h), halleluyah, Jehovah, Messiah, Sara(h), cheetah, howdah, veranda(h), and similarly savanna(h). CS cuts th H in all such words, giving hooka, chutzpa, Debra, halleluja (se also J), Jehovah, Messiah, Sara, cheeta, howda, veranda.

H.2 Redundant H in digraphs Th letter H is widely used in digraphs in English, and is not redundant in CH as in chew, SH as in she, nor in TH as in this and thin. However, when CH has th valu of K, and after many other consonants, th H is often redundant and can be cut.

H.2.1 ‘Greek’ CH > often C: chaos > caos This CH, when used to transcribe th Greek letter chi ( ), is pronounced as K in English, and for this purpos dos not in itself require th H. So TO chaos, character, chorus, chrysalis, ochre, psychology, school, scholar, stomach, technical etc, becom caos (Italian/Spanish caos), caracter (French caractère), corus, crysalis, ocre (French ocre), psycology, scool, scolar, stomac, tecnicl. Ambiguity arises with coir, as th CS form of choir (historically spelt quire), tho TO coir is rare enuf for this perhaps not to matter. It will be noticed that CS cuts th spurious H from th musical term chord, so restoring th link with th related concord, discord etc. However, since befors E, I, Y th letter C is normally pronounced as S in English, CS dos not cut th H befors those front vowels. For instance, altho th H in TO architect, monarchical appears misleading when set beside archbishop, cut forms such as *arcitect, *monarcical appear misleading without H (*monarcical appears to rhym with farcical). And while H in TO bacchanal, monarch, stomach can be cut to giv baccanal, monarc, stomac, an awkward inconsistency arises from th need to retain H in derivativs such as bacchic, monarchy, stomachic. Likewise, altho TO psychology can be lose H to becom psycology, TO psyciatry must keep its H. Similar considerations apply to Italian loans, since Italian uses H after C specificly to show its valu as K befors front vowels; for this reason CS cannot cut H in, for instance, chiarosceuro, chianti.
(even if it were thought justifiable to flout the international spelling standards such words represent). On the other hand, in both ‘Greek’ and ‘Italian’ words, the combination SCH is less subject to the above restriction. Since CS has already cut redundant C from TO forms like scent, scene, sceptre, science, scythe (see C.3), but keeps it in sceptic (the preferring American skeptic), such forms as CS sceme, scerzo, scizoid from TO scheme, scherzo, schizoid appear acceptable. In the long term, the only simple, global solution to the problems of CH pronounced as K is wholesale respelling, using the letter S always for soft C, and K for hard C, so producing contrasts like farsikal/monarkikal. However, such changes go well beyond what is envisaged for CS, though their potential is discussed in Chapter 6.

H.2.2 Other CHs: yacht > yat Th sixteenth century spelling ake was respelt ache (as explained in Samuel Johnson’s Dictionary) in the mistaken belief it should contain a ‘Greek’ CH. Clearly CS cannot cut this H if confusion with TO ace is to be avoided, and the long-term solution to this unique anomaly would be to restore traditional English ake. By contrast, dachshund, fuchsia are of German origin, but since English pronunciation so distorts the sound value of the consonant strings involving C (CHSH, CHS), the Hs have become redundant, and final CS can write dacsnd, fucia. Dutch-derived yacht loses both C (cf C.5) and H, giving CS yat, which ceases to be a unique spelling and matches the symbol-sound correspondence of what, squat, swat.

H.2.3 GH > G: ghost > gost As a native English digraph, the GH in words such as weigh, through, cough is removed in CS; see G.2 above for simple omission, and Chapter 4, §3, for substitution by F. However, GH also occurs initially in a small group of spellings which it is believed Caxton’s Dutch compositors imported from their own language in the 15th century: ghastly, gherkin, ghost; these all lose H in CS, to give gasty, gerkin, gost. Italian uses H after G before E, I to indicate the hard value of the G, a device found occasionally in loan words in English such as ghetto, spaghetti; but since H does not have this hardening function in English and the hard-soft ambiguity of G is removed in final CS by G > J substitution anyway (see Chapter 4, §4), this Italian H can also be cut in CS, giving getto, spagetti. (See H.2.1 above for the reason why the same cut of hardening H cannot be made in ‘Italian’ CH in words like chianti.)

H.2.4 PH > F ‘Greek’ PH can be replaced by F in CS. See also P.7 and Chapter 4, §3.

H.2.5 RH > R: rhythm > rythm ‘Greek’ RH is cut to R, producing rapsody, retoric, rumatism, rinoceros, rododendron, rubarb, rym, rythm, hemorrage, catarr, myrr (cf Italian rapsodia, retorica, reumatico, rinoceronte, rima, ritmo etc; similarly in Spanish, Portuguese and the Scandinavian languages).
H.2.6  TH > T: thyme > tym  CS cuts H from Thames, thyme, giving Tames (cf French Tamise; final CS Tams), tym.

H.2.7  WH- > W-: which > wich  Many learners find it hard to distinguish initial WH- and W- (typical misspellings ar *whent, *wether, *whorthwile), altho in som accents a distinction is herd, with WH- voiceless and aspirated as /hw/, but W- voiced and non-aspirated. In view of this confusion, and applying its customary principal of opting for th most economical spelling that represents a common pronunciation, CS ceses to distinguish WH-, W-, and normally cuts th H wherever th preceding W is pronounced. (Th H is of course kept wen pronounced as in who, whom, whose, whole, whooping, whore. In these words it is th W that is cut, giving ho, hos, hom, hole, hooping, hor. Se W.1.1.) Cutting H in WH givs th following spellings for th caracteristic grammatical words: wat, wen, wence, wether, wich, wile, wy. Users may, however, hesitate about reducing TO were/where to th same CS form wer (giving rise to such phrases as wer wer you?), altho in som accents TO where/were ar homophones. In this Handbook and th CS dictionary th H will be kept in th unique CS form wher (se E.1.1.12.1 for further discussion of this point). Other forms resulting from th loss of this H include wack, wale, warf, weat, weedl, weel, welk, welp, werry, wet, wey, weze, wiff, Wig, wilst, wim, wimper, wip, wir(r) (but se E.2.1.4 for th danger of ambiguity arising from a merger with weir, if that lost its E), wirl, wisk, wisker, wisky, wisper, wist, wistl, wite, wither, wittl, wiz(z), worl. A few words spelt differntly in TO hav th same form in CS following this loss of H: whet/wet, whether/weather/wether (final CS wethr), which/witch (CS wicch), Whig/wig, while/wile. We may incidentally here note that Swedish has made a parallel cut of H, writing val ‘wale’, vete ‘weat’, vit ‘wite’ wher Danish/Norwegian still hav H in thir corresponding hval, hvede/hvete, hvid/hvit.

H.2.8  Exotic aspiration: khaki > kaki  Th letter H also occurs after various consonants to transcribe words borrowd from other languages, often to represent a phonetic aspiration that dos not occur in English. It may then be difficult to decide wether th H can be cut or not. Clearly H is necessary in th ZH digraph to transcribe Russian ; (Brezhnev, Zhivago), but it is not clear that H is needed in KH to transcribe Russian X when spelling Khrushchov, since English speakers usually pronounce th KH simply as K. Similarly many Asian and African names may be spelt with H that is not pronounced by nativ English speakers. If we consider jodhpurs, khaki as fully assimilated into th vocabulary of English, we can write jodpur, kaki (cf also French kaki); but names such as Marathi, Luthuli, Thai should perhaps keep th H to reflect their pronunciation in th language of origin, altho English speakers often mispronounce them as tho they containt th common English digraph TH.
H.3 Exceptions

For a variety of reasons, medial H before a vowel has sometimes fallen silent, although the effect of cutting it may occasionally be undesirable. In TO forehead, for instance, pronunciation with and without H is heard, but CS writes forhed to preserve the link with hed. Similarly, silent H should probably not be cut from vehement, vehicl (although Italian offers the models of veemente, veicolo), as a misleading vowel digraph would otherwise result (*veement, *veicl); furthermore, some speakers sound the H in vehicl. The alternative of replacing this H by an apostrophe (ve’ement, ve’icl) would introduce a novel element into the writing system, which CS generally tries to avoid (indeed, CS otherwise greatly reduces the TO use of apostrophes, as explained in Chapter 5, §2).

Redundant I

I.1 Medial I

I.1.1 Misleading digraphs: friend > frend Th uniquely anomalous forms friend, foreign, sovereign lose I to become frend, foren, soveren. If TO leisure is deemed to rhyme with CS plesur, its CS form will be lesur; and for American pronunciation rhyming with TO seizure, CS sezur provides a good parallel for CS lesur. TO heifer becomes final CS hefr. The forms dew, new, pew etc show I in TO view is redundant (CS vew). TO species/faeces align as CS speces/feces. Although British and American pronunciations of the first syllable of TO lieutenant differ radically, the I is redundant in both accents and therefore cut, giving lieutenant (cf German Leutnant).

I.1.2 AI-E > A-E: praise > prase TO appraise, baize, maize, malaise, migraine, moraine, plaice, praise, raise, waive indicate the long value of A twice, once with the digraph AI and again with the ‘magic’ E. In some cases the E could be cut (maiz, waiv), but elsewhere this is not possible (*plaic, *rais), and for the sake of consistency all lose I instead (although non-obvious cognate waif does provide an argument for cutting TO waive to *waiv). In this way CS aligns these forms with a commoner TO pattern (as in face, phase, gave, gaze), giving apprase, baze, malase, maze, migrane, morane, place, prase, rase (raze, also rase in TO, is only raze in CS), wave. However, the recent French loan aide loses final E, to align with aid.

I.1.3 EI-E, IE-E > E-E: receive > receve, believe > beleve These common TO patterns also indicate the long vowel twice, with the digraph EI or IE as well as ‘magic’ E, and the I can again usually be cut. TO niece, piece, besiege, liege, hygiene, receive, achieve, believe, seize, frieze then become CS nece, pece, besiege, lege, hygene, receve (cf French recevoir), acheve (cf French achever), beleve, seze, freze (cf eve, trapeze), and see A.2.2.1 for TO peace also cut to CS pece, A.2.2.3 for brethe,
A.2.2.4 for *leve, E.2.1.3 for *flece, Grece, sleve, sethe, breze, freze). It will be noted that, despite th cut of -EIVE and -IEVE to -EVE, th related nouns *conceit, *deceit, receipt (CS receit), belief cannot lose their corresponding I, since *recet, *believ would be misread with a short E. In th case of TO besiege, liege, hygiene th substitution of J for soft G (se Chapter 4, §4) givs *besij, *lej, *hijyn. If proper names ar cut, th TO alternativs Sheila/Shelagh align as CS Shela. Because of thir alternativ pronunciations, either, neither keep th EI digraph intact (but lose their second E by Rule 2); and CS ceiling similarly keeps its EI in order to cut its -ING by Rule 2. TO medieval (CS medeval) loses I to align with its cognate ryms *coeval, primeval, unless th word is analyzd as havin four syllabls with I-E in hiatus, thus medi-eval.

I.1.4  -EIR > -ER: their > ther   Cutting I in heir, their givs CS er, ther (se A.2.4.2 pear — per, E.1.3 there — ther for parallel cuts).

I.1.5  -OI- usually retaind    Th digraph OI as in join has a standard sound valu and is not normally cut. However, porpoise, tortoise ar deemd to rym with purpos rather than with noise and ar cut to CS porpos, tortos (final E here being exeptionally cut after S — se E.1.1.13 abov; cf rinoceros). TO choir dos not lose I, being deemd to rym with ‘French’ OI in th last syllabl of reservoir (CS coir; but se H.2.1 for comment on ambiguity of TO choir/coir).

I.1.6  -IU > U: juice > juce   Wen UI has th valu of long U and th syllabl ends in ‘magic’ E, th I is cut. TO juice, sluice, bruise, cruise thus becom CS juce (cf French jus), sluice, bruse, cruse (cf truce, ruse). Nuisance similrlly becomes nuisance; applying Rule 2 rather than Rule 1 would produce th alternativ *nuisnse, but (as confirmd undr Rule 2, §1.6.1.XN) th I is felt to be mor anomalous and mor troublesom than th A, and is therfor th preferrd cut. Th I must be kept in fruit, recruit, suit in order to distinguish ther long U from th short U in but.

I.1.7  Elision of I: business > busness   Wen I is elided, it is cut, giving CS busness (cf Welsh buses), medcin, parlamnt.

I.2  Listed under Rule 2.   Th following I-cuts ar made by Rule 2, rather than by Rule 1.

I.2.1  Fertile — fertl   American pronunciation suggests cutting I in fertile (CS fertl) and in similar words listed at E.1.1.8.1.

I.2.2  Representing post-accentual shwa   In unstressd syllabls occurring after th main stress, as in fossil, victim, raisin, cushion, fashion, parishioner, Yorkshire, admiral. Som of these might alternativly be considerd as falling under I.1.7 abov.
I.3 After G > J substitution: see Chapter 4, §4 If soft G is respelt J, then I is cut when it previously chiefly served to show preceding soft G, as in contagion, contagious, legion, region, religion, religious, which then become contajon, contajous, lejon, rejon, relijon, relijous.

I.4 Y/I preferences A number of words have alternative TO spellings with I or Y. CS then recommends I when the vowel has short value (gipsy rather than *gypsy), and Y when the vowel has long value (tyro rather than *tiro); for full discussion of these preferences, see Y.3. For respelling I by Y in inflections and in -IGH, see Chapter 4, §5, and in this chapter E.3.2, E.3.3 and G.2.4.

Redundant J
Th letter J is almost never redundant in TO, so is scarcely cut. However, CS prefers the spelling alleluia without J to hallelujah with J (see also H.1.3), and marijuana can become mariuana. For the potential of J for regularizing the spelling of soft G, DG by letter substitution, see Chapter 4, §4.

Redundant K
K.1 KN- > N-: knob > nob Words written with initial silent K- before N in TO lose the K in CS. Th TO forms knack, knacker, knapsack, knave, knead, knee, knell, knew, knickers, knife, knight, know, knowledge, known, knuckle, but then written knack, napsack, nave, nead, ne, nell, new, nickers, nife, night, nit, nob, nock, not, nout,nown,nuckl. In th process, mergers occur with TO nave, new, nife, night, nit, not, and th loss of redundant W produces further shortening to no for know, noledge for knowledge (final CS nolej; but that K is naturally kept in aknolej, wher it is still pronounced). Users may hesitate at some of these new homographs, but th advantages of regularity and economy are regarded as paramount for CS.

K.2 -CK > -: blackguard > blagard Silent medial -CK- can be cut from blackguard, Cockburn, giving final CS blagrd, Coburn.

Redundant L
L.1 -OULD > -UD: could > cud Th L is redundant in could, should, would, but CS also cuts the O, giving cud, shud, wud (see O.4.4). Despite th apparent rym with TO cud, mud etc, it is felt that these short forms are th best. Th letter U is inherently ambiguous in CS as well as in TO, but th patterns of sound-symbol correspondence for th vowel letters in such TO forms as put, pudding, cloud, shroud, shoulder, gourd suggest a basis of regularity for preferring cud, shud, wud to, say, coud, woud, shoud (indeed, in TO,
OUD never has the value of -ould in _would_, etc). The L in _could_ has no etymological basis anyway, and the TO spelling tends to be confused with _cloud_ by some beginning readers. A more radical reform than CS might prefer to write _cwd_, _hwd_, _wwd_ (see Chapter 6 §??? for discussion of this idea) for these words, but such a substitution is not contemplated for CS.

**L.2 AL- > A-: salmon > samon** Insofar as the L in _almond, salmon_ is silent, it is cut, giving _amond, samon_ (cf French _amande, saumon_), although some speakers pronounce L in _almond_. In final CS, the name _Malcolm_ becomes _Malcm_.

**L.3 Silent L retained** Several groups of common words, exemplified by _half, talk, calm, folk_, contain silent L, but it is doubtful whether the pronunciation of the preceding vowel is adequately represented if the L is cut, and in some cases actual ambiguity results. Pending more radical respelling of such words (eg, as _haaf, tauk, caam, foak_ or _fohk_), the L is therefore kept. Insofar as it indicates a non-standard value for the preceding vowel, it may be considered to have a kind of ‘magic’ function.

**L.3.1 -ALF, -ALVE not cut** Calf, _half_ might be cut to _*caf, *haf_, but ambiguity arises if the L is omitted from _calve, halve_, producing _*cave, *have_. It is true that TO _have_ is written _hav_ in CS, but the -ING form _havng_ wud still be ambiguous if _halving_ were also cut to _*havng_.

**L.3.2 -ALK not cut** If the L were cut from _chalk, stalk, talk, walk_, the special value of the A wud not be shown. This value is often found with following L, as in _all, stall, tall, wall, salt, alter_, but in _chalk, stalk, talk, walk_ the L has fallen silent. Furthermore, actual ambiguity wud arise without this L (_*chak, *stak, *tak, *wak_), since by Rule 3 (simplifying doubled consonants) CS cuts _stack, tack, whack_ to _stak, tak, wak_.

**L.3.3 -ALM not cut** Less serious ambiguity wud arise from cutting the L in _alms, balm, calm, palm, psalm_; but the contrast with _am, cam, Pam, Sam_ wud be lost. Without L, there is no longer any indication that the preceding A may have a special, lengthened value. It is therefore recommended that L be kept in these words.

**L.3.4 -OLK not cut** The L is needed in _folk, yolk_ if the long O is to be distinguished from the short O in words like TO _dock, lock_, which Rule 3 cuts to CS _dok, lok_.

**L.3.5 Colonel** The L in _colonel_ (formerly _coronel_) may be taken to indicate the special value of the preceding O, and is not cut. (See O.6 below and Rule 2 for full CS _colnl_.)
Redundant M:
mnemonic > nemonic
Initial M- in the Greek root for memory (mnemonic, Mnemosyne) is silent, and can be cut. After the prefix A- when this M is pronounced (amnesia, amnesty), it cannot be cut.

Redundant N:
condemn > condemn
CS cuts silent word-final N after M, giving autumn, column, condemn, dam, hym, with inflected forms such as columns, condemned. Th N is not cut when pronounced in derivatives such as autumnal, columnar, condemnation, damnation, hymnal. Whether the N is cut in columnist must depend on pronunciation.

Redundant O
occurs especially in vowel digraphs.

O.1 EO > E: people > peple
The following TO forms contain redundant O after short E: jeopardy, Leonard, leopard; and after long E: people. Without O they become jeopardy, Lenard, lepard, peple, all of which more clearly represent the appropriate value of E. (See Rule 2, 1.6.1.XL for the long E in peple.) Th verb enfeoff cannot be cut in this way, since the O is needed to indicate the long value of the preceding E; but it might ideally be respelt to match its noun fief, giving enfief.

O.2 OE > E: foetus > fetus
British spellings (especially medical terms) such as foetus, oedema, oesophagus (similarly oecumenical) lose their O to match the American spellings fetus, edema, esophagus, ecumenical. Similarly, British manoeuvre is cut to maneuvr to align more closely with American maneuver, which itself is cut to manoeuvr by Rule 2 (see also E.1.1.12.2 and E.2.1.9). CS makes the same cut even when American spelling does not already do so: TO oedipal, Oedipus become edipal, Edipus. The particular anomaly of soft C before O in TO coelacanth is overcome by removal of this O, giving CS celacanth.

O.3 OO > O: blood > blod
If the standard value of OO are considered to be as in good and food, there are clear anomalies in TO brooch, blood, flood. If brooch is not merged with its cognate broach, it might be cut to broch by analogy with long O in gross, roll. Blood, flood can be cut to CS blod, flod, by analogy with short O in son, com, mother etc. The disadvantage of such cuts is that they suggest rhymes with CS boch, rod etc, but they are nevertheless recommended for CS as they remove a blatant irregularity of TO and are more economical. Less controversial are CS dor, flor, whose spelling is thereby distinguished from moor, poor.

CS prefers the TO alternative tabu to taboo, both for its economy and because of the internationally accepted value of U, as opposed to the uniquely English and phonetically anomalous value of OO.
O.4 OU > U

O.4.1 you > u, your > yr  TO you dos not rym with thou and can be cut to yu (se Y.1 for th further cut to CS u). Th possessivs your, yours do not rym with our, ours, and wud benefit from being cut; but ther is no standard pronunciation to show wich letters ar redundant: som speakers pronounce your as a homophone of yore, others as a homophone of ewer, a variation wich makes both th possibl cut forms yor, yur problematic. CS therfor prefers th commonly used abbreviations yr, yrs, wich can be distinguishd from th abbreviations for year, years by giving th latter full stops (1 yr., 2 yrs.). It has been objected that CS shud keep th visual link between you/your, but since l/my, she/her and we/our show even less of a link, it is judgd to be unimportant.

O.4.2 TO OU for long U: through > thru  Souvenir, troupe ar cut to suvenir, trupe (cf superior, dupe) and through to thru (cf TO true — CS tru). However, reducing OU to U is often impossibl if th long valu of U is not otherwise indicated: CS can hardly giv coup, ghoul, group, soup, tour, wound (noun) th same vowel spelling as in cup, full/gull, sup, fur, fund. But since th ending -UTH always has long valu for U in TO (truth, Ruth), TO youth can be cut to CS yuth (se also E.2.5 for TO sleuth — CS sluth). TO route poses a similar dilemma as TO schedule (se C.4), with diffrent accents implying diffrent cuts: for Americans it is often a homophone of rout and as such shud lose its final -E, wile for British speakers it ryms with brute, and shud lose its O (British TO therfor tends to keep th final E in th form routeing). If a standard spelling is to be kept for all accents, it may seem that th full original French spelling with both O and E should be retaind. Either way, CS Rule 2 produces distinctions not found in th inflected forms in TO: TO inflects rout as routs, routing, routed, and route as routes, rout(e)ing, routed; CS, by th abov proposal, wud inflect rout as routs, routng, routd, and route as routes, routing, routed.

O.4.3 TO OU for short U: touch > tuch  Couple, courage, double, nourish, southern, touch, trouble, young lose O, becoming cupl, curage, dubl, nurish, suthern, tuch, trubl, yung (cf TO much, lung, and full CS suppl, bubl for TO supple, bubble); similarly rough, tough becom ruf, tuf. Se Chapter 4, §4, for GE > J and §3 for GH > F substitution.

O.4.4 -ould > -ud: could > cud  Could, should, would become CS cud, shud, wud (se L.1 for discussion).

O.4.5 -our- > -ur-: scourge > scurge  Courtesy, scourge becom curtesy, scurge (final CS scurj; cf TO curtsy, urge).

O.4.6 -ous > -us: enormous > enormus  Th common ajectiv ending -OUS is pronounced exactly as final -US (TO callous/callus ar homophones), and it always loses its O in CS: ambiguous, callus, curius, enormus, monstrus. A number of words ar therby restord to ther exact Latin forms: anxius, dubius, exigius, pius, nefarius, obnoxious, vacuus, varius.
Chapter 3—WHICH LETTERS ARE CUT?—RULE 1

O.5 *moustache* > mustach British *moustache* is cut to American *mustache*; for the further cut to CS *mustach*, see E.1.1.17.

O.6 *colonel* > colnel TO *colonel* loses its second O (see also L.3.5 and Rule 2, which gives final CS *colnl*).

O.7 Loss of post-accentual shwa O by Rule 2 For omission of O in unstressed endings such as *petrol*, *atom*, *button*, *doctor*, *glamour*, see Rule 2.

O.8 Word and two not cut It has been suggested that the anomalous value of O in TO *word*, *work*, *world*, *worm*, *worse*, *worst*, *wort*, *worth*, *whorl* could be overcome by cutting the O, giving *wrd* etc. In unstressed position similar cuts are made by Rule 2, as when TO *foreword*, *forward* are distinguished as CS *forword*, *forwrd*. However, to cut a stressed vowel letter is a far more drastic procedure (the case of CS *yr* for TO *your* being exceptional, acceptable partly because the word is often unstressed), and it is not recommended for CS. It has also been suggested that the numeral *two* could be cut to just *tw* (the letter W having originated as UU); but this also seems too drastic, being at variance with all other English spelling patterns, and so is not adopted in CS either. Further discussion of the potential of W for use as a vowel letter will be found in Chapter 6, §1.5.

Redundant P

P.1 Silent initial P: *psalm* > salm Silent initial P occurs mainly in words of Greek origin before N, S, T, as in TO *pneumatic*, *psalm*, *psalter*, *pseudo-, psittacosis*, *psoriasis*, *psychology*, *Ptolemy*, *ptomaine*, but also in one word of Gaelic origin, *ptarmigan*. In all these cases initial P is cut, giving *numatic*, *salm*, *salter*, *sudo-, sittacosis*, *soriasis*, *sycology*, *Tolemy*, *tomain*, *tarmigan* (the latter restoring the initial T of the original Gaelic *tarmachan*).

P.2 MP + consonant > M + consonant: *empty* > emty When P occurs between M and another consonant, it can be cut, since it adds nothing to the pronunciation, hence th TO alternatives for the homophones Hampstead/Hamstead, Thompson/Thomson, Tompkins/Tomkins, sempstress/seamstress; likewise, dremt is pronounced with as much (or as little) of a P as empty (for which Old English *æmtig* had no P). CS therefore writes consumption, emty, exemt, redemption, semstress, sumtuus, temt etc (cf Welsh *temtio* ‘to tempt’).

P.3 receipt > receit Dr Johnson inconsistently decided on grounds of usage that P should be kept in *receipt*, but not in *conceit*, *deceit*. CS harmonizes all three by cutting the P and writing *receit* (cf French *recette*).
**P.4 sapphire > saphire** Th first P in *sapphire* is cut, giving *saphire* (cf French *saphir*), and with PH respelt as F (se Chapter 4, §3), th final CS form *safire*.

**P.5 Elided P befor consonant: cupboard > cubord** In a few words P is silent befor a consonant (or assimilated by it), as in *raspberry, cupboard*. Cutting givs *rasberry, cubord* (final CS *rasbry, cubrd*).

**P.6 Silent French -P: coup > c(o)u** In a few French loans P is silent: *corps, coup*. Unless it is felt important to preserv international compatibility, cutting immediatly givs *cors* (se S.2 for cutting final S as well), *cou* — and if P is cut from *coup*, th O can also be cut, but not otherwise (CS *cou* or *cu*, but not *cup*).

**P.7 PH > F: se Chapter 4, §3** for th substitution of F for PH wen pronounced as F. This change applies mainly to words of Greek derivation, but to a few others too, such as *nephew, sulphur* (alredy American *sulfur*), *typhoon*, but not to words in wich th P and H hav ther own standard valu, such as *uphold, and TO shepherd* (by Rule 2, full CS *sheprd*). Som PH words wer alredy written with F in Middl English (TO *pheasant* was Middl English *fesant*; cf Welsh *ffesant*), and TO *fantasy* has in th 20th century reverted to its erlier F after som centuris as *phantasy*.

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**Redundant Q**
Alphabetically th letter Q is superfluus, since its sound can be represented by standard K. A few words alredy hav alternativ forms with C or K, such as American *bark, check, licorice* for British *barque, cheque, liquorice*, and *lackey, racket* for *lacquey, racquet*. CS recommends forms without Q: *bark, check, licorice, lacky, racket* (final CS *chek, licrice, raket*).

In som words Q is followd by silent U (eg, *lacquer, conquer, quay, technique*), wich CS cuts (se U 2.2). Another group of words loses final -UE (*masq, baroq, mosq* — se E.1.1.11 for loss of this final E).

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**Redundant R**

**R.1 R not normally cut** Th letter R is rarely entirely omitted wher it occurs in TO, altho RR may be simplified to R. It is tru that most speakers in England and th suthern hemisphere normally only pronounce R if it precedes a vowel (they ar th so-callld ‘non-rotic’ speakers). However, because of th probably mor numerus (rotic) speakers who normally do pronounce R wherever it occurs, and because even non-rotic speakers vary in ther practis (in th phrase *mother and father*, they mostly pronounce R in *mother* but not in *father*, because th former precedes a vowel but th latter dos not), CS dos not normally cut single R.
R.2  R + shwa + R  It might nevertheless be helpful to cut one R from words in which an unstressed vowel between two Rs is cut by Rule 2, §1.4.RR, since these patterns cause considerable spelling difficulty in TO. Examples are arbitrary, contrary, February, funeral, honorary, itinerary, literary, temporary which would be cut to arbitry, contry, Febry, funery, onry, itinry, litry, tempry. Th long I in library makes cutting any letters in that word rather more dubious: altho library represents a common pronunciation, the visual parallel with litry with its short I would be anomalous; the form libry is nevertheless recommended for its economy.

Redundant S

S.1  Traditional silent S: isle > ile  Th letter S is redundant in a few long-establishd words: aisle, isle, island, demesne (th S in island, demesne is unetymological). In CS these are written ile (cf French ile), iland, demene.

S.2  Final silent French S: debris > debri  Several modern French loans end in silent S: chamois, chassis, corps, debris, fracas. CS can write chami (th goat) or chami (th leather), chassi, cor, debri, fraca, unless a decision of principle were taken to respect international spelling forms.

S.3  -SE > -ZE: organise > organize  Wenever TO offers a choice between the endings -SE and -ZE (often contrasting British and American conventions), CS prefers the latter: raze, organize, analyz, cozy. It would be tempting to take this regularization to its limit, and respell with -IZE all words rhyming with prize (eg, *advize, *advertize, *compromize, *surprize, *wize — cf TO wizard), but the CS rules do not provide for this.

S.4  -‘S > -S: se Chapter 5 for the simplified rule for the use of apostrophe before S in CS.

S.5  SC- > C-: conscious > concius  If, as suggested in C.7, SC representing the sound of SH can be considered for cutting to C, we find S can be cut to give CS conscience, concius and similarly from fuchsia to give fucia. Elsewhere SC appears to have the function of a doubled consonant, indicating a preceding short vowel, and the S is therefore kept in fascist (contrast the long A in racist), aquiesce (despite aquatic), final CS remnisce (despite remnisng), and luscius (the Roman name Lucius, with its long U and its C pronounced as S, provides a counter-pattern here).

Redundant T

T.1  -TCH > -CH: pitch > pich  Th letter T is redundant before CH and cut so that pitch, witch, hutch parallel rich, which, much, duchess. This cut produces thach, hachet (cf French hachette), fech, dich, boch, cluch, bucher (cf French boucher), picher (by Rule 2 then CS buchr, pichr) etc.
T.2 -FT- > -F-: often > ofn  
After F in often, soften th T is normally silent (tho somtimes pronounced in often), but can only be cut after applying Rule 2, to giv ofn, sofn (th forms *ofen, *sofen wud hav th long vowel of open).

T.3 -ST- > -S-: whistle > wisl  
In som words T is redundant after S. Thus whistle can be written parallel to missal, without T (final CS misl, wisl), and not like pistol, whos T is pronounced. Writing -SL insted of -STL-givs casl, nesl, pesl, tresl, wresl, brisl, episl, grisl, thisl, mislto, wisl, aposl, josl, throsl, busl, husl, rusl; and similarly befor -EN: chasen, hasen, fasen, crisn, glisen, lisn, moisn (but Rule 2 cuts th last 5 further to fasn, crisn, glisn, lisn, moisn). Ambiguity arises between TO bristling with voiceless S and brisling with voiced S (final CS brislng for both; spelling th fish brizlng wud preserv th distinction). It wud be possibl to cut th genrally elided T in *Crismas, *posman, *waiscoat etc if it wer thot unnecessary to preserv th morphemes Christ, post, waist. CS prefers th form bosun to boatswain. Modern German writes Quarz, Walzer for erlier Quartz, Waltzer wich enterd English with T (quartz, waltz), but to cut th T here wud produce wat is for English a non-standard symbol-sound correspondence.

T.4 Final silent French T: depot > depo  
Silent T occurs after vowels in French loans and can be cut to giv th following forms: depo, morgage, popourri, trai. It cannot, however, be cut in final -ET as in ballet, beret, bouquet, buffet, cabaret, chalet, crochet, croquet, parquet, ricochet, valet because it here effectivly indicates th sound valu of th preceding E. A ‘reformd’ French spelling, such as ballé etc, wud resolv th uncertainty of symbol-sound correspondence in these words, but th T of valet at least is often pronounced in English.

Redundant U

U.1 Aberrant valus not cut  
Th letter U has aberrant valus in a few words, such as th noun minut (valu modified to short I), th verb bury (pronounced as short E), and th ajectiv busy (and its derivativ busness), wher U also has th valu of short I. Th U is not redundant in these words and not cut in CS.

U.2 U with consonant > -  
Th letter U may be cut wen used with th following consonants in TO:

U.2.1 After G

U.2.1.1 Hard GU+A, O > GA, GO: guard > gard  
In guard, guarantee (cf French garde, garantie), languor U is cut, giving CS gard, garantee, langor (by Rule 2, CS langr). However, wen U has th valu of W after G, as in guano, guava, languid, languish, it is of course kept.
U.2.1.2 Hard GU+E, I, Y > GE, GI, GY: guest > gest

Before the front vowels E, I, Y in TO guelder, guer(r)illa, guess, guest, guide, guile, guillotine, guilt, guinea, (dis)guise, guitar, guy, the U serves to show the hard value of preceding G. However, guild, guilder already have alternative forms without U in gild, gilder, and guilt has a homophone in TO gilt. By analogy, therefore, other words can shed the silent U after G, giving gelder, gerilla, gess, gest, gide, gile, gillotine, gilt, ginea, (dis)gise, gitar, gy. Any long-term ambiguity vis-à-vis TO forms beginning with soft G (gem, gin, ginger, gymnast) is removed (as explained in Chapter 4, §4) by respelling all soft Gs as J; so for instance, if guest lost U, the CS form gest would no longer appear as the first syllable of TO gesture, since that word would be written jestur. But in the short term the loss of U in these words may appear somewhat disturbing by comparison with TO patterns.

U.2.1.3 Final -GUE > -GE: vague > vage

Similar factors apply to final -GUE in TO forms like vague, fatigue, vogue, fugue. If the soft value of G is respelled J (see Chapter 4, §4) and words like TO page, prestige, huge are written paje, prestije, huje, then U is no longer needed in final -GUE, nor in Portuguese, and CS can write vage, fatige, voge, fuge, Portugese. For CS tong from TO tongue, see E.1.1.6.

U.2.2 Silent U in QU > Q: plaque > plaq

CS drops U after Q when QU is pronounced as K rather than as KW. This gives opaque, clique, critique, tecniqe, brusqe, mosqito, qy (for TO quay; cf A.5), qu (for TO queue), conquér (despite conquest). The QU- in quarter is assumed pronounced as KW and is not cut. E.1.1.11 explains how -UE is lost after Q from masque, plaque, arabesque, burlesque, cheque, grotesque, picaresque, picturesque, baroque, torque, mosque, which become masq, plaq, arbesq, burlesq, cheq, grotesq, picaresq, picturesq, baroq, mosq.

U.2.3 -CU- not cut: biscuit

Before -IT in biscuit, circuit, U serves to indicate the hard value of preceding C, and is needed to distinguish it from soft C as in tacit. A mor radical reform than CS would be able to cut this U by writing biskit, cirkit. If it is assumed that U in conduit is pronounced, it will not be cut.

U.3 Redundant U with other vowels

U.3.1 AU- > A-: fault > falt

The letter U is redundant after A in gauge (gage is already a variant in American spelling), aunt, laugh, draught (CS adopts the American form draft). After substituting F, J where appropriate for GH, G (see Chapter 4, §3 & 4), CS writes gaje, ant (assuming TO aunt/ant do not need to be distinguished), laf, draft. Although AU in assault, fault has its standard value, these words rhyme with salt and are cut to assalt, falt, so giving the latter the same vowel spelling as its related adjective false.
U.3.2 -UI- > -I-: build > bild  CS cuts build, building, built to bild, bilding, bilt.

U.3.3 -OU- > -O-: shoulder > sholder  Wen OU has th valu of O, wether long or short, CS normally cuts th U. Although, cough, trough, though, mould, moul, smoulder, labour (cf American spellings mold, molt, smolder, labor), boulder, shoulder, soul then becom altho, cof, trof (these last two by GH > F substitution — se Chapter 4, §3), tho, mold, molt, smolder, labor, bolder, sholder, sol (se A.3.2 for reasons for not cutting TO goal etc to CS *gol, and W.2 for TO bowl cut to CS bol). For TO borough, thorough th abbreviated forms boro, thoro ar already widely used, and ar adopted by CS. Th number four is pronounced as th first syllabl in forty, and might therfor be written without U; however, it is felt that ambiguity between th numerals four, fourth and th words for, forth wud be dangerous, so four, fourth ar kept in CS. On th other hand ther is no reason wy fourteen shud not be cut (as it already is in TO fortnight) to mach forty, giving CS forteen.

U.3.4 buoy > boy  Buoy, boy ar deemd homophones (tho in som American accents they ar not) and ar both written boy in CS. Th American pronunciation ryming with phooey is ignord here, as it wud lead to a CS form buy, wich clashes with th TO verb to buy.

U.3.5 buy > by  Th homophones buy, by merge as CS by.

Redundant V
Altho itself often associated with redundant letters in TO (especially befyr final E as in have, sleeve, serve — se E.1.1.15), V itself is never redundant, and never cut in CS. In an ideal spelling system TO of wud be written ov, and off as just of; but this swich wud hav to be made in two stages and is not contemplated for CS.

Redundant W
W.1 Initial silent W

W.1.1 WH > H: whole > hole  Initial W is redundant in TO who, whose, whom, whole, whooping (-cough), whore; indeed th W in th last thre is historically spurius, whole for instance being related to hail, hale, heal, wile whoop, whore ar cognate with German hupen, Hure. CS therfor writes ho, hos, hom, hole, hooping, hor, and is never temted to write holistic as wholistic, as somtimes occurs in TO.

W.1.2 WR- > R-: wrist > rist  Initial W- is silent befyr -R- in TO wrack, wraith, wrangle, wrap, wrath, wreak, wreath, wreck, wren, wrench, wrest, wrestle, wretch, wriggle, wright, wring, wrinkle, wrist,
writ, write, writhe, written, wrong, wrote, wroth, wrung, wry; th form awry derives from wry. Cutting W givs rack, raith, rangl, rap, rath, reak, reath, reck, ren, rench, rest, resl, rech, riggl, right (spelt ryt after -IGH > Y substitution as explaind in Chapter 4, §5), ring, rinkl, rist, rit, rite, rithe, ritten, rong, rote, roth, rung, ry, ary. Normal application of CS rules wud reduce wrought to rot; for possibl solutions to this ambiguity, se G.2.5.6.

W.2 Medial silent W: sword > sord Medial W is silent after S in answer, sword and after varius consonants wen initiating unstressed final syllabs in som place-names (eg, Chiswick, Norwich, Southwark, Southwell, Welwyn). Cutting givs anser, sord, and Chisick, Norich, Suthark, Suthell, Welyn. TO boatswain, gunwale lose W by adopting alternativ TO forms bosun, gunnel (final CS gunl). Housewife th sense of needlecase has th TO alternativ hussif. Just as TO soul is cut to sol (U.3.3), so TO bowl is cut to CS bol (cf French bol), so removing th ambiguity with fowl, howl, owl etc (Rule 2 cuts TO bowl to CS bowl, wich entails confusion with TO bowl, but no confusion within CS itself). TO knowledge, acknowledge hav short O and ar cut to noledg, acknoledg (and then, by DG > J substitution, to final CS nolej, aknolej — se Chapter 4).

Th numeral two cud in theory be cut to to, but th danger of confusion with th preposition to is serius, and th spelling of such a common word is soon lernt, however irregular; two therfor remains uncut. Se Chapter 6 §1.5 for further discussion of th potential of W in such spellings.

W.3 Final -OW > -O Final OW pronounced as in low loses W, to align with go. This valu of -OW occurs in many monosyllabic and disyllabic words, and is prone to confusion with th standard valu of OW as in how (non-nativ speakers in particular tend to confuse th two valus of -OW). Cutting this W also enables th two pronunciations of bow, row, sow to be distinguishd as in rainbo/bow of a ship, roing boat/to hav a furius row, to so seeds/a sow with piglets.

W.3.1 Monosyllabic -OW > -O: blow > blo Examples include bow, blow, crow, flow, glow, grow, know, low, mow, ow(e), row, show, sow, slow, snow, stow, throw, wich CS rites as bo, blo, cro, flo, glo, gro, no, lo, mo, o, ro, sho, so, slo (cf sloth), sno, sto, thro. Just as an exeption had to be made with th final E of toe (se E.1.2.3) to avoid ambiguity with TO to, so th W needs to be kept in tow. Only th long term solution of respelling do, to, who in accordance with ther pronunciation can overcom this difficulty, but such changes ar not envisaged within th CS rules.

W.3.2 Problems of cutting OW + suffix Special provisions ar needed to prevent misleading, occasionally ambiguus forms wen som inflections ar added to monosyllabic verbs ending in TO -OW. Th problem arises from th fact that English words can end in a singl vowel letter with long valu (me, ski, go, flu), but wen som regular CS suffixes ar added, th vowel letter may seem to hav a short valu, as wen, by th simpl addition of th past tense suffix -D, ski wud becom *skid.
W.3.2.1 -OWN uncut For that reason, a preceding W cannot be cut from past participles ending in N: *sown cannot be cut to *son, any more than own can be cut to on. CS therefore keeps the W in TO blown, grown,nown,mown, shown, sown, thrown, despite the confusing parallel with brown, gown, town etc. More radical respelling (eg, *sohn, *mohn, etc) would overcome this problem, but is not envisaged for CS.

W.3.2.2 Cutting -OWED: crowed > croed Past tense forms ending in -D on the other hand do cut the W in CS (crowed must not become crowd), but have to keep the silent E instead (rowed cannot be cut to rod). This gives CS forms boed, croed, floed, gloed, loed, moed, oed, roed, sloed, snoed, stoed. By CS patterns, this ending is morphemically regular, since the normal CS past tense suffix of just -D is extended to -ED after a vowel in monosyllables, as after E in CS ke/keed (TO key/keyed), after I in ski/skied, and after U in glu/glued. The TO forms show, tow are, however, awkward because of the danger of ambiguity with forms of shine (CS shon), shoe (TO shod, shoed), the preposition to and the past tense of to toe (toed). It is therefore suggested that TO showed, towed, which the abov pattern would reduce to *shoed, *toed shud, exceptionally, be spelt showd, towd in CS, despite the ambiguity of sound-symbol correspondence with cowd, vowd.

W.3.2.3 -OWY The formation of adjectives by addition of the suffix -Y likewise causes problems in the case of TO forms ending in -OW ryming with low (TO showy, snowy). The simpl omission of W produces apparent rymics with boy (*shoy, *snoy), and to prevent this the W is retained in CS. This may be additionally justified because a /w/ glide is in fact pronounced between the O and the Y. Alternativly an E could be inserted (as before the past tense suffix -D), giving shoey, snoey; such forms would be supported by the analogy of TO gooey or a potential TO adjective such as potatoey (not potatoy or potatowy). However, the retention of W in CS showd is a further argument in favor of showy rather than shoey, and the derivation sho-showy is then a model for sno-snowy. Th decisiv factor must, however, be the fact that showy is also the TO form.

W.3.2.4 owing > oing, ows > os There is no problem in cutting the W from any of the abov words (except tow) before -ING (cf going), giving CS boing, bloing, croing, oing, roing, soing, shoing, snoing etc. Although there is no direct model in TO for adding a simpl S to form the plural of monosyllables ending in O (cf TO monosyllabic goes, but polysyllabic pianos), CS can do so (CS pianos, gos, bos, blos, cors, os, shos, snos etc), provided of course that CS retains final SS after short O (cf TO crow/crows, cross, final CS cro/cros, cross).

If these complications are felt to outwei the advantages of the cuts, the misleading final W and/or the E of the TO inflections -ED, -ES could be kept in these monosyllables, thereby showed, goes, shows, etc. It goes without saying that if English spelling unambiguously represented pronunciation (with forms such as shohd, gohz, shohz, etc), none of these problems would arise.
W.3.3 Disyllabic -OW > -O: follow > follo

This ending occurs in meadow, shadow, widow; callow, fallow, gallows, hallow, mallow, sallow, shallow, swallow, tallow, wallow, bellow, fellow, yellow, billow, pillow, willow, follow, hollow; minnow, winnow; arrow, barrow, farrow, harrow, marrow, narrow, yarrow, borrow, morrow, sorrow, burrow, furrow; window; there is also one trisyllabic word with this ending, bungalow. Final W is cut from all these words, giving medo, shado, wido; callo, fallo, gallos, hallo, mallo, sallo, shallo, swallo, tallo, wallo, bello, fello, yello, billo, pillo, willo, follo, hollo; minno, winno; arro, barro, farro, harro, marro, narro, yarro, morro, sorro; windo; bungalo. (See under Rule 3, §2.2.3.O, for discussion of possible ambiguity between the CS forms of such words as TO hallow/hallo/halo and borough/borrow.)

Suffixes cause few problems. The addition of past-tense -D (folled, borred) will hardly be confused with the few words ending in -OD in TO (method, period, synod, tripod), whose structure is otherwise fairly distinct. The -S inflections simply align with the pattern of TO piano+s. A difficulty does arise, however, with TO shadowy, yellowy, which need to follow the pattern of TO showy, snowy as discussed in W.3.2.3 and so keep the W (alternatively they might be written with -EY as shadoey, yelloey, but since this involves letter substitution it is not recommended for CS).

Redundant X

X.1 Final silent French X

Although the letter X has several pronunciations in English, it is only silent in a few French loans. CS could write TO choux, prix, Sioux as ch(o)u, pri, Su if international compatibility were not paramount.

X.2 -X- or -CT-?

Faced with alternatives such as connexion/connection etc, CS has to choose between the more economical -XION, or the more usual -CTION ending. Complexion, crucifixion are the only words always spelled with -XION in TO, while many words always have CT (eg, attraction, direction, depiction, concoction, reduction). Those with alternative forms are connection, inflection, fluction, and it is felt to be more helpful for them to follow the dominant pattern with CT, and not X. The words reflectiv, reflexiv would in any event remain distinct.

X.3 ecstasy or extasy?

Despite more economical earlier forms such as extasy and French extase, CS rules do not provide for a change to TO ecstasy.

Redundant Y

Y.1 you > u

The personal pronoun TO you misleadingly suggests a rhyme with thou, and is cut to CS u. O.4.1 mention yu as a possible cut form, but initial yu is uncommon in TO, yule being a rare nativ English example.
It is true that CS cuts TO youth to yuth, and young to yung, but these forms reinforce standard letter values by removing the parallel between youth/south, and by establishing parallels between yuth/truth (cf E.2.1.6 for CS sluth from TO sleuth), yung/lung. On the other hand, yu does not easily fall into line with existing patterns of English spelling, rather resembling a Chinese name. The one-letter form u is preferred to yu for its economy and distinctiveness, and because it is commonly used as a short form of you already. For several reasons u immediately suggests the correct pronunciation: it is a homophone of the name of the letter concerned, which means it has the same pronunciation in acronyms like IOU (I o u being the full CS spelling for I owe you); and it is the shortest existing spelling of the sound (as in use, emu). Altoh U has some 5 standard values in English, only one pronunciation is possible when it occurs in isolation as u: initial U can have the value in up or in unit, final U can have the value in unit or in true; but as the word u has the letter both in initial and in final position, only the value in unit can arise. (As it happens, u is one of the words used in Dutch for you, so, visually at least, it strengthens the international links of English.)

Y.2 Redundant post-vocalic Y: key > ke
Cases of redundant Y occur after E in TO geyser, key and the names Seymour, Reynard, Reynolds. These are cut, giving geser, ke (se also A.2.1, E.1.2), and in final CS Semor, Renrd, Renlds.

Y.3 I for short value, Y for long value: gipsy/tyro
Some words have alternative spellings with I and Y, as previously mentioned under I.4, above. CS makes a deliberate choice in the direction of regularity, using I for the short I value, and Y for the long value. Thus CS prefers the I spelling for bogi, caddi (from TO bogie, caddie), gipsy, laniard, lichgate, pigmy, pixi (from TO pixie), sillabub, silvan. On the other hand, the Y spelling is preferred for the long vowel value in cyder, cypher, dyke, gybe, gyro, syphon, tyre, tyro; we note tyre as a rare case when a British form is preferred to its American alternative (tire). Other words are cut to emphasize the same long value for Y: ay, aye, eye all become CS y, and bye, buy both become CS by. Similarly dye, rye become dy, ry, and analyze, dyke, gybe, pyre, rhyme, style, type, tyre can be reduced to analyze, dyk, gyb (or jyb after G > J substitution), pyr, rym, styl, typ, tyr (cf E.1.2.5, E.1.2.6). Th Scottish place names Argyll, Rosyth and the surname Forsyth provide models for this use of Y. Chapter 6, §1.3.2, discusses the advantages of using Y more systematically to represent long I, and Chapter 4, §5, discusses how Y may also serve to replace IGH (cf also G.2.4) in high, sight etc and IE in TO simplified (giving hy, syt, simplidy).

Y.4 -EY > -Y: donkey > donky
Words ending in -EY pronounced /i/ are normally cut to just -Y: abby, donky, chimny. It may be noted that in many cases there is no historical reason why a word ends in -EY and another in just -Y: countray cud equally well have followed the pattern of chimney, or chimny th pattern of country. Th TO pair alley/ally ar kept distinct in CS
by Rule 3 as *ally/*aly respectively, but create some confusion between TO and CS. (See Rule 3 for further details of *alley/*ally, and E.2.3, E.3.2, E.3.3 for further details of treatment of th I, IE, Y, EY, IS, IES, YS, EYS endings.)

Y.5 Misellaneous alternatifs to Y Th alternativ TO forms pajamas, scalawag ar preferrd in CS to pyjamas, scallywag for reasons for sound-symbol correspondence and economy respectivly.

Redundant Z
Th letter Z is not normally omitted, tho Rule 3 simplifies ZZ in CS. In two special cases Z combines with C to form th digraph CZ: in Czech we may say that th Z is needed to sho that th initial C is pronounced as CH and not as a normal C (by this argument *Cech wud be inadequat, unless, as has been suggested, th Italian spelling cello is taken as a model, reinforced by th Czech form of th word itself, Čech); th form czar is discarded in favor of tsar, as th latter better represents a possibl English pronunciation, wich is incidentally also th Russian valu; se also C.8. Altho silent in French words like laisse-faire and rendezvous, th Z is needed to sho th special pronunciation of th preceding E (*laisse-fair, *rendevu wud be inadequat, even if th loss of international validity wer acceptabl). Many other letters used with Z can, however, be omitted: baize, gauze, freeze, seize, bronze ar cut to baze, gauz, freze, seze, bronz in CS. American spellings of voiced S with Z ar preferrd to traditional British forms with S, thus CS brazier, cognizant, cozy, organize, analyze.
Rule 2: CUTTING UNSTRESSSD VOWELS
Th second cutting rule deals mainly with unpredictabl and/or unnecessary vowel letters that occur in many unstressd syllabls in English words. Two main categoris of vowel letter ar affected.

Category 1
(a) Unstressd vowels befor L, M, N, R
Unstressd vowel letters preceding th consonants L, M, N, R ar often cut in CS if they do not hav one of th standard sound-valus of A, E, I, O, U, Y, but ar insted pronounced with th ‘obscure’ central vowel sound nown as shwa. Such letters ar found in a very large number of TO spellings — for instance, well over a quarter of th pages in th Penguin Rhyming Dictionary ar taken up by words containing shwa in ther final syllabl. A few examples of shwa in final syllabls ar th E befor L in chapel, th O befor M in atom, th AI befor N in certain, and th OU befor R in glamour. Shwa is th most commonly occurring sound in English, but it has no standard letter to represent it and is named after a symbol used to indicate a similar sound in th Hebrew riting system.

(b) Cutting post-, but not pre-accentual shwa
CS removes such unstressd vowel letters from English only wen they occur in polysyllabic words after a stressd or accented syllabl, th procedur therfor being calld ‘cutting post-accentual shwa’. This restriction that shwa is only cut after a stressd syllabl is necessary because cutting unstressd vowel letters from initial (ie, pre-accentual) syllabls has a particularly disturbing effect on th familiar appearance of words. It is tru that a number of modern English word forms hav arisen by precisely this process of aphesis (also called apheresis), by which an initial unstressd vowel has been lost (eg, lone from alone, squire from esquire), but it is not th task of CS to cut word structurs as such, and so th reduction of, say, along, among to *long, *mong is not contemplated. Neverthless, it has been repeatedly suggested that CS might usefully cut th vowel letter from initial, pre-accentual syllables wher they ar often misspelt in TO, for instance merging th first syllabl persuade/pursue as in *prsuade/*prsue; of support/surprise with *srprise/*sport, or of despair/dispirit with *dspair/*dspirit; but th strangeness-effect and somtimes ambiguity of such forms is surely too strong to permit this.
(c) Problems of post-accentual shwa in TO

Th letters used to spell post-accentual shwa cause learners and skilled writers alike perhaps more difficulty than any other feature of TO. Everybody who is literate in English knows how easy it is to confuse the endings of pairs of words like principal/principle, assistant/consistent, stationary/stationery, adapter/adaptor and the middle vowel of complement/compliment. The reason is that, although the unstressed vowels of such pairs are pronounced identically, they differ often arbitrarily in how the vowel before the L, M, N, R is spelled. One of the spelling-variants for shwa occurring in TO, however, is that it is sometimes written without a vowel letter at all, relying instead on just the consonant L, M, N, R, whose pronunciation itself indicates the preceding shwa. We see this phenomenon, called ‘syllabic’ L, M, N, R, in the last syllable of such words as apple, rhythm, hadn’t, centre. This spelling pattern without a vowel letter before L, M, N, R provides a simple and economical solution to the problems of spelling post-accentual shwa before those consonants, and it is therefore the model for CS Rule 2 (Category 1). A concrete example of its benefit is seen in the case of the grammar manual published in the 1970s which, when delivered from the printer, was found, to its editor’s horror, to have the form *Grammer resplendent on its cover; this error, which had to be corrected at considerable expense, could not have arisen in CS, whose final form gramr subsumes the multifarious -AR, -ER, -OR, etc, endings that characterize TO.

(d) Clarifying stress patterns

It will be noticed that one of the consequences of Rule 2 is to clarify the stress pattern of many words where it is ambiguous in TO. For instance, the differing pronunciations of such noun/verb pairs in TO as a rebel/to rebel, a desert/to desert are not apparent from the TO spellings, whereas CS makes them plain with a rebl/to rebel, a desrt/to desert. These pairs also demonstrate a basic principle that writers of CS need to appreciate, namely that stressed vowels are always spelled with vowel letters (with the marginal exception of yr for TO your, as explained in §O.4.1 of Rule 1, above).

(e) The power of consonant strings

As already observed in Chapter 2 (§1.2, §3.6), one effect of CS Rule 2 is to create many new consonant strings unfamiliar in TO (for instance -BLD in CS trubld or -DRN in CS modrn). By traditional concepts of sound-symbol correspondence in English, such strings may at first seem unpronounceable, but as familiarity with the patterns of CS grows, so the logic becomes apparent by which they do in fact represent the normal pronunciation of words less
ambiguously than dos TO. Perhaps th most difficult concept to master is th
principl that if two successiv consonant letters can only be pronounced with
an intervening shwa, it is usually unnecessary to spell it if it dos not hav one
of th standard valus of A, E, I, O, U, Y. For instance, since one cannot
pronounce th string -STN- in *instance* or -NTRL in *central* without an
intrvvening shwa, no letter is needed to spell it. This principl of sound-
symbol correspondence underlies many of th consonant strings created by
CS Rule 2, and altho its effects may seem odd at first, it turns out to be a
powerful tecniqe for representing th structur of th numerus unstressd
yllabls that ar so caracteristic of th English language.

(f) Coping with consonant strings
Nevertheless, such long consonant strings hav arousd mor unese than perhaps
any other featur of CS, especially among litracy teachers ho feel that lerners
depend on th intervening shwa vowel letters to help them grasp th syllabic
structur of longer words. How, such teachrs wondr, can lerners make hed
or tail of a form such as CS implmntng for TO implementng? A number of
points need to be made in response.

1 Th eit successiv consonant letters of *implmntng* constitut probably th
longest consonant string produced by CS, and ar therfor an extreme case
(indeed, CS users may prefer to keep an E and rite *implmentng* if they feel
th syllabl -MENT carris secondry stress).

2 Many TO consonant strings ar actually reduced in CS, as wen GH
disapears or (like PH) is replaced by F (th 6 letters of TO *though* becom just
3 in CS *tho*, and th 2 consonant strings of TO *philosophy* cese to be strings
at all in *filosofy*).

3 Consonant letters ar in purely visual terms scarcely diffrent from
vowel letters (all letters are typically just marks on paper), and not
inherently any mor difficult to decode.

4 Th variety of possibl spellings for a given syllabl is far less in CS
than in TO; thus, regardless of consonant strings, it is esier to lern to read
(and abov all to spell) CS *vicer, teachr, authr, harbr, murmr, injr, martr* etc,
with ther regular, predictabl -R endings, than ther multifarius, unpredictabl,
mor cumbersom TO equivalents with -AR, or -ER, or -OR, or -OURS, or -UR, or
-URE, or -YR, etc; Rule 2 will be seen to introduce this kind of
regularization across many of th most hazardus TO spelling patterns.

5 Altho it is understandabl that teachers shud at first be concernd how
they wud teach such unfamiliar spelling patterns, they can be reassured that
straitforward phonic tecniqs of practising fixd patterns of sound-symbol
correspondence will come into their own with CS to a far greater degree than could ever be possible in TO; thus learners can be taught to sound out the letters and to analyze *implmtnng* into its standard morphemes *impl* + *mnt* + *ng*, and *conjr*rs (TO *conjurors*) into *conjr* + *r* + *s*.

6 Few of the more complex CS consonant strings (eg, *implmtnng*) are likely to come the way of early learners anyway, but more advanced learners will be able confidently to spell in CS many items of more sophisticated vocabulary which they may have been afraid to write in TO; for instance the variations of vowel spelling in the last two syllables of *covention* with shwa E, A, *dominant* with shwa I, A, *consonant* with shwa O, A, *permanent* with shwa A, E, and *continent* with shwa I, E, are all reduced to simple, predictable -NNT in CS *covnnt*, *domnnt*, *consnnt*, *permnnt*, *contnnt*. (The full range of such patterns of regularization is listed under §1.5 below.)

7 If the new consonant strings of CS at first look difficult, we should compare them with the difficulties entailed by the equivalent consonant + vowel + consonant strings in TO, with constant misspellings of the type *docter* (CS *doctr*) and *seperate* (CS *seprat*[e]).

The few anomalies bound up with these consonant strings are discussed under the relevant headings below.

**Category 2: Vowels in suffixes.**

The other category of unstressed vowel letter removed by Rule 2 occurs in inflections and some other suffixes, notably -ED, -ING, -ER, -ES, -EST, -ABLE, -IBLE. Besides giving a marked gain in economy, these cuts help overcome some major points of difficulty in TO. A direct gain, for instance, is the regularization of most of the unpredictable -ABLE/-IBLE endings by reducing them to a single form; but an even more important, if indirect, gain of the removal of E, I from most -ED, -ING endings, is that it clears the way for Rule 3 largely to resolve a further major bugbear of TO, the unpredictable doubling of consonants.

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**Rule 2, Category 1: post-accentual shwa before L, M, N, R**

**1.1.L Syllabic L**

Some non-English names such as German *Handl, Lendl* and the Tyrolean folk-dress *dirndl*, or the Aztec name *Popocatépetl*, end in a consonant followed by just L. Other languages too use this device: (Old) Icelandic for *sail, tile* was *segl, tigl*; Welsh rites TO *couple, possible, trestle* as *cwpl, posibl, trestl,*
wich ar close to CS cupl, posbl, tresl. We find a similar pattern in th abbreviated form of th phrase it will, wen that is ritten it'll: th shwa befor th L is here represented not by a letter, but, one might say, by th apostrophe. In fact th spelling of many English words represents shwa befor L without a vowel letter at all, altho th pattern is disguised by a final E. TO apple, for instance, ends in a redundant, silent final E, wich is already cut by CS Rule 1 (E.1.1.7); we may note that in Old English th word apple cud be ritten without this final E (in fact, as apl), wile modern German Apfel inserts an E befor th L to spell th shwa (as did th alternativ Old English form æppel). Th spelling apl, wich represents th pronunciation quite adequatly, shos that we can also cut out th E from its rym chapl, giving CS chapl. Th form chapl in turn usefully distinguishes th pronunciation of parallel forms such as TO chapel/lapel (CS chapl/lapel), th latter not being cut, as th E is stressd and has its standard short valu (cf also CS a rebl/to rebel). In th process, th differing stress patterns of these spellings becom explicit: chapl can only hav stressd A, wile th E of lapel cannot be an unstressd shwa. Similarly, th confusing distinction between TO principal/principle is overcom by cutting th discrepant vowel letters and riting principl for both words; and that in turn has a further advantage of distinguishing for th first time such endings as TO principl/appal (final CS principl/apal) — th -AL in th latter is not cut, as it is stressd with th A having one of its standard valus. Th unpredictably varid unstressd endings of TO cymbal/symbol, counsel/consul, gerbil/garble ar alignd in th same way, giving cymbal/symbl, counsl/consl, gerbl/garbl. Th final L in these spellings then has syllabic function, representing a syllabl in its own right, and dos not need a separat vowel letter to represent its sound.

Th folloing cutting patterns produce syllabic L:

1.1.L.1: **candle > candl** Final E cut by CS Rule 1, E.1.1.7, as in marbl, icicl, candl, raffl, triangl, jungl, ankl, steepl, nesl, turtl, axl, bamboozl.

1.1.L.A: **signal > signl** Preceding A cut as in cymbl, medicl, pedl, offl, fungl, mamml, signl, sepl, neutrl, dismissl, coastl, usul, larvl, renewl, royl.

1.1.L.E: **camel > caml** Preceding E cut as in rebl (noun), sachl, rondl, cudbl, snorkl, caml, panl, colnl, scalpl, mongrl, morsl, mussl, chisl, bushl, hostl, brothl, marvl, vowl.

1.1.L.I: **fossil > fossl** Preceding I cut as in gerbl, nostrl, tonsl, fossl, lentr, anvl.
1.1.L.O: symbol > symbl  Preceding O cut as in symbl, petrl (contrast patrol), pistl.

1.1.L.U: consul > consl  Preceding U cut as in peepl, consl.

1.1.L.Y: methyl > methl  Preceding Y cut.

1.1.L.2: victuals > vitsl  Two preceding vowel letters cut.

1.1.L.C: difficult > diffict  With a following consonant.

1.1.M  Syllabic M
In TO a number of words end in a consonant follod by syllabic M, as in chasm, prism, microcosm, paroxysm, rhythm. At th same time, many words end in a consonant follod by unstressed -AM, -EM, -IM, -OM, -UM, -YM with th vowel letter pronounced mor or less as shwa. Here too th M cud equally well be given syllabic valu by cutting th preceding vowel letter, as in th folloing examples:


1.1.M.E: system > systm  Preceding E cut as in tandm, problk, systm.

1.1.M.I: victim > victm  Preceding I cut as in pilgrm, victm, maxm. Som speakers may giv th final -IM in these words th valu of short I + M, as in stressd him. CS however takes th vowel to be sufficiently close to shwa (indeed, interchangeabl with it) for th spelling with syllabic M to be th most convenient.


Note  It will be noticed that th final CS form maxmm applys Rule 2, §1.M, twice, first cutting th I befor th middl M (just as, under §1.1.M.I, TO maxim became CS maxm) and then th U befor th final M. (Such patterns of dubl cutting ar examind mor generally in §1.5 belo.) Riters ho dislike th reduplicated M in CS maxmm, etc. may prefer to leve th final -MUM uncut (se §1.4 belo regarding reduplicated consonants in genral).
1.1.N  Syllabic N

Syllabic N occurs in TO in the name of the composer Haydn and in such
negativ contractions as couldn’t, didn’t, hadn’t, isn’t, hasn’t, mightn’t, how
final syllabl rymes with that major problm of TO, th variabl -ANT, -ENT
endings. Other languages wich use this device of syllabic N include Arabic
(ibn ‘son’), Welsh (ofn ‘fear’) and both Old English and Old Icelandic
(hrafn, hrafn ‘raven’). We may also note th phonetic parallel between TO
prism with syllabic M and TO prison, wich by analogy with prism cud be
mor simply spelt prisn with syllabic N. Rule 2 as applied to N overcoms th
anomaly of such variations as dependant/ dependent (both dependnt in CS),
descendant but transcendent, and either ascendant or ascendent (CS
asendnt, desendnt, transendnt); likewise, CS removes th confusion faced by
students of French and German, ho se -ANT in French assistant, consistnt,
persistnt, resistnt and -ENT in German Assistent, konsistent, persistnt,
resistent, but in English hav to remember -ANT in TO assistant, resistnt, as
against -ENT in consistnt, persistnt, etc. These ar harmnized in CS as
assistnt, consistnt, persistnt, resistnt. Cuts ar made as follos:

1.1.N.A: urban > urbn  Preceding A cut as in urbn, republicn,
Jordn, Vaun (from TO Vaughan), hoolign, womn, charlatn, Jonathn,
silvn. Th plural women is distinguishd by not being cut.

1.1.N.E: garden > gardn  Preceding E cut as in gardn, stiffn, ofn, sofn
(Rule 1 cuts T from TO ofen, soften), oxyjn (after G > J substitution — se
Chapter 4, §5), weakn, specimn, linn, deepn, lsn, risn, eatn, ovn, vixn,
citzn. Forms such as TO coarsen, loosen, worsen ar cut to CS corsn,
loosn, worsn, altho CS corse, loose, worse keep final E.

1.1.N.I: cabin > cabn  Preceding I cut as in cabn, orijn (after G > J
substitution), jerkn, pippn, assassn, raisn, cusn, bulletn, Calvn, muezzn.
For identification of this unstressd I as shwa, se note on 1.1.M.I abov.

1.1.N.O: lemon > lemn  Preceding O cut as in carbn, beacn, Londn,
wagn, rekn, lemn, cann, wepn, prisn, reasn, buttn, marathn, Saxn, Amazn.


1.1.N.2: certain > certn  Two preceding vowls cut in curtn, cushn,
fashn, founnt, mountn, pijn (from both TO pigeon and pidgin), relijn
(these last thre after G > J substitution). Howevr, as explaind under
§1.6.2.X belo, th unstressd ending -ION cannot normlly be cut (nation
cannot becom *natn); th exeptions for cushion, fashion ar made possibl by
th preceding -SH-.
Chapter 3—WICH LETTERS AR CUT?—RULE 2

1.1.N.C: *important > importnt*  
With following consonant: importnt, persistnt, secnd.

Notes

- It will be noticed that TO *consonant* (CS consnnt) applies Rule 2, 1.N.C, twice, first cutting the O before the middle N (cf. damsnt) and then the A before the final -NT. Users who dislike the reduplicated N in consnnt, etc., may prefer to keep the final -ANT of the TO form. Similarly, users who dislike reduplicated N in CS linnt, cann for TO linen, canon may prefer to keep the TO forms (see §1.4.NN belo).
- For words in which R precedes shwa + N (contrasting pattn/patron, modrn/children, etc.), see §1.1.R.C belo.

1.1.R  Syllabic R

Syllabic R occurs in British spelling in Messrs (plural of the title Mr) and in words like centre, theatre, in which the final E is redundant, indeed it was cut by Rule 1 (E.1.1.12.2) along with the E in apple (theatr, appl). Other languages which make use of this device of syllabic R include Welsh (also theatr), Arabic (Nasr), Russian (Aleksandr), as did Old English and Old Icelandic (silfr ‘silver’ in both languages).

If the cut form centr is compared with enter, it is clear that the second E in that word is redundant too, and we can write entr, so aligning the spelling of the rhymes centr/entr, and distinguishing both the stress patterns and vowel value of TO enter/inter (CS entr/inter). This in turn points the way to using syllabic R also for all other vowel letters that stand for shwa in that position, so regularizing one of the biggest sources of uncertainty in TO. Furthermore, American and British discrepancies such as center/centre can be aligned by this procedure as centr. CS also distinguishes the sound-value in the endings of centred/hatred by writing centrd/hatred. Rule 2 additionally resolves uncertainty as to the TO ending in a number of cases: adapter/adaptor, imposter/impostor, invester/investor for instance reduce to CS adaptr, impotr, investr.

Cuts occur as follows:

1.1.R.A: vicar > vicr  
Preceding A cut as in lumbr, vicr, calendr, vinegr, peculir, poplr, nectr.

1.1.R.E: teacher > teachr  
Preceding E cut as in membr, soccr, teachr, buchr, bildr, conifr, angr, singr, prettir, speakr, travlr, farmr, joinr, keepr, lecturr, trousrs, fishr, neutr, watr, gathr, valur (cf. Rule 1, E.1.1.12.5 pictur, verdur, rivr, showr, boxr, lawyr).

1.1.R.EU: amateur > amatr  
Preceding EU cut if pronounced shwa in amatr, chauffr (otherwise they can be left as amatur, chauffeer).
1.1.R.1: Cheshire > Cheshr
Preceding I cut if pronounced shwa in Cheshr and other shire names.

1.1.R.O: sailor > sailr
Preceding O cut as in metafr (after PH > F substitution), sailr, superir, tremr, tenr, doctr, mayr; TO err, mirror, horror also have their RR simplified by Rule 3, §4.3, to produce final CS err, mirr, horr (see Rule 2, §1.4.RR, below for reduplication of R).

1.1.R.OU: glamour > glamr
Rule 1, §U.3.3, cuts the British ending -OUR as in labour to the American ending -OR (labor). Unless the preceding vowel has long value not otherwise indicated (as occurs in labor), Rule 2 now cuts the OR to syllabic R, giving CS harb'r, neibr, ran'r, ardr, vigr, savir, val'r, glamr, on'r (TO honour), endevr.

1.1.R.U: murmur > murmr
Preceding U cut in sulfr (after PH > F in British spelling), injr, murmr, Arthr.

1.1.R.UO: languor > langr
Preceding UO cut in langr, liqr.

1.1.R.Y: martyr > martr
Preceding Y cut in martr, satr, zefr (after PH > F).

1.1.R.C: standard > standrd
Preceding shwa cut when a further consonant follows the R as in monrc, standrd, comfrt, desrt, effrt. Following the loss of P, A by Rule 1, TO cupboard is now reduced by Rule 2 to just cubrd. By this cutting pattern, TO forms ending in unstressed -ERN such as cavern, cistern, eastern, govern, lantern, modern, pattern, Severn, tavern also likewise cut, giving eastrn, pattrn, etc (cf. eastr, pattcr for TO Easter, patter). It should be noted, however, that this is the same ending as would be produced if Rule 2, §1.1.N, were applied to brethren, cauldron, chagrin, chevron, children, saffron, rhododendron, squadron, giving *brethrn, *cauldrn, *chagrn, *childrn, etc. The ambiguity of spelling modrn/*childrn with the same final syllable is unsatisfactory, and a choice needs to be made between the two patterns. The advantage of cutting E from -ERN rather than from -REN is that CS then for the first time distinguishes modrn, etc from words with final stressed -ERN such as concern, disern, intern, and CS therefore recommends writing modrn but leaving children, etc uncut (see also §1.6.4.XS below).

Writers who dislike the reduplicated R in lecturr, terr may prefer to keep the vowel letters before the final R (see §1.4.RR below).

1.2 Cutting shwa in non-final syllables.
The same cuts can often be made in non-final post-accentual syllables, the case of opera having already been discussed in Chapter 2, §1.10. In the following cases the syllabic consonant, the not in the final syllable, comes after the main stress:
1.2.L: family > famly  Befor syllabic L as in family, Itly, simle, ventlate, and (from TO catalogue, epilogue, monologue) catlog, eplog, monlog, etc. This cut wil from now on be applied in this Handbook to adverbial -ALLY endings, so that musically becomes musicly (final CS musicly; cf Rule 1 A.4, explaining th diffrent sequences of CS rules applying to TO publicly, basically, musically).

1.2.M: enemy > enmy  Befor syllabic M as in bigmy, econmy, enmy (cf enmity), epitm, ultmat. Befor th suffix -MENT, th syllabic structur becoms ambiguus in a few pairs, such as CS betrmnt/detrmnt for TO betterment/detriment or setlmnt/complmnt for TO settlement/complement (th -LEMENT of settlement/complement is of corse alredy ambiguus in TO); simlr ambiguity is seen in RM, as between infRMation/matRMny; if it wer thot importnt to prevent such ambiguities, CS cud keep th I in detrimnt, complimnt, matrimny and th E in complemnt, implemnt.

1.2.N: ebony > ebny  Befor syllabic N as in anemne, ebny, eliminnt, litny, orgnz (also, aftr Rule 1 loss of final -E, avnu, retnu; and aftr substituting J for soft G, projny for TO progeny). Th loss of E befor N from TO messenger, passenger (final CS mesnjr, pasnjr) removes th E > A anomly between messenger/message, passenger/passage. In 4-syllabl words ending in -MONY (acrimony, alimony, antimony, ceremony, hegemony, matrimony, parsimony, testimony, but not 3-syllabl harmony) this cut produces final CS acrmny, alimny, antmny, ceremny, hegmny, matrmny, parsmny, testmny; howevr, this may not suit Americn speech wich givs seconary stress and ful long valu to th O, with ceremony having th O of ceremonial.

1.2.R: every > evry  Befor syllabic R as in evry, histry, licrice. Insofar as these medial vowls may be judgd entirely silent, ther omission was anticipated by Rule 1, §E.2.2.2. A particulr attraction of this cut is th regulrization of th secnd vowl in such TO forms as separate, desperate, corporate, giving CS seprat, desprat, corprrat. Simlrly th varying penultmat vowl letter in TO military, monastery, dormitory (cf ministry) disappears to giv CS militry, monastry, dormitry; but th lattr cuts may not suit Americn pronunciation, in wich th cut vowl may hav full valu (‘militairy’, ‘dormi-tory’). Oth exampls of this cut include anrchy, monrchy, proprt, dictionary.

1.3  Cutting shwa aftr secondry stress: cons(o)lation
In certn circmstnces th post-accentul shwa may follo a seconary stress, wile preceding th main stress in a word. For instnce, TO consider is cut by th norml application of Rule 2 to CS considr, but if this form is taken as th base for th CS derivativ consideration, that same cut of E is then found to
precede the main stress, which falls on the following A and no longer on the preceding I. Such a pattern may appear acceptable by analogy with TO administer/administration, but questionably when compared with the form dehydration, which has no hint of a shwa and has not undergone any cuts: can we accept a parallel spelling pattern in CS for the subtly different syllabic structure of such a pair as TO consideration, dehydration? Other cases, in which there is no base-word like considr to justify the derived cut form, may appear even more doubtful: with the syllabic L, M, N, R preceding the main stress but following the secondary stress, the CS rules, mechanically applied, result in forms such as final CS consolation, inflammation, intonation, adoration for TO consolation, inflammation, intonation, adoration. Such forms have a reduced resemblance both to their TO equivalents and to their base-words console, inflame, intone, adore, how stressed vowel disappears in the CS form. This issue is perhaps seen at its most extreme in TO confirmation/conformation, which are merged as CS confirmation, although their base-words confirm, conform remain distinct. This Handbook nevertheless recommends such cut forms for their economy and their immunity to misspellings of the type *consulation, *adoration.

1.4 Reduplicated consonants.
One of the consequences of applying Rule 2 is that when in TO a vowel letter pronounced shwa separates two Ms, Ns or Rs, its removal produces the effect of reduplication: two successive, identical consonants that are not simply doubled as in TO, when they are pronounced as the single (see Section 3 of this Chapter for the simplification of such doubled consonants), but pronounced separately. (Other examples of such reduplication occur under Category 2 — see for instance §2.D and §2.BL below.) The nearest that TO comes to this effect is when, sometimes, at morpheme boundaries the pronunciation of a repeated consonant (as LL in soulless, or NN in unnecessary) may be slightly lengthened (or ‘geminated’); for the possible simplification of such repeated consonants in CS, see Rule 3.

CS Rule 2, Category 1, produces reduplication of consonants in cases such as the following, many of them already referred to above:

1.4.MM: maximum > maximmm MM in maximmm, minimmm, optimmm, cardamm, crysanthemm (for final CS maximmm, etc, see §1.5 below).

1.4.NN: linen > linn NN in disyllabic forms such as (ie, counting the second N as syllabic) CS linn, cann (TO linen, canon/cannon), remnnt (formerly spelt remenant), and in trisyllabic consonnt, continnt, covennt, dominnt, permannt (for final CS forms consnnt, etc, see §1.5 below).
1.4 RR: \textit{error} > \textit{err}  
RR in disyllabic forms such as (i.e., counting the second R as syllabic) CS \textit{err}, \textit{mirr}, \textit{horr}, \textit{terr} (TO \textit{error}, \textit{mirror}, \textit{horror}, \textit{terror}), and in trisyllabic \textit{armourr}, \textit{emperr}, \textit{lecturr}, \textit{wanderr} (for final CS \textit{armrr}, etc, see §1.5 belo). Reduplicated R would also arise if TO \textit{arbitrary}, \textit{contrary}, \textit{February}, \textit{funerary}, \textit{honorary}, \textit{itinerary}, \textit{literary}, \textit{temporary}, etc were cut to \textit{arbitrry}, \textit{contrry}, \textit{Febrry}, \textit{funerry}, \textit{onrry}, \textit{itinrry}, \textit{litrry}, \textit{temprry}, but Rule 1, §R.2, proposes the following CS forms with just single R for these: \textit{arbitry}, \textit{contry}, \textit{Febry}, \textit{funery}, \textit{onry}, \textit{itinry}, \textit{litry}, \textit{tempry}. \textit{Library} might also be cut (\textit{libry}), or its long I might put it into the category of exceptions (see §1.6 belo), so leaving it uncut (cf \textit{ivory} left uncut).

Such reduplication of M, N, R has an unfamiliar appearance, and users may therefore prefer to keep the intervening TO vowel letter in CS. This Handbook however recommends these cuts for the sake of their predictability, consistency and economy.

1.5 Dubl cutting by Rule 2: \textit{adamant} > \textit{admnt}
As already shown by some of the preceding examples, a number of words contain two post-accentual shwas before a combination of L, M, N, Rs, and in many cases both are cut (exceptions are described in 1.6.X belo). The resulting letter sequences are highly characteristic of the extended consonant strings occurring in CS, whose advantages (along with the unseemly way they often initially provoke) were outlined in the introduction to Rule 2 (Category 1, §f) above. The sweeping simplifications they entail will now be set out in more detail.

While in many cases there is no question but that the vowel sounds in question are shwas (e.g., the O/E in \textit{customer}), in other cases the sound may be difficult to define precisely (e.g., do we pronounce the I in TO \textit{animal} as shwa, or does it retain at least a hint of a short I-sound? does the second O of TO \textit{cholesterol} rate as a short O, or as shwa?). For the sake of simplicity, CS deems the sounds in many such doubtful cases to be pronounced shwa and cuts the letter accordingly (e.g., CS \textit{anml}). At the same time, the alphabetic principle dictates that if the shwa letter is stressed in related words, CS cannot cut that letter in those related words; thus, the TO \textit{continent} is cut to CS \textit{contnnt}, the adjective TO \textit{continental} has stressed E, which must therefore be retained in CS \textit{contntnl}.

It may be objected that some of the resulting double-cut letter-strings suffer a loss of visual distinctiveness, especially in the case of successions of Ms and Ns (e.g., is CS \textit{permnnt} as easy to read as TO \textit{permanent}?). There may indeed be such losses, but CS claims that the gains of predictability outweigh them.

We are concerned here with two successiv post-accentual vowels pronounced more or less as shwa, each preceding L or M or N or R. These consonants can
occur in the following combinations (some reduplicated as described in §1.4 above), with the hyphens standing for unspecified vowel letters in TO: -L-M, -L-N, -L-R, -M-L, -M-M, -M-N, -M-R, -N-L, -N-M, -N-N, -N-R, -R-L, -R-M, -R-N, -R-R. In TO the preceding shwas are spelt with a bewildering variety of vowel letters, which CS regularizes by reducing these variations to the common consonant letters LM, LN, LR, ML, MM, MN, MR, NL, NM, NN, NR, RL, RM, RN, RR.

1.5.1. LM: Jerusalem > Jeruslm with A/E is the only clear example of this pattern, unless curriculum, pendulum with U/U are allowed, despite the I-glide preceding the first U.

1.5.2. LNT: insolent > inslnt Before unstressed -L-NT we see A/E in equivalent, E/E in excellent, I/A in TO sibilant, O/E in insolent; in CS these vowel letters all vanish, and the endings are reduced to a standard LNT, giving equvilnt, exlnt, siblnt, inslnt. Without the final T, there is a much stronger tendency for the last vowel letter to have its own clear, standard value, as in Marilyn, Babylon, Catalan; but at least the E/I of javelin and the O/A of ortolan might be cut in the same way, giving CS javln, ortln.

1.5.3. LR: similar > simlr Before unstressed -L-R we see E/E in several words in which the L is doubled in British but not American spelling; CS here naturally adopts the more economical American form with single L from jeweler, leveler, traveler, which without the vowel letters gives CS jewlr, levlr, travlr; the same applies with the E/O of counsel(l)or and (with no L-duplication in Britn) bachelor, giving CS counslr, bachlr; in similar we see I/A (CS simlr), and in tricolor O/O, giving triclr. These categories of words with simlr structures are excepted from these cuts: teetotal(l)er keeps the A as in total to indicate the preceding long O (total does not rhyme with bottl), leaving CS teetotalr; chancellor and coun(ce)l(lor) keep the E or I after palatalized C, leaving CS chancelr, councilr (not *chanclr, *counclr — contrast triclr with non-palatalized C); and nearly 3 dozen words ending in -ULAR keep the U to indicate the preceding I-glide, so that particular, globular become CS particulr, globulr, not *particlr, *globlr.

1.5.4. ML: animal > anml Words ending in unstressed -M-L normally have the vowel letters I/A, as also in infinitesimal, maximal, minimal, optimal, which become CS infinitesml, maxml, minml, optml. To indicate its palatalized C, decimal must keep its I, leaving CS deciml.

1.5.5. MM: maximum > maxmm Before unstressed -M-M we see A/U in cardamum, E/U in chrysanthemum, I/U in maximum, etc; in CS these vowel letters all vanish, and the endings are reduced to a standard MM, giving cardmm, crysanthmm, maxmm.
1.5.6.MN: adamant > admnt  
Befor unstressed -M-N we se A/A in TO adamant, A/E in armament, A/O in cinnamon, E/E in complement, I/E in compliment; in CS these vowel lettrs all vanish, and th endings ar reduced to a standrd MN, giving final CS admnt, armmnt, cinmn, complmnt, complmnt (so merging th trublsm TO homophones complement/compliment; howevr, se §1.2.M abov and Chaptr 6, §2.4.AMB (1), for argumnts in favor of keepng th vowel lettr befor th M in complement, complimt, detriment, implmnt). It may also be argud that, if used as verbs, these words giv secdndry stress to th syllabl -MENT, wich wud therfor need to keep its E, givng to complement, to implmnt. If both these resrvations wer acceptd, these verbs wud not be cut at all in CS.

1.5.7.MR: customer > custmr  
Ther ar few words with this structur: also with O/E is astronomer, CS astronmr; with A/E is gossamer, final CS gosmr, and with I/E th surname Mortimer, wich if cut wud becom Mortmr. For reasns explaind undr §1.6.4.XS belo, polymer keeps its Y and becoms CS polymr, not *polmr.

1.5.8.NL: criminal > crimnl   
Befor unstressed -N-L we se E/A in arsenal, I/A in criminal, O/A in personal; in CS these vowel lettrs all vanish, and th endngs ar reduced to a standrd NL as in arsnl, crimnl, persnl. Howevr, by far th most commn TO spelling for this structur is as seen in national, wher th -IO-, as explaind undr §1.6.2.X belo, canot be cut; CS therfor reduces th TO ending -IONAL just to -IONL, as in nationl, etc.

1.5.9.NM: platinum > platnm  
Befor unstressed -N-M we se A/U in tympanum, I/U in platinum, O/Y in synonym; in CS these vowel lettrs all vanish, and th endings ar reduced to a standrd NM, giving tympnm, platnm, synnm.

1.5.10.NN: permanent > permnnt  
Befor unstressed -N-N we se A/E in permanent, E/A in covenant, I/A in dominant, I/E in continent, O/A in consonant; in CS these vowel lettrs all vanish, and th endings ar reduced to a standrd NNT, giving covnnt, domnnt, consnnt, permnnt, contnnt.

1.5.11.NR: gardener > gardnr  
Befor unstressed -N-R we se E/E in gardener, I/E in examiner, O/E in prisoner, to wich we may add a few words with th string -RN-R, with E/E as in westerner and E/O in governor; in CS these vowel lettrs all vanish, and th endings ar reduced to a standrd (R)NR, giving gardnr (cf Gardner as an alternativ TO surname form; compare also TO falconer, CS falcnr, with th surname Falkner), examnr, prisnr, westrnr, govnrn. In certn circmstnces th vowel letr befor th -N cannot be cut: TO opener keeps its first E, as in open, to indicate th preceding long O; nor can th vowel befor N be cut if th preceding lettr is R, thus coroner, foreigner, mariner must not align.
with *corner, barn* (hence CS *cornr, forenr, marinr*); and words ending in TO -IONER must keep th -IO- (cf retention of -IO- in CS *nation, nationl*), so that TO *pensioner* becomes just *pensionr* in CS.

**1.5.12.RL: several > sevrl** Befor unstressd -R-L we se E/A in several, E/E in mackerel, E/I in *Goneril, E/O in cholesterol, I/A in *admiral, O/A in corporal, U/A in guttural*; in CS these vowel lettrs all vanish, giving final CS sevrl, makrl, Gonrl, colestrl, admrl, corprl, gutrl. Words of th typ *natural, hos* base-word ends in TO -URE, CS -UR, ar deemd to be pronounced with th same ending as those ending in -ERAL (thus *natural, lateral* ar deemd to rym) and ar cut in th same way to -RL: *natrl, latrl*. Two words ending in -ERAL cannot lose E because it indicates a preceding long vowel: *funeral, numeral*, and TO *behavioral* becomes *behavioral*.

**1.5.13.RLY: satisfactorily > satisfactrly** This pattm arises partly from §1.5.RL abov (lateral > latrl produces th adverb laterally > latrly), but shud also be considrd in th context of th unstresd -LY ending genrly (family > famly, Italy > Itly) and adverbial suffix -LY in particulr. We must first ask wethr, if TO *family* is rittn as CS *famly*, any -LY adverb based on an ajectiv ending in Y can follo th same patrn: *if famly, wy not *gloomly, *giltly, *hevly, *noisly?* We shud hesitate first on acount of th morfolojy (*gloomly* surely must indicate a disylabic base word *gloomy + ly*, contrasting with *glumly, hos* structur is *glum + ly*), and secnd on acount of varius exeptions, such is esily, hastily hos I is needed to sho th preceding long vowel. Othr factrs, however, arise in th case of polysylabic base words, wher th two comm endngs -ARY, -ORLY, with ther adverbial equivlnts -ARILY, -ORILY, ar esily confused in TO. Th merger of A and O in *ordinary/satisfactory* to giv *ordnry/satisfactry*, togethr with th E/A cut in laterally > latrly, strongly sujest a merger of A/I in *ordinarily* with O/I in *satisfactorily* to giv CS *ordnrly/satisfactrly*. Such cuts, of corse, presume a British pronunciation with th lost vowls unstresd, and not, as ofn in Americn pronunciation, with, eg, stressd A in TO *militarily*; if th A wer kept, th I might need to stay too (*militarily* might seem syllabiclly inadequat). Final CS rites *necesrly, temprrly, voluntrrly, perfunctrrly*, etc.

**1.5.14.RM: marjoram > marjrm** Very few othr words end in -R-M that do not hav clear valus for ther final vowel, th nearest being perhaps TO *interim*, wich might be cut to CS *intrm*.

**1.5.15.RNT: tolerant > tolrnt** Befor unstressd -R-N we se E/A in TO *tolerant, E/E in different, O/A in ignorant*; in CS these vowel lettrs can all vanish, and th endings reduce to standrd RNT, giving tolrnt, ignrnt, diffrrnt. Se §1.1.R.C abov and §1.6.4.XS belo for reasns wy similr words without final T cannot lose th preceding vowel letter, so that TO *veteran > CS *vetran*, not *vetrn.* (Se §1.6.4.XS also for th countr-suggestion that vowls shud nevr be cut between R-N, thus leving CS *tolrant.*)
1.5.16.RR: \textit{emperor} > \textit{emprr}

Before unstressed -R-R we see E/E in TO \textit{wanderer}, O(U)/E in \textit{armourer}, E/O in \textit{emperor}, U/O in \textit{conjuror}; in CS these vowel letters all vanish, and th endings ar reduced to a standard RR, giving \textit{wandrr}, \textit{armrr}, \textit{emprr}, \textit{conjrr}.

\textit{Table 1} now shos which combinations of syllabic consonants permit such dubl cuts.

\textit{Table 1: Structures of combined syllabic l, m, n, r cuts}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>+ L</th>
<th>+ M</th>
<th>+ N</th>
<th>+ R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L+</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>\textit{Jeruslm}</td>
<td>\textit{insln}</td>
<td>\textit{simlr}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M+</td>
<td>\textit{anml}</td>
<td>\textit{maxmm}</td>
<td>\textit{admnt}</td>
<td>\textit{custmr}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N+</td>
<td>\textit{crimnl}</td>
<td>\textit{platnm}</td>
<td>\textit{consnnt}</td>
<td>\textit{gardnr}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R+</td>
<td>\textit{sevrl}</td>
<td>\textit{marjrm}</td>
<td>\textit{tolrnt}</td>
<td>\textit{emprr}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.6.X Exceptions to Rule 2 syllabic L, M, N, R spellings

Altho th abov cutting patterns apply to a large numbr of words, ther ar certn circumstances wher th unstressed vowel befor L, M, N, R cannot be cut. Som exceptions arise because of problems of TO whic th CS rules cannot resolv, wile othrs ar inherent in th phonology of th English language.

1.6.1.X Preceding long vowel + consonnt: \textit{even/sevn}

In th sequence long vowel + consonnt + shwa + L, M, N, R, th shwa-vowel lettr has ‘magic’ effect, that is to say, it shos th long valu of th preceding vowel. This is particularlly apparent wen th shwa-vowel is E, as in CS \textit{even}, wher th secnd E has ‘magic’ function, indicating th long valu of th preceding vowel, and therfor cannot be cut. (We may alternatively anlyz \textit{even} as consisting of th syllabs \textit{eve} + syllabic N.) CS \textit{even} contrasts with CS \textit{sevn}, \textit{hevnn}, wher th secnd E of th TO form is lost because th preceding short vowel requires no folloing vowel and th syllabic function of th final N is clear. Th spelling contrast between CS \textit{even/sevn} is altogethr an exllnt demnstration of th improved sound-symbl correspondnce created by CS. Howevr, any vowel lettr can hav such ‘magic’ function in these post-accentul syllabs, and exmapls (with contrasting short-vowel equivlnnts, wich do lose ther shwa-lettr, givn in brackets) ar as follos:

1.6.1.XL: \textit{oval} ≠ \textit{grovl}

No cut can be made aftr th long vowel in \textit{fatal (cattl)}, \textit{regal (haggl)}, \textit{medeval/primeval}, \textit{evil (devl)}, \textit{final (fiddl)}, \textit{opal (toppl)}, \textit{oval (grovl)}, \textit{brutal (sult from TO subtle)}. Somtimes such words hav mor than two syllabs; thus th last A in TO
appraisal (final CS aprasal), retrieval (CS retreval), reprisal, betrothal, tribunal cannot be cut because it indicates the long value of the preceding A, E, I, O, U respectively. Similarly, certain words ending in consonant + L + ‘magic’ E must also remain uncut; such as maple, rifle, scruple, which then contrast with the stressed short vowels of appl, piffl, suppl. It will be noted that peple also falls into this category (see Rule 1, O.1, for the loss of O in TO people).

1.6.1.XM: item ≠ atm No cut after long vowel in item, totem, contrasting with cut after short vowel in atm, bottm.

1.6.1.XN: pagan ≠ wagn No cut after long vowel in pagan (wagn), blatant, latent (combaitnt), vacant, demon (lemn), even (sevn, hevn), omen (commn), open, potent (impotnt), prudent. In the case of TO nuisance (cf appraisal, §1.6.1.XL above), CS can either cut the long vowel to give nuisance, or cut the shwa to give *nuisnce; as explained under Rule 1, I.1.6, the former cut giving CS nuisance is preferred.

1.6.1.XR: fever ≠ evr No cut after long vowel in favor, fever (evr), diver (rivr), rover (hovr), mover (lovr), paper (trappr), crater, later (fattr), motor (trott), labor (glamr), tumor (summr). An important group of exceptions of this type are the words rhyming with dictator, regulator. If a word with a long vowel can be spelled with alternative endings in TO, CS can help resolve the uncertainty: TO adviser/advisor reduce to just one CS form adviser, since that is built on the predictable pattern of base-word advise + standard suffix R (despite the adjective advisory has O has ‘magic’ function indicating the long i). TO lever, it will be noted, is deemed to have American pronunciation rhyming with ever, and is cut accordingly to levr, alongside CS evr.

1.6.1.XX: weevil > weevl The above set (1.6.1.X) of exceptions to CS Rule 2 arises from the TO indication of long vowels by means of ‘magic’ letters following a subsequent consonant. However, when long vowels are represented by digraphs, th Rule 2 cut applies in the normal way, as in weevl, eagl, steepl, beadl, needl. If at some future date the spelling of these ‘magickd’ long vowels were rationalized, Rule 2 could apply to them too, for instance by maybe respelling naval, evil, rival, oval, brutal as *naevl, *ievl, *ryvl, *ohvl, *bruhtl. However, such changes go far beyond the scope of CS.

1.6.2.X: Preceding palatized consonant: lesion ≠ lessn A vowel letter(s) representing shwa that also has the function of palatizing a preceding consonant cannot be cut. This arises typically after soft C or G, and in -IAL, -ION and similar endings. Some words appear as exceptions both under this rule (1.6.2.X) and under the preceding long-vowel rule (1.6.1.X): racer, wager must keep their E, because it shows both that the first vowel is long and
that th C, G is soft; and occasion, station, completion, explosion, commotion, conclusion, ablation must keep th -IO- befors final N, both because they indicate that th preceding vowel is long and because they demonstrate th palatization of th preceding S or T (contrast TO lesson/lessen/lesion, wich Rule 2 cuts to lessn/lessn/lesion, and TO cushion, fashion, wich becom CS cushn, fashn). Mor radic changes wud be needed in ordr fully to rationlize those spellings, giving perhaps *raesr, *waejr, *ocaezhn, *staeshn, but such forms hav no place in CS.

In th case of such words as agent, cogent, regent, contagion, region, th preceding long vowel requires th shwa-vow to be kept even aftr soft G has been respelt J (se Chaptr 4, §4), giving CS cojent, rejent, rejon. However, simlr words without such a long vowel befors th G (eg, TO pageant, sergeant, detergent, indigent, pigeon, dudgeon, dungeon, pidgin, religion) can be cut in th norml way by Rule 2 aftr G > J substitution (CS pajnt, serjnt, deterjnt, indijnt, pijn, dujn, dunjn, pijn, relijn).

1.6.2.XC: pencil ≠ uncl Rule 2 cannot cut th post-accentual vowel from chancel, pencil (contrast uncl), parcel, innocent (contrast applicant), cancer (contrast ancr, bankr), grocer (contrast soccr), lancer (contrast ansr). This set of exeptions to CS Rule 2 arises from th TO use of E, I to sho palatization of a preceding C; a subsequent reform cud remove this exeption by replacing soft C by S (cf Welsh pensil, parsel), giving *pensl, *chansl, *cansr, *lansr; but this is not envisaged for CS.

1.6.2.XG: merger > merjr Rule 2 cannot by itself cut th E in badger, cudgel, merger, lodger, Roger, but once soft (D)G is rittn J (se Chaptr 4, §4), Rule 2 applies, to produce final CS bajr, cujl, merjr, lojr, Rojr.

1.6.2.XI TO spells many words with final -IAL, -IAN, -ION, etc, with th preceding consnnt palatized (ie, its norml valu changed by assimilating folloing I). These endings cud only be cut undr two conditions: first th palatization wud hav to be otherwise indicated (as by substituting SH for TI), and secnd th preceding vowel wud hav to be shown as long by som othr means. A furthr objection to cutting these endings is that th process of palatization is in som cases not yet complete, and both palatized and non-palatized pronunciations ar herd; thus altho nation is today universlly pronounced with palatized T, th palatization of S in Parisian and of T in negociate is variabl. Th folloing pattrens arise:

1.6.2.1.XIAL: official ≠ musiel Th palatized endings -CIAL, -SIAL, -TIAL, as in racial, spatial, special, official, initial, social, crucial, financial, substantial, confidential, nuptial, controversial, partial, cannot be cut by CS Rule 2.
1.6.2.2.XIAN: Titian ≠ bittn Th palatized endings -CIAN, -SIAN, -TIAN, as in Grecian, musician, Confucian, Asian, artesian, Parisian, Persian, Russian, alsatian, Venetian, Titian, Laotian, Lilliputian, gentian, Egyptian, Martian, Christian, cannot be cut.

1.6.2.3.XION: suspicion ≠ republicn By far th most commn of these palatized endings, occurring in over 1,000 words, is -ION. It is variusly seen in suspicion, coercion, contagion, region, occasion, adhesion, incision, explosion, exclusion, revulsion, expansion, extension, compassion, digression, admission, concussio, ration, discretion, ignition, extraction, direction, prediction, concoction, reduction, infarction, exemption, consumption, contraption, inception, option, interruption, condemnation, completion, commotion, ablation, crucifixion. Th ending cannot be cut in any of these cases, somtimes because of th preceding long vowl (cf 1.6.1.X, abov), but always because th I is needed to indicate th palatized pronunciation (th endings of TO republican/suspicion, lesson/lesion must be kept distinct in CS as republican/suspicion, lesn/lesion). But se 1.6.2.X abov for cutting religion to CS relijn, wher neithr of these constraining factrs applies.

1.6.3.XV: With a preceding pronounced vowel. If th post-accentul shwa is immediatly preceded by a pronounced vowel lettr rathr than by a consnnt, it is for phonologicl reasns ofn impossibl to cut.

1.6.3.XV.1.L: fuel ≠ full For near-monosyllabic words of th form pail, Gael, deal, feel, dial, coal (cf Rule 1, §A.3.2), dual, fuel, CS cannot rite *pal, *Gal, *del, *fcl, *cil, *dul, *ful, since th successiv vowl lettrs indicate both th gliding pronunciation as well as th long valu of th vowls. Cutting such forms wud in fact create total ambiguity, since, aftr Rule 3 has been applied, these ar also th CS forms of TO pal, gal, dell, fell, col, dull, ful, with ther short vowls.

For simlr reasns, polysyllabic words ending in -EAL, -IAL, such as cereal, corporeal, adverbial, menial, special, do not shortn ther endings in CS eithr. Th successiv vowl lettrs EA, IA indicate th glide that is pronounced with th shift from th first vowl to th secnd (or, in th patttn of special, th palatization of th preceding C — se §1.6.2.1.XIAL abov). If th final A wer cut, ambiguities wud arise with othr spelling patttns, as th endings in *cerel, *corporel, *adverbil, *menil, *specil wud be indistinguishabl from th endings of words like compel, fulfil.

1.6.3.XV.2.UL: equal, sequel In words ending in U + shwa + L, cutting is usully impossibl for th same sorts of reasns. Wen a U pronounced as W, as aftr Q, precedes post-accentul shwa, no cut is made: CS equal, sequel.
**1.6.3.XV.3.XUL: actual > actul**

An important cut is however made in the ending -UAL (cf usul, §1.1.L.A, above), by the following reasoning: first CS assumes that the vowel in the unstressed final syllable of TO globule, ridicule, schedule, module, capsule, etc. is essentially pronounced as shwa with a preceding I-glide (i.e., not with the full long-U value of rule, from which it is distinguished by the loss of final E already by Rule 1, E.1.1.8.3, giving CS modul, etc.); next, a word like CS modul rhymes with gradual and other words ending in -UL; and therefore the spelling of these two TO patterns can be aligned by cutting them both to just -UL, writing CS schedul, modul, gradul, manul, actul, usu, etc. The phonographic quality of this spelling pattern is most apparent in adverbial forms such as final CS graduly (th LL is simplified by Rule 3, §5.2.1.LL), which follows the model of duly in both sound and spelling. The tendency to palatalize the previous consonant in some of these words (gradul, usul, actul) is still allowed for by the initial I-glide of th U in these endings.

A difficulty arises from the one polysyllabic word which in TO ends in stressed short-vowel -UL: the verb to annul. By the normal application of CS Rules 2 and 3 (simplification of double consonants), both TO annul and TO annual would be written *anul*, and the question arises whether there is danger of ambiguity from this one TO pair annul/annual should prevent the cutting of -UAL, -ULE to -UL everywhere, or whether this pair can be dealt with as an exception. The Handbook, as usual, gives priority to economy of spelling here and shows the TO -UAL endings all cut to -UL in CS, but gives annul* uncut and asterisked as a special case. (A better solution would be to respell the latter as *anull*, but CS rules do not allow for any such consonant-doubling.) See also Rule 3, §2.5.2.

**1.6.3.XV.4.MN: museum, median**

Endings such as -EUM (museum), -IUM (tedium), -UUM (vacuum), -EAN (herculean), -IAN (median, radiant), -UANT (gargantuan, truant, pursuant), -UENT (constituent, unguent) must remain uncut, since a cut form would no longer represent the specific quality of the vowel, which is a diphthong with glide. When U has its full long value before -NT, no cut is made in near-mono syllables such as truant, fluent, since *trunt, *flunt would appear to rhyme with hunt; nor are polysyllabic words such as pursuant, constituent cut, since TO offers no model for a spelling pattern such as *pursunt, *constituunt, pronounced with glide-U (by contrast [see §1.6.3.XV.3.XVL above], TO did offer the model of modul(e) for cutting the A in gradu(a)l). Similarly, U after Q as in consequent, sequence is uncut. (TO piquant, with its silent U, is cut by Rule 1 to CS piqant).

**1.6.3.XV.5.R: seer,follower,happier > happir**

Base words ending in -E, -O which add the agentive suffix -ER cannot cut it to -R: the correct pronunciation would not be apparent if seer, follower were cut to *ser, *follor. But the endings -IAR, -IER, -IOR, -UER are reduced to -IR, -UR, since TO offers models such as souvenir, picture has its final syllable has
th same pronunciation. TO peculiar, happier, superior, valuer therfor becom peculiar, happier, superior, valur. British pronunciation allows TO jaguar to be cut to CS jagur, altho Americn pronunciation articulates th final -AR.

1.6.4.XS: barn, Karen, reverent > revrnt For phonologicl reasns, certn sequences of L, M, N, R with an intrvening shwa do require a lettr to sho its presnce. Table 2 belo sets out wich sequences (those in italics) ar permissibl without an intrvening lettr and wich wud create phonographic ambiguitis if th shwa lettr wer deleted (TO forms wich cannot be cut ar struck thru). If th struck-thru forms wer cut, they wud appear to be pronounced as tho with th final consnnt string of th word(s) in brackets abov, ie, without syllabic valu for th post-accentul L, M, N, R. Non-struck-thru italicized spellings in th table ar acceptabl CS forms.

Table 2: Admissibl and inadmissibl l, m, n, r combnations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>+ L</th>
<th>+ M</th>
<th>+ N</th>
<th>+ R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L +</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>(calm, film)</td>
<td>(kiln)</td>
<td>sailr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>alum</td>
<td>Jeruslm</td>
<td>woollen</td>
<td>inslnr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M +</td>
<td>caml</td>
<td>maxmm</td>
<td>lemn</td>
<td>steamr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N +</td>
<td>panl</td>
<td>venm</td>
<td>lin(en)</td>
<td>strainr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R +</td>
<td>(girl)</td>
<td>(form)</td>
<td>(barn)</td>
<td>wandr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>squirrel</td>
<td>forum</td>
<td>Karen</td>
<td>revrnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Th table shos that, in th sequence vowl + consnnt + shwa + consnnt, th shwa must be represented by a vowl lettr between L-M and between R-M (as in alum, woolen, forum, Karen), as well as between R-L (as in squirrel) and R-N (but not R-NT — se belo for ke exampls); but no such intrvening vowl lettr is needed between othr pairings of L, M, N, R (eg, MR in steamr, NL in panl). Wen consnnts precede and/or follo such sequences directly, som of th othwise inadmissibl sequences becom possibl (as also listed in th previus table). For instnce, altho Karen must keep its E to sho th presnce of th shwa between R-N (*Karn wud appear to rym with barn), no lettr is needed between RN in revrnt (se Table 1, end of §1.5), with its preceding V and folloing T. But, as explaind at §1.1.RC abov, th shwa vowl must be kept in th endings of such words as TO brethren, cauldron, chagrin, chevron, children, rhododendron, squadron, as well as CS vetran, wich hav no furthr
consnnt aftr th N, since ther final syllabl must be distinguishd from that of eastrn, modrn, pattrn, etc. These variations ar complex wen thus explaind, but users shud find that, by sounding out th spellings concernd, they can detect wich represent th correct pronunciation and wich do not. (Som simplification of this CS rule cud be acheved by insisting that vowls can nevr be cut between R-N, so keeping th A in entrance and th E in diffrent, etc, but ther wud be a dubl price to pay: econmy wud suffr, and th trublsm -ANT/-ENT anomlis wud survive.)

Rule 2, Categry 2: cutting vowls in suffixes and inflections.
Sevrl importnt advantages flo from this secnd categry of Rule 2 cuts. Cutting E from th -ES and -ED inflections, th I from th -ING inflection, and th A, I from th -ABLE, -IBLE suffixes, not merely makes riting significntly mor economcl, but it aligns som unpredictabl variations in TO, and, abov all, allows Rule 3 to remove at a stroke nearly all th most trublsmly unpredictabl pattns of consnnt dubling in TO.

2.D: needed > needd, waited > waitd In CS, th regulr past tense of verbs is formd by adding just -D, and not normlly -ED; TO on th othr hand somtimes adds -ED (wait+ed) and somtimes -D (hate+d), depending on th base-form of th verb. CS Rule 1 alredy removed th E of final -ED wen it is not pronounced (se §E.3.1 for tuggd, lookd, pulld, drummd, pinnd, missd, nursd, etc), and Rule 2 removes it in nearly all th remaining cases, most notably aftr D, T (needd, waitd). As far as th pronunciation of th resulting reduplicated -DD and phoneticly homorganic -TD endings is concernd, th principl here applied is that sounds wich, for phonologicl reasn, must be pronounced in a givn environmnt in English, do not require to be spelt: since one cannot pronounce reduplicated DD or th string TD without an intrvening shwa-like vowl, ther is no need to spell it. As alredy seen undr Categry 1, this principl of sound-symbl correspondnce also undrlies many othr new consnnt strings created by CS Rule 2; and as observd in Chaptr 2 abov, th consistnt adition of -D as a past tense inflection introduces an elemnt of morphophonemic stability to English spelling, th lak of wich causes frequent problms in TO.

Verbs hos base-form ends in ‘magic’ E do not lose it in ther past tense forms, so that for instnce hoped, hated remain uncut. Such forms ar not exceptions to th rule that th past tense inflection adds just -D, since th lettr D is all that is addd to th base-form of th verb here (hope+d, hate+d). It will be seen in Section 3 (Rule 3) of this chaptr how cutting E from th -ED suffix of TO is indispensabl for simplifying dubld consnts in forms like TO hopped, wich can be rittn as CS hopd, but obvisly not as *hoped, wich in CS remains th past tense of to hope.
Exceptions to the general loss of E before the -D inflection occur in monosyllabic verbs ending in a vowel, since its normal long value in final position would appear to become short if only D were added (e.g., without E, ro wud become *rod, so CS rites roed). The past tense of for instance TO to key, to crow, to sue (cut to CS ke, cro, su) must therefore add -ED, not just -D, and their past tense forms ar CS keed, croed, sued (cf Rule 1, E.3.1, W.3.2.2). Polygraphic verbs ending in a vowel on the other hand can lose this E without misleading (e.g., acned, taxid, embargod, argud), because the resulting spelling does not so clearly imply a final short vowel. With verbs as base-form ends in -Y, CS distinguishes two possible sound-values for the final vowel: reply (and rhyming words) add just -D giving CS replyd (see Chapter 4, §5, for letter-substitutions; this form is not used in the Handbook until Chapter 4), while pity (and rhyming words) change -Y to -ID, giving CS pitid.

2.NG: hopping > hopng vs hoping CS cuts the -ING ending of verbs to just -NG unless their base-form ends in a vowel. Thus from sit, bar, the TO -ING forms sitting, barring are cut to sitting, barring (by Rule 3, final CS sitng, barng); but from site, bare, the TO -ING forms sitting, barring are not cut. The retain E in these cases was described in Chapter 2, §3.3, as effectively having ‘magic’ function, i.e., it indicates that the preceding vowel is long.

Just as cutting the E in TO hopped makes the doubled PP superfluous and allows CS to write hopd, so reducing the -ING inflection to -NG whenever possible enables another pattern of doubled consonants to be simplified by Rule 3: hopping avoids ambiguity with hoping by becoming hopng in final CS, tho until Rule 3 is introduced, the Handbook will write hopng. Since in TO -NG is never preceded by a consonant, there is no restriction on which consonant can precede it in CS, and typical forms with a range of preceding consonants in unfamiliar strings as then as follows: rubng, picncng, poachng, raidng, sniffng, logng, singng, lodng (after G > J, lojng), trekng, lockng, spellng, feelng, battng, tunnlng, roannng, rainng (with reduplicated N), soapng, fearng, warrng, hmrnrng, missng, rushng, coang, mouthng, living, sawng, mixng, playng, fizzng. Just as Rule 1, E.3.1, cut the E from TO pulsed, rinsed, lapsed, nursed (CS pulsd, rinsd, lapsd, nursd), so the I can be cut from their -ING forms, giving CS pulsng, rinsng, lapsng, nursng. These cuts overcome the misleadingly parallel spellings of such TO pairs as having/shaving, loving/moving/roving, coming/homing, living/driving by riting CS lovng, comng, livng but leaving shaving, homing, driving uncut because their base-forms end in a vowel.

As with the other cut inflections discussed in this section, CS gives lower priority to explicit representation of the vowel sound in the ending than to economy and regularity. However even the sound-symbol correspondence of the -NG ending may be justified on the grounds that, in a word like TO singing, the vowel in the second -ING syllable is less distinct than in the initial sing-, and if, as in Australasian speech, the second -I- is pronounced as shwa, the difference is not distintive.
Chapter 3—WHICH LETTERS ARE CUT?—RULE 2

Th only verbs that keep th -I- from TO -ING ar those hos CS form ends in a vowl: seing, skiing, going, borroing, arguing. Learns shud especially note how this exeption applies to verbs endng in ‘magic’ E (eg, as in hate/hating, compare/comparing, heve/heving, complete/completing, file/filing, fire/firing, hope/hoping, tune/tuning, endure/enduring) or in C-sofnng E (eg, fence/fencing). Verbs endng in C-sofnng -Y vary; those with anothr vowl preceding add -NG (playing, surveyng, toyng), as do those hos final Y has its long valu as in by (tryng, denyng, qualifyng); but those hos final Y has th valu of short I add full -ING: pityng, carryng. (Anothr reasn why -ING is not cut in words like carryng is that it is assumed such words will eventually hav final I like taxi, so givng taxi/taxiing, *piti/pitiing, *carri/carryng, and CS tries to avoid cutting lettrs that might hav to be restord later). Final W counts as a consnnt: saw/sawng, vow/vowng.

If CS normlly cuts th post-accentul inflection -ING to just -NG, th question arises wethr th same cut shud be made wen -ING is not an inflection, but an ordnry unstressd syllabl, as in morning, or in intrmediat cases such as wedding, wich cud be described as th -ING-form of th verb to wed. Th simplest ansr is to treat all such unstressd -ING endngs in th same way, just as all post-accentul -ER endngs ar cut to -R, regardless of wethr they ar inflections (eg, both lingr and longr — se §2.R belo). This policy will therfor be adoptd for -ING, givng final CS morning, evening, ceilng, wedng, and a place name such as TO Birmingham (UK) cud be shortnd to CS Birmngm. Words based on th noun thing, such as evrything, somthing, ar not cut in this way.

2.R: warmer > warmr

Many simpl (especially monosyllabic) ajectivs form ther comparativ by addng -ER in TO. In CS they normlly add just -R, this endng folloing th same pattrns as TO -ER in othr typs of word, as outlined in §1.1.R abov: sickr, richr, oldr, biggr, strongr, darkr, tallr, warmr, clevrr (reduplication of R), lushr, bettr, brightr (but se Chaptr 4 for IGH > Y substitution, wich produces final CS brytr), newr, shyrr. Ajectivs endng in ‘magic’ E keep it in th comparativ form: late/later, nice/nicer; and ajectivs endng in O or U keep -ER: lo/loer, yello/yelloer, tru/truer. Ajectivs endng in -Y add just R, but change th Y to I if it is pronounced with short valu, as distinguishd in th contrasting pairs hy/hyr, happy/happir.

2.S: churches > churchs

Wile th E in th -ED inflection must be cut to allow simplification of dubld consnnts by Rule 3, removal of E in th -ES suffix dos not hav th same systemic advantage, and is recommendd chiefly for its econmy (but note that th diff rently pronounced plurals of TO ax(e)/axis ar distinguishd as CS axs/axes respectivly). Wheras most TO past tense forms end in -ED, th TO endng -ES only arises aftr certn (sibln) consnnts, as in bus + es, fuss + es, bush + es, church + es, fox + es, fizz + es; words with othr final consnnts simply add S. If we accept such forms as needd, fitd, we shud hav no difficlty in acceptng at least CS bushs, churchs,
foxs, fizzs which similrly leve th shwa unspelt. Words endng in -S, howevr, retain th full -ES inflection in CS, as otherwise confusing pattms of S-dublng and -triplng wud arise: TO buses wud becom *buss, wile TO fusses wud becom *fussss. Furthrmor, th retention of full -ES aftr final S enables Rule 3 (se §1.7.SS and §2.4.SS belo) widely to regulrize th use of SS across th English languaj. Ther ar however also disadvantages in retainng -ES aftr final -S: th sound-symbl correspondnce of th inflections in a pair such as CS bushs, buses now diffs, wile th Greco-Latin -ES endng (as in TO) falsely parallels th inflection, suggestng that for instnc compasses, Ulysses hav th same endng.

2.VS: potatoes > potatoes Wen th base-word ends in a vowel, ther is alrdy gret variation with -S inflections in TO. Final A, E, I, U add just S (sofas, recipes, continues, taxis, emus), wile final O may ad -S or -ES or optionllly eithr (potatoes, pianos, ghettos); se Rule 1, §E.3.2.2 for discussion of problms), and final Y normly changes to -IES (pities, replies). CS simplfies these variations in sevrl ways. It adds just -S to final O (potatos, pianos, gettos). It removes final E from words hos base-form ends in UE, and then just adds S for th inflection, so alignng continu/continus with emu/emu. And for words endng in -Y, CS introduces a new distinction (as with th inflection -D), accordng to ther sound-valu: reply ads just S givng CS replys (cf §2.D abov for CS replyd, and Chaptr 4, §5, for lettir-substitutions), wile pity substitutes I to giv pilis by Rule 1 (se §E.3.3 for discussion of problms).

2.ST: warmest > warmst Many simpl (especially monosyllabic) ajectivs form ther superlativ by addng -EST in TO. In CS they follo th pattmn of th -S inflections and normly add just -ST. Tho this may appear to represent th pronunciation inadequatly, th pattmn is predictabl and economcl, it accords with th removal of th vowl from th othr inflections as described in this section, and abov all it enables th dubld consnts to be simplified in forms like TO biggest (final CS bigst). This cut givs oddst, biggst, strongst, darkst, tallst, warmst, clevrst, lushed, bryst, newst. Ajectivs endng in ‘magic’ E keep it for th superlativ form: late/latest, nice/nicest, and ajectivs hos base-form ends in a vowel add -EST: lo/loest, yello/yelloest, blu/bluest, hy/hyest, happy/happiest.

2.BL: etable > eatbl, edible > edbl Among th most notorius uncertntis of TO ar th unstressed endngs -ABLE, -IBLE, pronounced identiclly, and with th choice between them therfor unpredictabl from th sound (compare th synnms TO etable, edible). Rule 1 (E.1.1.7) alrdy removed th final E, givng for instnc etabl, edbl, and Rule 2 now removes th preceding vowl lettr too, producing th mostly invariabl suffx -BL (thus etabl, edbl). As far as pronunciation is concernd, it is not difficlt to accept that th suffx -BL effectivly consists of a syllabic B as well as syllabic L. In certn circmstnces, indeed, th preceding shwa is elided in speech, as wen th pronunciation of th suffxs of TO valuable, voluble is not clearly
distinguishd, so that a merger giving CS valubl, volubl directly improves sound-symbl correspondence.

With a range of preceding consnnts, this rule produces such forms as probbl (with reduplicated B), explicbl, untuchbl, edbl, inefbl, navigbl, brigbl (aftr G > J substitution brijb; simlrly elijbl), singbl, unthnkbl, availbl, redeemb, obtainbl, stoppb, hearbl, possbl, unforgetbl, forgivbl, allowbl, playbl. Final Y in words such as deny, rely can be kept, to giv such forms as undenybl, relybl. Preceding ‘magic’ E must be kept from th base word, or else restord, as in debatebl, salebl, inconcevebl, indifnebl, excusebl, irrefutebl; simlrly, a preceding E shoing a soft C or G is still needd: noticebl, managebl (aftr G > J substitution manajbl).

Difficults arise with som words, however, notably wen -ABL follos directly aftr a vowel letttr. CS then needs a way of distinguishng such pairs as TO saleable/malleable, feeble/agreeable, liable (or pitiable)Bible, doable/noble. In these particulr cases one can fairly esily make an exepson and keep th A befor BL, giving for these pairs final CS salebl/maleabl, feebl/agreeabl, liabl/pitiableBible, doabl/noble. A simlr problm can arise aftr L, M, N, R, as seen in th TO pairs flammable/amble, arable/warble terrible/gerbl, wher th usul cutting rule wud produce th misleadng parallels *flambl/ambl, *arbl/warbl, *terbl/gerbl. In these cases too it appears necessary to retain th A or I to giv flammabl, arabl, terrbl (also horribl). (Se Rule 3 for simplifying th dubld consnnts in these words.) Somthing simlr, tho with less ambiguity, hapns in certn cases aftr L, N: for instnce if one wer to cut gullible, tenable to *gulbl, *tenbl, th inexperienced readr might be temtd to pronounce these without th necessry shwa befor th -BL. Howevr, wen ther is a clearly recognizebl base-word, th problm may be small: ther seems no reasn wy CS shud not rite hearbl, obtainbl, for instnce; but th strings ORB in *adorbl for TO adorable and ERB in *berbl for TO bearable may be felt too misleading to be acceptbl.

Then ther ar words in wich a ‘magic’ E is difficlt to ‘restor’ befor BL because it was nevr prprrly ther in th first place. Can one take endure as th base-word for CS *durebl? Can one rite CS *mesurebl, wen CS mesur has no final E? Can one rite CS *inscrutebl, *invincebl, wen ther ar no base-words *scrute or *vinc? Can one rite final CS *gulbl, *incalculebl, *inedeb, *tenbl, *inumeb, *insuperebl, with no indication of a shwa befor th -BL, or *gulebl, *incalculebl, *indelebl, *tenebl, *inumerebl, *insuperebl with no TO base-word modl for th insertd E? Such forms wud seriussly undrmine a basic princl of CS, namely that TO spellings shud hav a predictbl and recognizebl relationship to ther CS equivlnts. Alternativly one may ask wether it wud be best to spell all these problematic words with -ABL, givng final CS *gulabl, *indelabl in addition to th forms that already end in -ABLE in TO; but this solution is spoild by words like forcible, invincible, hos C wud becom hard if they wer spelt *forcabl, *invincabl.

In short, ther appears litl alternativ to retaining th -ABLE, -IBLE endngs in these problm cases, untidy tho th result may be. Therfor, beside th very large numb of words hos endngs can be cut to BL, we hav to allow for th
exceptional final CS forms *arabl, calculabl, durabl, falibl, flamabl, forcibl, gulibl, indelibl, inumerabl, inscrutabl, insuperabl, invincibl, inviolabl, mesurabl, plesurabl, tenabl.*

There are also a few words that end in TO -ABLE, -IBLE, in which these endings are not suffixes. Such are TO *constable, syllable, vegetable, crucibl.* For the sake of predictability, CS rites *constbl* and (after G > J substitution) *vejtbl,* but for the reasons discussed above the intervening vowel is kept in *sylabl* (after applying Rule 3, then *sylabl*) and *crucibl.*

Table 3, below, gives an overview of CS inflections and suffixes.
Table 3: Patterns of vowel cutting in inflections and suffixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Endng &amp; Pattn  \n</th>
<th>-D</th>
<th>-NG</th>
<th>-R</th>
<th>-S</th>
<th>-ST</th>
<th>-BL</th>
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<tr>
<td>Base-word endng in consnnt (by Rule 3)</td>
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<td>fitbl</td>
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<td>playbl</td>
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<td>states</td>
<td>latest</td>
<td>debatebl</td>
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<td>spacing</td>
<td>spacer</td>
<td>spaces</td>
<td>nicest</td>
<td>tracebl</td>
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<td>brijing</td>
<td>brijr</td>
<td>brijs</td>
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<td>brijbl</td>
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<td>rinsng</td>
<td>tensr</td>
<td>tenses</td>
<td>tensest</td>
<td>extensbl</td>
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<td>shriabl</td>
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<td>slos</td>
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<td>Exeptions: do</td>
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<td>argur</td>
<td>argus</td>
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<td>argubl</td>
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<td>truer</td>
<td>sues</td>
<td>truest</td>
<td>suabl</td>
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<td>trys</td>
<td>hyest</td>
<td>trybl</td>
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<td>replyng</td>
<td>replyr</td>
<td>replys</td>
<td></td>
<td>denybl</td>
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<td>happy</td>
<td>pitis</td>
<td>happiest</td>
<td>pitiabl</td>
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<td>vollying</td>
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<td>vollis</td>
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**Rule 3: SIMPLIFYING DUBLED CONSONANTS**

**Introduction**

The third CS cutting rule deals with another major problem of English spelling, namely the uncertainty about when consonant-letters are written double and when single. Although there are some patterns of consonant doubling in TO (they may suggest a preceding short, often stressed vowel), they do not operate consistently or predictably, and misspellings, whether by writing single consonants twice or doubled consonants only once, and variations of the type TO waggon/wagon, benefitting/benefiting, gasses/gases, are common. CS aims to remove these difficulties by simplifying double consonants wherever possible, in the process very often aligning English with the spelling of various other European languages, especially Spanish.

This major irregularity of English spelling could, however, also be regularized by using such patterns of consonant doubling as exist in TO and leaving consonants double when they occur after short stressed vowels, so producing *accommodate, *committee; however, the anomaly of TT in *committed but single T in *comit would remain, as would the many single consonants found in TO after short stressed vowels. One could of course further envisage a more radical reform in which consonants were always doubled after short stressed vowels, but the advantage for readers of having a clear indication of vowel length and stress would have to be set against a number of disadvantage for the writer. Thus whereas CS simply simplifies all the double consonants of TO accommodate, committee, commodity, satellite to produce acommodate, comitee, comodity, satlite, a system of systematic doubling after stressed short vowels would merely selectively keep some doubled consonants from TO (as in *accommodate, *committee), but it would reverse the doubling patterns of TO forms such as commodity, satellite to produce *comoddity, *sattelite. Several undesirable consequences of such a system can be foreseen: there would be confusing variation between related forms such as fotografía/fotográfico, reduced economy as when very, city, body, study became *verry, *citty, *boddy, *studdy), arguably reduced compatibility with TO, and reduced resemblance to the spelling of other European languages (despite occasional overlap with Italian, as between *repubblica).

However, CS does make a few exceptions to its general consonant-simplification rule in accordance with this pattern of doubled consonants after short stressed vowels. Thus holly, with its short O does not become holy, tho TO wholly with its long O does so; and ambassador keeps SS after the short stressed
A, while the different stress-pattern of *embassy aligns with *ecstasy, etc. Readers are invited to consider, in the context of Rule 3, whether CS could usefully retain certain other patterns of consonant doubling too. For instance, Chaptr 6, §2.4, discusses whether *arro, *follo, *minno be preferable to CS aro, folo, mino or *villaj, *cottaj, *rummaj preferable to CS vilaj, cotaj, rumaj. We may here further note that Dutch and the Scandinavian languages tend to double the final consonant of monosyllables before a suffix: Dutch *dok = dock, *dokken = to dock; Danish *flok = flock, *flokke = to flock.

The following are the main patterns of consonant doubling in TO:

1. final consonants (usually in monosyllabic words)
2. medial consonants in polysyllabic words
3. before suffixes
4. whether Latin (occasionally Greek) prefixes assimilate to following syllables
5. at morpheme boundaries.

CS writes the vast majority of consonant letters single, as described below. Most exceptions are covered by one of two categories:

- disyllabic words ending in Y (eg, *holly remains distinct from *holy)
- certain patterns containing SS (eg, *discuss, *passion).

1 Simplifying doubled final consonants

1.1. MV Monosyllables beginning with a vowel: *ebbb > *eb

It is a feature of TO that most of the shortest spellings (with just one or two letters) are grammatical words such as articles, prepositions and pronouns (eg, *I, *a, *if, *he), and that very few content words such as nouns, verbs or adjectives have fewer than three letters (among native English nouns, a rare non-identical twins). Several monosyllabic words beginning with a vowel could be adequately represented by just two letters, but TO typically prevents this by doubling the final consonant-letter, as in *ebb, *add, *odd, *egg, *inn, *err. These forms contrast with rhyming monosyllables with an initial consonant, such as *web, *bad, *god, *beg, *tin, *her, which have only a single final consonant. It is claimed, in defense of this tendency to give content words at least 3 letters, that such words are more important in text than grammatical words, and it is therefore helpful for the reader that they stand out by their greater length. Whether or not this argument is valid (other European languages seem less reluctant to use 2-letter words, and in Japanese it is grammatical rather than content expressions that tend to have the longer written form), CS gives it lower priority than the economy and regularity which are achieved by simplifying such doubled consonants. CS therefore cuts these monosyllables beginning with a vowel to *eb, *ad, *od, *eg, *in, *er (readers soon learn to distinguish CS *er/*err, from TO *err/*error respectively).

Some letter names are often written with a doubled final consonant: *eff, *ell, *emm, *enn, *ess. CS writes *ef, *el, *em, *en, but *ess is not cut (see 1.7.SS below for discussion of this exception).
Many surnames end in a dubld consnnt, ofn representng oldr variants of commn TO forms, eg, th surname Chappell compared with ordnry TO chapel. Persns with such names might find simplification of th dubld consnnts helpful (eg, to overcom th current confusion between th alternativs Chappell/Chapple), indeed ther is no reasn wy th noun and th surname shud not both be spelt C-H-A-P-L in CS.

1.2.CK  Words endng in CK: lock > lok  As explaind undr Rule 1, §C.1, this digraph is treatd in th Handbook as a dubld consnnt, altho it cud also be anlyzd as containing redundnt C, and so be cut by Rule 1. This digraph is widely used in final position (wher CC, KK nevr occur), especially aftr a short vowel in monosyllabls. So we find it aftr short A in back and over 20 othr words, aftr short E in check and half a dozn othr words, aftr short I in brick and som 20 othr words, aftr short O in block over a dozn othr words, and aftr short U in buck and over a dozn othr words. It also occurs finally in som longr words, such as attack, barrack, ransack, derrick, gimmick, maverick, slapstick, bullock, cassock, charlock, fetlock, haddock, hammock, hassock, hemlock, hollyhock, paddock, shamrock, tussock.

In all these words CS rites just K (on th modl of a few TO forms of loanwords or foren names such as yak, trek, shashlik, wok, kapok, Tobruk, Masaryk) to giv bak, blak, clak, crak, hak, jak, nak (for TO knack), lak, pak (Duch pak), quak, rak (for rack and wrack), sak, shak, slak, smak, snak, stak, tak, thwak, trak, wak; chek, dek (Duch dek), flek, hek, nek (Duch nek), pek, spek, rek (from wreck), brik, chik, clik, lik, nik, pik, prik, quik, sik, slik, snik, stik, thik, tik, wik; blok (Duch blok), clok, cok, dok (Danish, Duch, Turkish dok), flok, frok, hok, nok (from TO knock), lok, mok, rok, shok, smok, sok (Danish sok), stok; buk, chuk, cluk, duk, fuk, luk, muk, puk, pluk (Duch pluk), snuk, struk, stuk, suk, truk, tuk; attak, barrak, ransak, derrik, gimmik, mavrnik, slapstik, bullok, cassok, charlok, fetlok, haddok, hammock, hassock, hemlock, hollyhock, paddock, shamrock, tussock.

1.3.FF  Words endng in FF: staff > staf  TO normlly dubls th lettr F in final position in both monosyllabic and polysyllabic words, provided these hav a singl short vowel immediately preceding. We se this in monosyllabls such as staff and som 20 othr words (contrast deaf, leaf, loaf, beef, thief, half, self, wolf, wher th F is preceded by two vowel lettrs or by a consnnt). Final FF also occurs in th disyllabic words bailiff, tariff, midriff, sheriff, plaintiff, mastiff (contrast th modrn French loans aperitif, massif, motif), and, aftr loss of final E by Rule 1 (E.1.1.4), giraff. CS rites all th abov words with singl F, givng staf, quaf, wif (from TO whiff), skif, clif, snif, tif, quif, dof, scof, buf, bluf, cuf, fluf, gruf, muf, puf, ruf (from TO ruff as well as rough), scuf, snuf, stuf, bailiff, tarif (French tarif), midrif, sherif, plaintiff, mastiff, giraf. Aftr GH > F substitution (se Chaptr 4), TO cough, enough, rough, tough ar rittn with singl F as cof, enuf, ruf, tuf.
An exeption is *off*, wich CS leaves uncut in ordr to preserv its modrn distinction from its formr variant *of*. To resolv th *off/of* anomly without ambiguity, two reform stages wud be needd, first convertng TO *of* to *ov*, and only aftr that change had been fully assimilated, cuttng TO *off* to *of*; non of this is proposed for CS (tho TO *offing* is cut to CS *ofng*).

1.4. LL  Words endng in LL

1.4.1. LL  Monosyllabic words endng in LL: *all > al*  Wethr or not they wud othrwise hav only two lettrs (*all, ill*), most monosyllabls endng in L dubl it. With precedng A, we find *all* and a dozn mor, wich giv ther A a rymng but secdndy standrd valu, and *shall*, hos A has its primary short valu; colloqool *pal* is a rare form alredy with singl L. With precedng short E we find *bell* and over a dozn mor; with precedng short I ther ar *bill* and som 25 othr (Latin-derived *nil* is a rare form alredy with singl L); with precedng O (th majority with long valu) we find *doll, droll* and som 8 mor; with precedng U (with one of its two short valus, eithr as in *dull* or as in *full*) we hav *bull, dull* and about 8 mor. It is notebl that in Chaucer’s day such words wer commnly rittn with singl L, as ar many of ther oldr compounds in TO (eg, from *all: almost, alone, also, although, wherewithal*; from *well: welcome, welfare*; and from sundry othrs: *until, dulness, fullness, fulfill, fulsome, skillful, wilful, beautiful, enrol, bulrush, smelt, spelt*, tho som of these ar rittn with LL in Americn usage). By riting al these words with singl L, CS restors medeval usage and harmnizes th spellng of base-words and derivativs, as wel as of British and Americn variants. CS rites *al* (Duch *al*), *bal, cal, fal, gal, hal, mal, pal, smal* (Duch, Scandinavian *smal*), *squal, stal, tal, wal, shal*; *bel, cel, del, dwel, fel, hel, nel* (from TO *knell*), *pel-mel, quel, sel, shel, smel, spel, swel, tel, wel* (Duch, Welsh *wel*), *yel; bil, chil, dil, drill, fil, fril, gil, gril, hil, il, kil, kril, mil, pil, nil, sil, shril, skil, spil, stil, til, thril, tril, twil, wil; dol, drol, nol* (from TO *knoll*), *lol, pol, rol, scrol, strol, tol, trol; bul, dul, ful, gul, hul, mul, nul, pul, scul, skul*.

1.4.2. LL  Polysyllabic words endng in LL: *enroll > enrol*  Certn disyllabic verbs tend to be rittn with final LL in ther base form in Americn usage, tho less commnly in British: *appall, distill, enthrall, enroll, fulfill, install, instill*. CS rites them al in British styl with singl L: *appal, distil, enthral, enrol, fulfil, instal, instil*. Such words also adopt th British singl L befor th suffix -MENT (eg, CS *instalmnt*). Conversly, CS prefers th Americn form *idyl* with singl L to British *idyll*.

1.5. MM  -gramme > -gram  This variant on *gram* and compounds like *programme* ar rittn -gram in CS (se Rule 1, E.1.1.2 for cutng final E).

1.6. RR  Words endng in RR: *purr > pur*  A few words end in RR, som optionll: *bur(r), err, purr, whir(r)*. CS rites *bur, er, pur, wir*.
1.7. SS Final SS not cut. Th lettr S ocurs especially frequently in final position, wen it regurlrly forms th plural and possessiv (se Chaptr 5 for use of th apostrophe) of nouns and th third persn singulr presnt tense of verbs. Wen it has these functions, it is usully pronounced voiced as /z/, but (according to th preceding consnnt, if any) somtimes voiceless as /s/. It also occurs in certn very commn grammaticl words such as is, was, as, his, has (wher th S is normlly voiced) and this, its (wher it is voiceless). In a very few othr monosyllabl it is voiceless, as in bus, gas, pus, and simlrly in certn commn Greek- and Latn-derived endngs, such as -IS, -OUS, -US (eg, TO basis, nervous, terminus). Singl S only occurs occasionlly in endngs othr than those listd abov (th few examples include TO canvas, lens, marquis, rhinoceros).

Final SS is distinct from final S in that it has non of th abov grammaticl functions and is always voiceless. In a numbr of cases in TO, final SS serves to distinguish one word from anothr one endng in S, somtimes with voiced/voiceless distinction too: ass/as, canvass/canvas (tho these hav th same origin), discuss/discus, his/his, princess/princes. Because this distinguishing role of final SS is importnt, it is not normlly (se next paragraph for exeptions) cut to S in CS (just as final SE is not usully cut to S; se Rule 1, §E.1.1.13).

Final SS occurs in th commn suffixs -LESS (eg, hopeless, implyng ‘without’), -NESS (eg, fitness, implyng an abstract quality) and -ESS (eg, lioness, indicating a female being), and in sevrl Latn roots with a range of prefixs, as in TO address (CS adress), confess, digress, dismiss, impress, possess (CS possess, se §2.4 belo), process. Abov al, SS occurs in a large numbr of monosyllabl aftr short vowls, such as: aftr short A (with somtimes diffrrng valus as in lass/pass) ass, bass (th fish; in its musicl sense bass has A with long valu, as in its homophone base), brass, class, crass, glass, grass, lass, mass, pass; aftr short E bless, chess, dress, gess (from TO guess), less, mess, press, stress; aftr short I bliss, hiss, kiss, miss, piss, Swiss; aftr short O boss, cross, dross, gloss, loss, moss, toss (and, mostly with long O, gross); aftr short U fuss.

Polysyllabic words endng in SS vary in structur and include TO canvass, carcass (alternatively carcase), caress, compass, cutlass, cypress, discuss, distress, duress, embarrass, fortress, harass, mattress (CS matress), morass, premiss (alternatively premise), prowess, trespass, windlass. Wen th final syllabl is stressd (as in caress, distress, duress, morass, prowess), CS leves final SS uncut (but se §2.4 belo for simplification befor suffixs beginnng with a consnnt letr). Howevr, TO forms such as atlas, canvas (with unstressd final syllabl) provide a modl for simplifyng othr words endng in unstressd -ASS: thus CS can reduce th carcase/carcass alternativs to CS carcas, and simlrly final unstressd -ASS to -AS in cutlas (French coutelas), compas (French compas), embarras (French embarras), haras (deemd to hav first syllabl stress), trespas, windlas; these forms furthr align usefully with TO -SE endngs that lose final E, such as TO purchase, CS purchas (se Rule 1, E.1.1.13). TO ofrs no modl for simplifyng -ESS in mattress, etc.
A more radical reform than CS might usefully apply final SS more widely. It could for instance be used to simplify the ending of words like TO effervesce (giving *efrvess—see Rule 1, C.3, for further discussion of this possibility) and to distinguish voiceless from voiced final -SE (perhaps contrasting *geess/chese—see Rule 1, A.2.2.2, for further discussion). Such extended uses of SS are however not contemplated for CS.

For further discussion of the problems of S and SS in written English, especially in non-final positions, see §2.4 below.

The unpredictable effect a doubled final consonant can have on the preceding vowel is neatly demonstrated through the non-identical twins puss/pus versus putt/put, which pair brings us to our next section.

1.8.TT Words ending in TT: matt > mat, brunette > brunet

Doubled T is not a common ending in ordinary English words (though common in surnames such as Beckett, Pollitt, Boycott, Grocutt), but it arises in a few monosyllables (sometimes to distinguish them from homophones with singl T, as in matt, watt (itself originally a surname), sett, butt, putt. CS rites all these with just T, giving mat, wat, set, but, put, and similarly boycot when used as a noun or verb rather than as a surname. It has, however, been noticed that readers easily stumble over a rather uncommon word such as butt if it appears with the same spelling as the very common but.

French words ending in -ETTE (e.g., brunette, maisonette) lost final E under Rule 1, E.1.1.17 (giving final TT in brunett, maisonett), and they now simplify the TT, giving CS brunet, maisonet. Though some ambiguity of stress pattern arises from this cut (contrast final unstressed -ET in bonnet, etc), the forms brunet, maisonet conform with the TO pattern of cadet, quartet and American cigaret, epaulet, and are therefore not considered problematic. (Alternatively, final TT could be kept in order to show that the second syllable is stressed, as in German brunett, kadett.)

1.9.ZZ Words ending in ZZ: jazz > jaz

A few monosyllables end in ZZ (jazz, fizz, buzz, fuzz), while others do not (showbiz, quiz), and whiz varies with whizz. CS rites all these words with -Z: jazz, shobiz, fiz, quiz, wiz, buz, fuz. The plural of fez (TO fezzes) is CS fezs.

2 Doubled medial consonants

2.1 Before syllabic L, M, N, R A very large number of English words contain a doubled consonant after a short vowel before shwa + one of the consonant letters L, M, N, R. Rule 2 (Category 1) removes the vowel letter(s) representing shwa, and Rule 3 now simplifies the doubled consonants. A range of examples with these cuts is now given, but words with voiceless SS are discussed separately under §2.4 below.

2.1.1.L: apple > apl By applying CS Rules 1, 2 and 3 together, TO gabble, trickle, puddle, snaffle, giggle, pommel, flannel, tunnel, apple, bottle, drizzle are cut to CS gabl, trkl, pudl, snfl, gigl, poml, flnl (cf TO
panel, CS panl), tunl, apl (cf TO chapel, CS chapl), botl, drizl. By DG > J substitution (se Chaptr 4, §4) cudgel becomes CS cujl. Forms endng in TO -RREL ar cut by Rule 3, but not by Rule 2 (se undr Rule 2, §1.6.4.XS), so that barrel, quarrel, squirrel, sorrel, etc, becom CS barel, quarel, squirel, sorel, and not *barl, *squirl etc.

2.1.2.M: bottom > botm By applyng CS Rules 2 and 3 togethr, TO bottom becomes CS botm (cf TO atom, CS atm, but totem with long O is uncut). By DG > J substitution, TO dodgem becomes CS dojm. A form such as TO marram, endng in -RRAM, is cut by Rule 3, but not by Rule 2 (se undr Rule 2, §1.6.4.XS), so givng CS maram. To prevent confusion with velum, TO vellum* remains uncut as an exeption to both Rule 2 and Rule 3.

2.1.3.N: sudden > sudn By applyng Rules 2 and 3 togethr, TO ribbon, beckon, sudden, stiffen, waggon, common, cannon, happen, bitten, mizzen becom CS ribn, bekn, sudn, stfn, wagn, comm, cann (se Rule 2, §1.4, for discussion of reduplicated NN), hapn, bitn, mizn. Simlrly, by DJ > J substitution, bludgeon becomes CS blujn. Forms endng in -LLLEN, -RREN ar cut by Rule 3, but not by Rule 2 (se undr Rule 2, §1.6.4.XS), so that TO barren, fallen, warren, woollen, etc, becom CS baren, falen, waren, woolen (th lattr is alrdy th Americn form).

2.1.4.R: copper > copr By applyng Rules 2 and 3 togethr, TO rubber, soccer, sticker, shudder, offer, dagger, miller, hammer, dinner, copper, scissors (se §2.4 belo for cuttng SS in this word), butter, buzzer becom CS rubr, socr, stkr, shdr, ofr, dagr, milr, hamr, dinr, copr (cf TO proper, CS propr), sisrs, butr, buzr. Simlrly, by DG > J substitution, badger becomes CS bajr. Occasionlly an additionl consnnt follos this pattrn, as in stubborn, pattern, buzzard, wich becom CS stubrn, patrn, buzrd (cf CS patr, buzr from TO patter, buzzer). It wil be noted that th Anglo-Americn discrepncy between TO traveller/traveler is here resolvd by CS travlr.

Th spellng of two pairs of words merges as a result of combined Rule 2 and Rule 3 cuts. Th first merger, with literal/littoral both becomng CS litrl, is judgd acceptbl because th words ar mor or less homophones. Th othr merger is mor problmatic, as th two words hav a diffrnt syllabl structur: by diffrnt CS cutng procedurs laterally/latterly both becom CS latrly. Howevr, th likelihood of confusion is regardd as so smal as to rendr an identicl CS form for both words acceptbl.

2.2 Befor othr endngs

2.2.1.ET Befor final -ET: bonnet > bonet Anothr set of words with meddal dubld consnnts in TO ar those that end in -ET, as in th large group based on meddal CK (eg, jacket, ticket, pocket, bucket), sevrl on LL (mallet, pellet, fillet, gullet), and individul forms such as gibbet, nugget, grommet, bonnet, rennet, puppet, ferret, turret. Simplifyng th dubld consnnts in these words may seem disturbng, because th folloing E can
suggest a preceding long vowel (poket for instance resembling poke). However, there are already examples of such spellings with single consonants in TO (eg, facet, valet, comet, planet, claret, rivet), and for the sake of regularity and economy, CS simplifies the double consonants in all words of this pattern, giving CS jaket, tiket, poket, buket, malet, pelet, filet (French filet), gulet, gibet (French gibet), nuget, gromet, bonet (Welsh bonet), renet, puppet, feret, turet. After DG > J substitution, TO gadget, midget, budget similarly become gajet, mijet, bujet. See §12.4 below for russet.

2.2.2. GE Mainly before final -AGE: cabbage > cabage A number of words ending in -AGE contain double consonants. Most can be riten with a single consonant without danger of suggesting a long vowel for their short vowels: thus TO baggage, blockage, cabbage, luggage, package, scrimmage, slippage, stoppage, tonnage, wreckage can (after G > J substitution) be riten CS bagaj (French bagage), blokaj, cabaj, lugaj, pakaj, scrimaj, slipaj, stopaj, tonaj, rekaj. To these are added some with slightly different patterns of spelling or pronunciation: TO suffrage, with its intervening R gives CS sufraj; TO barrage, collage, which as more recent French loans retain a pronunciation closer to French, show this in their CS forms baraj, colaje, with final E retained; and TO college, porridge, with their different endings, give CS colej (Welsh coleg), porij. (For SS in massage, message, passage, see §2.4 below.)

More problematic are words whose CS forms parallel other TO forms which have a long vowel; thus TO pilage, spillage, village mach silage when riten with single L; TO cottage, pottage mach dotage when riten with single T; and TO rummage, scrumage mach plumage when riten with single M. However, several short-vowel words are already riten with a single consonant in TO (damage, image, homage, manage, forage; cf also spinach), and the long-vowel counter-examples are isolated cases. Problematic for a different reason are TO carriage, marriage, which derive from a base-word whose double consonants are not simplified in CS (see §2.5.1 below for RR retained CS carry, marry); to rite *carij, *marij with single R would thus create a new spelling anomaly between related words and (despite single R in CS porij) they are furthermore not cut. However, with other -AGE words CS gives priority to economy and the regularity of not normally doubling consonants, and so rite pilaj, spilaj, vilaj, cotaj, potaj, rumaj, scrumaj.

2.2.3. O Before final -OW: follow > folo The medial consonant is doubled in many of the disyllabic words ending in TO -OW, which (except for allow with its quite different pronunciation pattern) is cut to final -O by Rule 1, §W.3.3. Double L occurs in TO shallow and nearly 20 other words; double N occurs in TO minnow and winnow; and double R occurs in TO arrow and nearly a dozen other words. Rule 3 simplifies these double medial consonants in most cases, giving CS calo, falo, galos, malo, salo, shalo, swalo, talo, walo, belo, felo, yelo, bilo, pilo, wilo, folo, holo, alow, mino, aro, baro, haro, maro, naro, yaro, moro, soro, buro, furo. Complications arise from a small group of words having the same spelling pattern, but a preceding long vowel, namely TO halo, silo, polo, lino, which create false parallels with new CS
forms such as salo (TO sallow), wilo (TO willow), folo (TO follow), and mino (TO minnow); CS accepts this latent ambiguity, on the grounds that it is the small number of long-vowel words, and not the much larger number of new CS forms, which should be regarded as anomalous. But in three cases, TO hallow, winnow, farrow, actual ambiguity would result with TO halo, wino, Faroes (the islands, but also faro as the final CS form of pharaoh), and CS therefore makes exceptions, keeping the doubled consonants in hallo* (CS recommends spelling TO hallo, hello always with U, as hulo), winno*, farro*. A further ambiguity is that CS Rules 1 and 3 together reduce TO below and bellow both to CS belo, but since the difference in pronunciation here is one of stress and not of vowel length, the common form belo is felt to be acceptable in both cases; the context, as usual, will normally ensure no actual misunderstandings arise (e.g., buflos belo belo). Ambiguity also arises between TO borough/borrow (both CS boro), but it is felt to be acceptable again because it is not difference in vowel length that distinguishes the two, and the context should make the meaning clear (e.g., th boro boros from th bank). The third value of the U-vowel is anomalous, TO burrow/bureau do not merge in CS buro/bureau. It may, however, be felt that, because of these complications, doubled consonants should never be cut before the unstressed TO ending -Ow, so that, just as LL in TO holly is not simplified in CS, the LL of hollow and the rest, should not be simplified either. Chapter 6, §2.3.5, §2.4.LT and §2.4.AMB (4), discuss this possibility further.

2.2.4.OK Before final -OCK: haddock > hadok A number of words contain doubled consonants in TO before final -OCK (shortened to CS -OK by Rule 3, §1.2, above): bullock, buttock, haddock, hammock, mattock, paddock. By applying Rule 3 both to the medial doubled consonant and to the final CK, CS rites bulok, butok, hadok, hamok, matok, padok. (For the exception of voiceless SS retained in cassok, hassok, tussok, see §2.4 belo.)

2.2.5.OP LL before final -OP: gallop > galop A few words contain double L in TO before final -OP: dollop, gallop, trollop, wallop. CS rites these with single L: dolop, galop (cf French galop), trolop, walop, so aligning these with TO develop, which already has single L. (For gossip, with its voiceless SS, see §2.4 belo.)

2.2.6.SH Before final -ISH: snobbish > snobish The ending -ISH is commonly preceded by a single consonant in TO, especially in words of French origin (radish, famish, banish, vanish, parish, lavish, blemish, relish, cherish, perish, fetish, finish, diminish, polish, abolish, flourish, punish). On the other hand, -ISH is also a Germanic suffix that can be attached almost at will to create a adjective from a noun or another adjective (e.g., childish, reddish). When thus used as a suffix in TO, it commonly entails doubling of the final consonant of monosyllabic base-words containing a short vowel (e.g., TO red + d + ish). In most cases these doubled consonants can be simplified in CS (the form radish is a good model for reddish), but in some cases there is ambiguity of vowel length. We already see such ambiguity in TO between th
short A in *lavish* (French derivation) and th long A in *slavish* (Germanic suffix attached to *slave*, giving *slav(e)+ish*). Ambiguity of this kind arises in CS from simplifying the double consonants in TO *brackish, caddish, hellish, priggish, raffish, reddish, sluggish, snobbish* (cf French *snobisme*), *rubbish* which gives CS *brakish, cadish, helish, prigish, rafish, redish, slugish, snobish, rubish*, tho th absence of a long vowel parallel to most of these patterns minimizes th danger of misreading, and perhaps only th pair *brakish/rakish* is at al disturbing. As usual, CS makes these cuts on th grounds that th gain in economy and regularity outweighs individual instances of ambiguity.

### 2.2.7 IT In Italian loan words: *spaghetti > spageti* Certn Italian loan words end in a double consonant + vowel, as in *bordello, stiletto, spaghetti, vermicelli*. These are simplified in CS: *bordelo, stileto, spageti, vermiceli*. Othr Italian loans hav double consnnts elswher, as *broccoli, graffiti*; these ar simlrly simplified: *brocoli, grafitti*.

### 2.2.8 Mislaneous medial double consonants Th CC in TO *bacchanal, tobacco, th DD in goddess, th MM in comment, and th NN in tennis* (cf Welsh *tenis*) ar duly simplified, giving *bacnal, tobaco, godess, coment, tenis*.

### 2.3 LG Varius double consonants derived from Latin and Greek
Apart from asimilated prefixs (se §4 belo), not very many Latn-derived words hav double consnnts. A few ar based on th consnnts L, M, N, R, such as th roots *villa, flamma, summus, annus, penna, terra*, as found in TO *flammable, inflammation, summit, consummation, annual, anniversary, pennate, terrestrial, Mediterranean*, which ar simplified to giv CS *vila, flamabl, inflmation, sumit, consmation, anul, aniversry, penate, terestrial, Mediterraneanean*. Most pervasiv ar perhaps th roots with RR, as seen in TO *narrate, error, horror, terror, torrent, current*, al of wich CS rites with singl R, giving *narate, torent, curent* (cf final CS *curajus*), and, as explaid undr Rule 2, §1.1.R.O and §1.4.RR, *err, horr, terr* with reduplicated R, and derivativs such as *eratic, horibl, teribl* (se Rule 2, §2.BL for th retention of I befyr -BL in these words), *horific, terific*. Such conn instnces of Latn-derived SS as *pessimism, possible* ar cut to *pesmism, posbl*, as discussed undr §2.4 belo.

Dubld consnnts ar genrly uncomn in words of Greek derivation too, but when they do occur, they ar simplified in CS. So CS removes th trap of LL in th much misspelt TO form *parallel* by riting *paralel*, and riters using CS wil then not be temtd to dubl th L in any of th derived forms eithir, wich ar predictbly *paralels, paraleled, paraleling*. Othr examples of consonant doubling in words of Greek derivation include MM in TO *grammar, dilemma, and RR in catarrh*, which gives CS *gramr, dilema, catar*; ther is also th rathr special case, TO *bacchanal*, wich afyr applyng al 3 cutng rules (Rule 1 removes H, Rule 2 th secnd A, and Rule 3 one of th Cs) becomes *bacnal*.
2.4.SS Medial -SS- selectively cut Th pattns of S-dublng ar part of th confusion in TO surroundng th spelling of th sounds /s, z/: SS altrnates with C in gross/grocer, with S in passport/pastime (without voicing), abyss/abysmal (shoing that th latr has voiced $S$), and with Z in grass/graze (shoing voicing); SS folos a short vowl in th fish bass but a long vowl in musicl bass; it is voiced in dissolve but voiceless in dissolution; it reflects changed stress in discuss/discus (voiceless), dessert/(Sahara) desert (voiced), but not in canvass/canvas, dessert/to desert. And altho intrvocalic S is normly voiced in TO, it may also be voiceless as in basin, mason, sausage (cf French bassin, maçan, saucisse) and th ‘Greek’ -SIS endngs (eg, basis, thesis, analysis). Som words may furthrmor be pronounced eithr with voiced or alternativly with voiceless S (eg, greasy, presbytery).

Despite al this variation, dubld SS ofn indicates som aspect of pronunciation in TO. It may sho voicelessness (contrast prussic/music; tho an ideal spellng systm wud regulrly use S for th voiceless, Z for th voiced sound) and/or a preceding short vowl (contrast classic/basic; tho it is inherently illogicl for a consnnt letr to indicate th valu of a vowl) and/or a preceding stressed vowl (contrast discuss/discus); but non of these functions oprates consstntly in TO, and indeed they ar ofn entangld with each othr.

CS tries to regulrize these pattns by keepng SS only aftr a short stressd vowl unless that is folod directly by a consnnt letr in CS (we se this patrn in TO, wher SS in cross is simplifed to S in th placenames Crosby, Crosthwaite, or SS in abyss becomes S in abyssmal). Thus CS keeps SS aftr th short stressd vowl in profess, professes, profession, but rites S befor a consnnt, as in profesd, profesng, profesr, or wen th preceding vowl is not stressd, as in profesorial. Disadvantages include: occasionly CS fails to distinguish voicing (eg, TO listen/risen, bosom/blossom, CS lisn/risn, bosm/blosm), and a morfeme (eg, profess, as abov) may dubl th S or not, dependng on wat folos. But as we saw, voicing of S is genrlly blurd in TO anyway, especally medially, and by givng priority to wider pattns of regularity, CS acheves significntly improved predictbility and econmy.

In deciding wen to simplify SS, sevrl pattns must be considrd.

2.4.1 Final -SS usully uncut As alrdy explaind in §1.7.SS abov, CS dos not usully simplify final -SS, because it always indicates voiceless /s/ and SS is ofn needd to distinguish such words from th much larger numbr of words endng in (usully voiced) singl -S (eg, hiss/his princess/princes). (For th same reasn, final -SE is not usully cut to -S, as explaind in Rule 1, E.1.1.13.) Som French-derived words ending in SSE (eg, finesse, lacrosse, largesse, mousse) lose final -E by Rule 1, E.1.1.13, givng fines, lacross, largess, mouss. As suggestd undr Rule 1, §C.3, final -SS cud be usefullly introduced in th longr term (tho not in CS) as an improved spellng for th -SCE in coalesce, etc (*coaless). Exeptions to th final SS patrn ar th CS prefrnce for th ‘French’ spellng marquis over its TO alternativ marquess, and (as set out undr §1.7.SS abov) unstressd -AS in th verb to canvas, and by analogy with it in carcass, cuils, compas, embarras, haras, trespas, windlas.
2.4.2 Final SS + suffixs: pasd, pasng, passes

Wen words endng in SS take a suffix beginng with a consnnt letr in CS, th SS is simplified to S. Final SS in pass then givs final CS pasbl, pasd, pasng, pasnjr, pasport, pastime (th latr as alredy in TO). Th same simplification occurs befor othr suffixs apendd to words endng in SS, as befor TO -AL in dismissal (CS mismisl — cf CS thisl from TO thistle), TO -ANT in incessant (CS incesnt), TO -ARY in emissary (CS emisry), TO -EN, -ER in TO lessen/lesson, lesser (CS lesn, lesr), -FUL in TO successful (CS succesful), -LY in TO aimlessly (CS aimlesly — cf obviusly), TO -MENT in assessment (final CS asesmnt), -NESS in TO carelessness (CS carelesness — cf seriusness), -OR in TO predecessor (CS predecesr). Litl ambiguity of voicing (tho contrast thisl/chisl) or vowl length arises in any of these cases, and such spellngs ar therfor both predictbl and ecnomic.

Wen th suffix begins with a vowl letr, howevr, th SS is kept, as in passes, and (from a difrnt root) passiv, passion, hos short A needs to contrast with th long A befor singl voiced S in invasiv, invasion. Simlr vowl length and/or voicing distinctions ar shown by SS in th pairs: basic/classic, cohesion/concession, adheriv/impressiv, provision/permission, divisiv/permssiv, confusion/concussion. In messy, mossy th SS shos ther is no rym with CS esy (TO easy) or TO cosy/cozy (this patrn is reinforced in §2.5.1 belo, wich explains th need to keep dubld consnnts wen they distinguish pairs like holly/holy).

Th stress-shift between profess/profesorial produces singl S in th latr; ther ar no contrastng forms with voiced S (cf CS advrsry/advsarial).

2.4.3 SS cut at prefix boundris: assent > asent

Th SS spellng also occurs at th boundry of prefixes and base words in thre main patrn. First, ss occurs wher th Latn prefix AD- is assimilated to a base-word beginng with S (many exampls howevr derive mor directly from French): th foloing TO forms, in non of wich is th prefix stresd, assault, assemble, assent, assert, assess, assiduous, assign, assimilate, assist, assize, associate, assort, assuage, assume, assure accordingly becom CS asalt, asembl, asent, asert, asess, asiduus, asign (final CS asyn), asimlate, asist, asize, asociat(e), asort, asuage(final CS asuaje), asume, asure. Othr words beginng with AS-, such as aside, asylum, wich also hav voiceless S, provide a modl for initial AS- in CS. Th one exeption from this cutng patrn is asset, wher th initial stresd A requires th SS to remain uncut. Th reduction of ASS- is discussd furthr in th mor genrl context of th reduction of Latn-derived prefixs in §6.1 belo.

Secnd, SS occurs in TO wher th prefixes DIS-, MIS- ar attachd to roots beginng with S-, as in TO dissent, disservice, dissident, dissimilar, dissipate, dissociate, dissolve, dissolution and misspell, misspent, misstate etc; th reduction of this SS to S (with th possbl exeptions of stresd, prevocalic SS in dissident, dissipate) is discussd in mor detail in §5.1.3.DS and §5.1.4.MS belo.

Third, altho no actul prefixes ar involvd, initial ESS- is treatd again accordng to th abov rule of keepng SS aftr a stresd vowl immediately befor
another vowel letter. In this way TO essence becomes esnce (the following letter is not a vowel), TO essential becomes essential (the preceding vowel is no longer stressed), and while the stressed pre-vocalic SS of the noun essay remains uncut, the verb to essay, with second-syllable stress, becomes CS to esay.

2.4.4 Voiced SS > S: possess > possess A small group of words contains medial voiced SS (pronounced /z/), although SS otherwise shows voiceless pronunciation. This SS is simplified in TO dessert, dissolve (also included under DISS- above), hussar, possess (only medial SS simplified here), scissors, giving CS desert, disolv, husar, possess (but posesd), sisrs.

2.4.5 Miscellaneous medial SS cut to S There remains a mixed group of words containing medial SS, which can generally follow the above rules. Many align with CS patterns with mostly voiceless pronunciation, but there are some anomalies with parallel voiced forms (as in TO with basin/raisin). The SS is simplified before a consonant in the following patterns. TO hassle, tassel, vessel, fossil, colossal, mussel, Brussels become CS hasl, tasl, vesl, fosl, colosl, musl. Brussels, so aligning with voiceless s in CS casl, psl, josl, busl (from TO castle, pestle, jostle, bustle), as well as with voiced s in weasl, chisl. Blossom, possum become CS blosm, posm with voiceless S but aligning with voiced S in bosm. Words ending in -BL such as TO permissible/invisible, possible/feasible align regardless of voicing, to give CS permissbl/invisbl, posbl/feasbl. Just as TO accessory, emissary became accesry, emisry, so TO necessary becomes CS necesry (first syllable stressed); however, necessity with preceding stressed E and following vowel letter, keeps SS to distinguish it from obesity. The two French loans TO renaissance, reconnaissance give CS renaissnce, reconasnce. TO lessen/lesson both become CS lesn. Other words have SS is simplified, either because the preceding vowel is unstressed or because they are followed by a consonant, include final CS casava, casrole, caset (TO cassette), delicatcen, mesia (TO messiah), misl (from TO missal and missile), odys, pesmism. Anomalies arise between CS ambassadr which keeps SS after the stressed short A, and embasy (cf. ecstasy, fantasy) with S after unstressed A; and between TO message, which like passage keeps SS after the stressed vowel, and its rhyme presage, which already has single S in TO (the final CS forms of these words are therfor messaj, passaj, presaj, but contrast mesnjr, pasnjr with single S before a consonant). See §5.1.3.DS below for discussion of whether SS should be simplified in TO dissident, dissipate.

2.4.6 Miscellaneous uncut SS The following all have a preceding stressed short vowel and a vowel letter directly following, and so keep SS in the following final CS forms brassica, dossir, gossip, hyssop, issu, jurassic, lassitude, massacr, massage, molasses, narcissus, ossify, Russian, tissu, vicissitude; for cassok, hassok, tussok, se also §2.2.4 above.

If the patterns of SS-simplification in CS are multifarious and may at times even seem somewhat arbitrary, it must be remembered that they nevertheless considerably simplify the confusion of TO, as well as being more economical.
2.5 Dubld consnnts kept in som disyllabic patrn
d 2.5.1 Befor -Y or -I(E): holly  One of th most deeply rootd
patns of sound-symbl correspondnc in TO is seen in th numerus words of
th structur holly, hos short O is distinguishd from th long O of holy by th
toloing dubld LL. How fundmently illogicl such a patrn is (using a consnnt
letrr to distinguish th length of a preceding vowl) is demonsrratd by som
othr languajs wich do not use this device; thus TO trolley is reduced to its
esentials in Welsh troli. Ther ar indeed som conm exeptions to this consnnt-
dublng patrn in TO, wher a short vowl precedes a singl consnnt + Y, as in
body, city, copy, lily, pity, study, very, to, wich CS ads redy, stedy (cf Rule
1, §A.2.3.1) and hony, mony (cf Rule 1, §E.3.3); but its prevlnce is seen in
th many pairs hos vowl valu is so distinguishd, such as boggy/bogy,
bonny/bony, furry/fury, holly/holy, ladde/ladies, Maggi/magi,
pennies/penis, rabbis/rabies, sonny/Sony, spinney (CS spinny) /spiny, tary
(verb) /tary (CS, from tar), tinny/tiny, Willy/wily, whiny/whiny (CS
winny/winy); simlr, tho with a medial consnnt clustr, ar knobbly (CS
nobbly) /nobly. In addition to these pairs, wher simplification of th dubld
consnnt wud create direct phonographic ambiguity, ther ar countless othr
words that sho th same patrn of short vowl + dubld consnnt + Y (or
conversly long vowl + singl consnnt + Y), and wich, if cut, wud suggest th
rong vowl valu (ie, latent ambiguity): thus if poppy wer cut to *popy, it
wud appear to rym with ropy. For this reasn th dubld consnnts in such
words ar not simplified in CS. (Se §2.2.3.O abov for discussion of wethr
dubld consnnts shud simlrly be kept in th patrn TO follow > CS folo).

Occasionlly th ‘dubld’ consnnt consists of two diffrrnt letrs. In th case of
CK, no simplification is made (TO/CS lucky), but in th case of DG,
subsitution by J (se Chaptr 4) leads to effectiv simplification (TO edgy,
stodgy, CS ejy, stojy).

Ambiguity arises between TO/CS (ie, ther is bakwrd and forwrd incompatbility)
in th case of th pair TO alley/ally. By th norml CS
procedurs TO alley loses its E (Rule 1, E.2.1.8) to becom CS ally wich by
this prent Rule 3, §2.5.1, keeps its LL. TO ally on th othr hand simplifies
its LL by Rule 3, §4, to becom CS aly. Within CS itself ther is no ambiguity,
th forms ally/aly being perfectly distinct; th CS plural forms ar allis/allys.

Self-evidntly, if two words hav th same pronunciation but differ by th
dubling or not of ther consnnts, CS can reduce them to th same spelng; thus
CS merjs such sets as cannon/canon > cann, dollar/dolo(w)r > dolr,
literal/littoral, > litrl, manner/manor > manr, medal/meddle > medl,
meddler/medlar > medlr, metal/mettle > metl, palette/pallet > palet,
pedal/peddle > pedl, pedaller/pedlar/peddlr > pedlr, rigger/rigour > rigr,
tenner/tenor > tenr, watt/what > wat; and CS reduces th first word of th
foiloing pairs to th spelng of th secnd: banned > band, barred > bard, butt >
but, matt > mat, nett > net, penned > pend, sett > set, tolled > told, tonne >
ton, warred > ward, welled > weld, wholly > holy.
2.5.2 Othrr cases: comma In genrl, wher simplifyng dubld consnnts produces ambiguity between difrntly pronounced words, no cut is made: th TO forms comma, coral, velum thus prevent th dubld consnnts being simplified in comma, corral, vellum. Anothr exeption is annul, wich wud be cut by §4.1 belo, but is exemtd to prevent confusion with annual (CS anul); se also Rule 2, §1.6.3.XV.3.XUL.

3 Befor suffixs
A consequence of Rule 2 (Category 2), wich cuts th vowl letrs from th suffixs -ED, -EST, -ING, -ABLE, is that wher TO dubls th final consnnt of th base-word befor these suffixs, dublng is unnecesry in CS.

3.1 Befor -D: hopped > hopd As explaind for Rule 1, E.3.1, loss of E from th TO suffix -ED resultd in such forms as robbd, lockd, sniffd, draggd, bridgd, trekkd, pulld, jammd, fannd, hoppd, errd, whizzd; Rule 2, §2.D produces th same effect with added (addd), fitted (fitted). By CS Rule 3, these becom robd, snfd, dragd, bried (by DG > J substitution — se Chaptr 4), trekd, puld, jamd, fand, hopd, erd, wizd, add, ftd. (Note th bakwrds and forwrds ambiguity between CS add/TO added and th TO form add; but as with th ambiguity between TO alley/ally described at th end of §2.5.1 abov, th problm only arises between CS and TO, and not within CS, wich clearly distinguishes th verb to ad from th past tense he add.) Verbs endng in -IC (to frolic, panic, etc) lose K from TO frolicked, panicked (unlike locked > lokd, etc, wich lose C) to become CS frolicd, panicd; but this now conforms to th regulr rule that past tenses just ad -D to th base-word (frolic + d), wheras TO required insertion of K (frolic + k + ed). Anglo-Americn variations such as TO travelled/traveled, kidnapped/kidnaped, worshipped/worshiped ar harmnized in CS travld, kidnapd, worshipd, and such uncertn TO forms as benefit(t)ed, bias(s)ed, bus(s)ed, focus(s)ed, parallel(l)ed ar resolvd by CS benefitd, biasd, busd, focusd, paraleld. Ths spelng patrn ensures that th short valu of th vowl remains clear wen such CS base-words as swet, dred, hed, spred, thred, tred, bom, lam, plum, succum, thum becom swetd, dredd, hedd, thredd, bomd, lamd, plumd (ie, no confusion with lamed, plumed), succumd, thumd.

A difficlty dos arise in a few cases, wher ther wud be ambiguity within CS itself with certn words hos base form ends in D. Thus by th mecanicl application of Rule 3, TO chilled, milled, willed, binned, finned, grinned wud becom *child, *mild, *wild, *bind, *find, *grind. To avoid ambiguity with th words child, bind etc, th -D form of th verbs to chil, mil, wil, bin, fin, grin keeps th dubld consnnt from TO, leving them as CS childl, milld, wildl, binnd, finnd, grinnd. As explaind in Chaptr 6, §1.3.2, this anomly can be overcom if Y is substituted for th long I in TO child etc, giving chylld, mylld, wylld, bynd, fynd, grynyd, wich wud allow TO chilled, etc, to be ritn child without ambiguity. Ths canot ocur in CS, since two stajes ar required, th first to allow th spelling-patrn chylld to becom fully establishd, to th extent that th old form child was nevr used, and only aft th cud chilld be
reduced, by th secnd staje, to child; th same two stajes wud be required by mild, wild, bind, find, grind.

3.2 Befor -NG: hopping > hopng

In th same way, th TO -ING endng of most verbs was reduced by Rule 2 (Categry 2.NG) to just -NG, giving such forms as hopng, lockng, addng, snifng, dragng, bridng, trekkng, spelng, jamng, fannng, hopng, errng, fittng, wizzng. By CS Rule 3, these becom hopng, adng, snifng, dragng, brijng (by DG > J substitution), trekng, spelng, jamng, fannng (with reduplicated N), hopng, errng, fittng, wizzng. Th CS -NG endng resolvs sevrl of th same consnnt-dublng anomlis as did th -D endng (se §3.1 abov). Thus verbs endng in -IC (to frolic, panic, etc) lose K from TO frolickng, panicking (unlike locking > lokng, etc, wich lose C) to become CS frolicng, panicng; but ths now conforms to th regulr rule that just -NG is add to th base-word (frolic + ng), wheras TO required insertion of K (frolic + k + ing). Anglo-Americn variations such as TO travelling/traveling, kidnapping/kidnapng, worshipping/worshiping ar harmznized in CS travlng, kidnapng, worshipng, and such uncertn TO forms as benefit(t)ing, bias(s)ing, bus(s)ing, focus(s)ing, parallel(l)ing ar resolvd by CS benefitng, biasng, busng, focusng, paralelng. Othr -ING words ar simlrly cut, eg, wedng. Ths spelng patrn ensures that th short valu of th vowl remains clear wen such CS base-words as swet, dred, hed, spred, thred, tred, bom, lam, plum, succum, thum becom swetng, dredng, hedng, spredng, thredng, tredng, bomng, lamng, plumng (ie, no confusion with laming, pluming), succumng, thumng.

3.3 Befor -R: thinner > thinr

Simlrly, cutng th E from th TO -ER comparativ inflection of mainly monosyllabic ajectives by Rule 2 (Categry 2) left som forms with a dubld consnnt, as in oddr, stiffr, biggr, thickr, tallr, thinnr, lessr, bettr. In fact, th furthr reduction of most of these as in CS odr, stifr, bigr, thkr, talr, thinr, betr was alredy implmntd by Rule 3, §2.1.4.R, abov, wile §2.4 cut TO lesser to CS lesr with singl S, as also in least. Likewise TO dumber can now be reduced to dumr, and th homograph number disambugnted into its ssprat forms, numr (from TO numb, CS num) and numbr ‘numeral’. TO sorer is cut to CS sorr with reduplicated R. Tho not a comparativ form, we may here also note TO picnicker, Quebecker cut to CS picnicr, Quebecr (cf TO panicking, CS panicng).

3.4 Befor -ST: thinnest > thinst

As with th comparativ of ajectives, so too wen th superlativ endng -EST lost its E by Rule 2 (Categry 2), som ajectives wer left with a dubld consnnt, as in oddst, stiffst, biggst, thickst, tallst, thinnst. Rule 3 now reduces these forms to CS odst, stiffst, biggst, thkst, talst, thinnst. Likewise TO dumbest, numbest can now be reduced to dumst, numst. TO sorest is cut to CS sorst.

3.5 Befor -BL: unstoppable > unstoppbl

Som words endng in an -ABLE suffix dubl th last consnnt of ther TO base word, as in unstoppable, unforgettable from stop, forget. Rule 1 first cut these forms to unstopabl, unforgettabl, Rule 2 (Categry 2) then reduced them furthr to unstoppbl, unforgettbl, and Rule 3 now simplifies th dubld consnnts to acheve th final
CS forms *unstopbl, unforgetbl*. In accordance with Rule 3, §2.3.SS above, the SS of *possbl, passbl* is likewise cut to produce *posbl, pasbl*.

### 4 Consnnt dublng by prefix-assimlation in TO

In words and word-patrns ultmatly derived from Latn and occasionally Greek (tho many wer transmitd and adaptd thru French), a base word wil ofn occur with many diffrnt prefixes (eg, TO *compression, expression, impression, oppression, repression, suppression*). Howevr, som of these prefixes vary in form, ther final consnnt comnly adaptng to th initial consnnt of th base word. Thus th Latn prefix AD- appears asimlated to th initial F of *firm*, with AF- in *af+firmation*, and likewise as AG- in *ag+gregation*, as AL- in *al+location*, as AN- in *an+notation*, etc. Ths process of assimlation of prefixes to base words thus givs rise to widespred consnnt dublng, as in *aFFirmation, aGGregation*, etc.

Th difficlty with these patrns of dublng is that, since pronunciation is unaffectd, riters cannot tel wen th consnnt needs to be dubld unless they lern th patrn of each word individully, or hav som nolej of th morphology of th language of origin, and misspelngs such as *accomodate* for TO *accommodate* ar therfor comn (TO *accommodate* has th aditionl hazrd of dublng two of its consnnts in this way, with th structur *ad + com + modate*).

Th difficlty is aggravated by contrastng words with simlr-soundng initial syllabls aftr wich no such dublng occurs, as hapns wen th originl Latn base-word begins with a vowl rathr than a consnnt; thus, consnnt dublng occurs in TO *innocuous* (*in+nocuous*), but not in *inoculate* (*in+oculate*). Simlrly confusing is th MM in *commit*, altho *omit* only has singl M. Elswher, th inconsistnt histry of ritn English has led to related words being spelt both with and without such consnnt dublng: TO *abbreviation, affray, peddle, warranty* hav dublng, but th related *abridge, afraid, pedlar, guarantee* do not.

Othr European languages somtimes do not dubl such consnnts wher English dos so: French has *abréviation, adresse, agression, comité, exagération* for English *abbreviation, address, aggression, committee, exaggeration* (cf also Germn *Adresse, Komitee*). Spanish and Portugese indeed hav gon much farthr towards resolvng th problm by simplifying most such dubld consnnts (Spanish *acomodación, comisión, omisión* — wich in turn leads English riters to misspel Spanish loan words like *aficionado, guerrilla* as *afficionado, *guerilla*. CS applies this regulrization of sound-symbll correspondnce even mor consistntly than Spanish, wich for instnec stil ofn dubls th consnnt aftr th prefix IN-, as in *innocuo, innovación, irregular*. CS rites *abbreviation, acomodation, adress, agression, aficionado,*
afray, comission, comitee, exageration (final CS exajration), inocuus, innovation, igurel, omission. Confusing for English-speaking lehrs of French in particulr is th reverse discrepncy, wher French dubls a consnnt that is ritn singl in English; thus French has NN in traditionnel, PP in appartement, développement, and TT in carotte, clarinette, wher English TO rites traditional, apartment, development, carrot, clarinette. A rule that English did not normly dubl consnnts wud minmize th danjer of intrference between English and French on this point.

### 4.1 Latin: affect > afect

Th main patrns of consnnt dublng occurng aftr Latn-derived prefixes ar seen in th foloing table.

**Table 4: Patrns of TO consnnt-dublng aftr Latn-derived prefixes**  
(NB not al th forms listd ar genuin Latn derivations)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix—Leetr ↓</th>
<th>ad-</th>
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CS simplifies most of the above double consonants, giving *abreviate, acuse, aduce, affect, ajoin* (already lost under Rule 1, §D.2), *alude, ammunition, anex, apear, aquire* (already lost under Rule 1, §C.2), *arognt, asume* (already discussed under SS in §2.4 above), *atend, colude, comit, connect, correct, difr, efect, exept* (already lost under Rule 1, §C.5), *ilusion, ilegibl, imure, imense, inate, innocent, irigate, irationl, ocur, ofr, opose, sucr, sufr, suggest, supose, suround*. The following special points are worth making:

1. Like single C, the double form CC has two different sound values, depending on the following letter. Except before E, I, Y double CC has the same value as hard single C, and can accordingly be simplified to C, giving CS *acord*, *acuse, oclusion, acretion*; but before the front vowels E, I, Y the second C is soft, so that the digraph CC has the value of X and cannot be cut. CS therefore rites *accept, occidnt, success, coccyx*.

2. It is assumed that the GG in TO *suggest* has the value of J, and after G > J substitution CS therefore rites *sujest*. Speakers who pronounce the first G hard (as in French) may prefer CS *sugjest*.

3. The letters J, Q, X are not literally double in the same sense as the others, but the digraphs DJ, CQ, XC arise in the same circumstances as consonant doubling elsewhere, and were already simplified by Rule 1, cutting TO *adjoin, acquire, except*, for instance, to CS *ajoin* (Rule 1, §D.2), *aquire* (Rule 1, §C.2), *exept* (Rule 1, §C.5). The simplification of the digraph XS to plain X in *exist* and similar cases was discussed under Rule 1, §C.5 above.

4. There are two different Latin prefixes IN-, one meaning ‘in’ and the other negating the base word. Examples of both are given in Table 4, and CS simplifies them in exactly the same manner. Strictly speaking, examples beginning with INN- such as TO *innate, innocent* do not demonstrate assimilation, as no change of sound or letter occurs. (See also §5 below, when the Germanic negative prefix UN- is considered for cutting in parallel with the Latin-derived IN-.)

5. The non-Latin form *ammunition* (perhaps from French *la munition*) is included in the absence of a real Latin example beginning with AMM-; it follows the same pattern of simplification as the other words given here, with CS *amunition*. We may here recall (see §2.1.3.N above) that the distinctly related word, TO *common*, also simplifies MM to produce CS *comn*.

6. Simplification of initial ASS- follows the principles set out in §2.4 above. If initial A- is unstressed, as in TO *assault, assemble, assert, assess, assign, assimilate, assist, associate, assume, assure*, simplification occurs exactly as with the other prefixes just listed, giving CS *asalt, asembl, asert, asess, asyn* (after IG > Y substitution), *asimlate, asociate, asume, assure*. If the first syllable is stressed, as in *assegai, asset* (when there is no direct Latin derivation), §2.4 prevents simplification. TO *assay* is deemed to have second syllable stress and is therefore cut to CS *asay*. The not of Latin derivation, TO *assassin* has second-syllable stress and a consonant by Rule 2 immediately after the second SS, and therefore becomes CS *asasn*.

7. Just as EX + S in forms like *ex + sist* (see Rule 1, §C.5 for other examples) had lost the S already in Latin, thus obviating any such S-cut in CS, so prefixes ending in S such as DIS- and TRANS- lost it in Latin before base-
words beginning with S + consonant. Latin had already simplified the S + S at the prefix boundary of compounds which entered English as *di + stance, di + stinct, di + strict, and similarly trans- (as in trans + port) had lost its S in *tran + scribe, tran + scend. Such words therefore require no simplification of SS in CS.

4.2 Greek syn-: syllable > sylabl A rare Greek example of such assimilation is found with the prefix SYN-, which assimilates to the initial consonant of base-words as in TO syllable, symmetry; CS simplifies these forms to give sylabl, symetry.

5 Dubl consonants at morpheme boundries
The last important category of doubled consonants in TO consists of those occurring when a morpheme ending or beginning with a consonant is joined to a word beginning or ending with the same consonant. Many of these morphemes concern either prefixes or suffixes, but this type of consonant doubling can also occur when two independent words are joined to form a compound.

5.1 TO doubling by prefixation

5.1.1 IN: innate > inate Some examples of this phenomenon were seen in Table 4 above, when the Latin prefix IN- is joined to a base morpheme beginning with N. Doubled NN then arises, not strictly by assimilation (since the prefix does not change its spelling), but at a simple morpheme boundary (in + nate, in + nocent), further examples being TO innocuous, innovate, innuendo, innumerable. In none of these cases does the base morpheme exist as a word independently of the prefix (there are no English words *nate, *nocent, *nocuous etc). CS therefore sees no objection to the two morphemes sharing a single N, and writes inate, inocent, incooos, inovate, inuendo, inumerabl.

5.1.2 UN: unnecessary > unecestry Slightly different from the Latin-derived IN- prefix is the Germanic negative UN-, since that is attached to words that do exist independently, as in TO un + natural, un + necessary, un + nerve. Additionally, many speakers feel that when they pronounce these words, they prolong the closure of the N to reflect its doubled role in both the prefix and the base-word. (They may however not regard this NN as reduplicated, in the sense of being pronounced twice as in CS cann, linn for TO canon, linen.) For these reasons, there must be some hesitation about simplifying the NN to create the CS forms unatr, unecesry, unerv. For the sake of economy and maximum consistency in removing doubled consonants, these cut forms are nevertheless recommended; but a compromise solution, removing the doubled consonants while keeping both Ns, would be to write them with a hyphen in between (un-natr, un-necesry, un-nerv), as is often done in TO with repeated vowel letters at morpheme boundaries (TO pre-empt, co-operate).
5.1.3.DS: dissuade > disuade  In addition to final SS (discussed under §1.7.SS above), and the instances of medial SS discussed under §2.4.SS, doubled SS arises in TO when the prefixes DIS-, MIS- are attached to base-words beginning with S. The confusion they cause in TO is seen in such common misspellings as *disatisfy, *dissappoint, and in the alternative TO forms disyllabic/disyllabic, and it could therfore be helpful always to write single S in the easily recognizable context of initial DIS-. In some cases special circumstances apply anyway: TO dissect is commonly pronounced as di + sect, rather than dis + sect; disyllabic with single S is already a TO alternative to disyllabic; TO dissolve is pronounced with voiced SS, so is already simplified by §2.4 above (CS dissolv); and Latn had already simplified SS at the prefix boundary of compounds which entered English as distance, distinct, district (see §4.1, Note 7, above). But while those three words had a following consonant (in each case T), the following retain SS in TO before a vowel letter: disssatisfy, dissect, dissemble, disseminate, dissent, dissertation, disservice, dissident, dissimilar, dissipate, disassociate, dissolve, dissonant, dissuade. The normal rule for simplification of medial SS (§2.4.SS above) ensures that most of them reduce to single S in CS because the preceding vowel is unstressed, giving CS disssatisfy, dissect, dissemble, disseminate, dissent, dissertation, disservice, dissident, dissimilar, dissipate. Additionally, TO dissonant can reduce to single S after losing its unstressed O by Rule 2, to give CS disnnt (cf CS consnnt). That leaves just dissident, dissipate which would not normally undergo SS-simplification, inasmuch as they have first-syllable stress and a following vowel letter; but it is felt that the pattern of consistent DIS-, never DISS-, is the simpler one to follow, and this Handbook accordingly recommends disidnt, disipate (see §2.4.5 above for further background discussion).

5.1.4.MS: misspell > mispel  Factors affecting the prefix MIS- are subtly different from those affecting DIS-. Firstly, many of these roots to which Latn-derived DIS- is attached have no independent existence (they are ‘bound morphemes’): there is no freestanding form *semble, *seminate, *sipate, *suade etc, and as with the Latn-derived prefix IN- (see §5.1.1.IN above), that fact may incline us more readily to accept a spelling with single S such as disuade. On the other hand, the Germanic prefix MIS- (like Germanic UN-, discussed under §5.1.2.UN above) is always prefixed to words that exist in their own right (‘free morphemes’), so a few beginning with S, the main examples being TO misspell, misspent, misstate. A second difference is that, while all the examples of TO initial DISS- were followed by a vowel, these three cases of initial MISS- are all followed by a consonant, and whether for that reason or because of their greater independence of the following base-word, speakers may feel that the articulation of the -SS- in MISS- is slightly prolonged (as was the NN in initial UNN-) to hint at a separate value for the first and second S (the siblnt /s/ in misstate then being more prolonged than that in mistake). Nevertheless, for the sake of economy and maximum consistency in removing doubled consnnts, this Handbook recommends the forms mispel, misspent, misstate; but a compromise solution, removing the doubled consnnts while keeping both Ss, might be to separate them with a hyphen (mis-spel, mis-spent, mis-state).
**Chaptr 3—WICH LETTRS AR CUT?—RULE 3**

misshapen is clearly of a difrnt kind, th morpheme boundry covrng th phonemes S + SH, wich ar distinct and therfor not merged in CS (altho TO ofrs a modl for an asimlated form *mishapen in threshold, wich apears to consist of th morphemes thresh + hold).

5.1.5.RR: overrun, underrun > over(-r)un, undr(-r)un
Unlike th abov prefixes in-, un-, dis-, mis-, wich ar bound morphemes and cannot stand alone as words in ther own right, th prefixes over-, undr- ar fre morfemes enjoyng gretr independnce from th base words to wich they ar atachd. CS users ar therfor likely to feel mor inhibitd in simplifyng RR in forms like TO overrate, overreact, override, overrule, overrun, and any similr compounds preceded by under-. In th case of overrate, ther is also th odity of a potential overlap with th past tense of to overeat, with overrate/overate. Wile simplifyng of RR wud be alowd by CS rules, hyfnation may seem a mor acceptbl way of avoidng consnnt-dublng in these cases. Th CS dictionry therfor has entris of th typ overrule > over(-r)ule, alowng a choice of overule, over-rule.

5.2 TO dublng by sufixation

5.2.1.LL: recoiless > recoiless, beautifully > butifuly
Consnts ar dubld at a morpheme boundry in TO wen sufixs beginng with L- ar joind to base-words endng in L, notebly with th two Germanic sufixs, ajectival -LESS and adverbial -LY.

Ther may be hesitation about simplifyng -LL- befir th sufix -LESS, just as ther was with th -NN- in TO unnecesary (se §5.2 abov): many spearkers wil feel th repeatd LL to be pronounced longr than singl L (tho not quite to th extent of reduplication). Such douts may arise afr monosylabic base-words such as goal, soul if CS rites goaless and especially soless. Th problm becomes even mor serius wen, as can redily be don in English, th sufix is add to create entirely new words: if one wer to describe a church without a steepl as steepleless in TO, Rule 3 wud reduce it to steepless (TO steeple becomng CS steep by Rule 1), so apearnrg to rym with sleepless; and th efect wud be totally ambiguus if one wer to describe a ship as TO funnelless, since TO funnel is cut to CS funl, and simplifyng of LL then produces th form funless; th problm is agravated in polysylabic words because difrncs in sylabl structur, as between TO fun- less and funnel-less, ar no longr shown. For th sake of econmy and consistncy, CS wil nevrthless rite goaless, soless, recoiless, but it is recmendd that any ambiguus polysylabic basewords be hyphnated befir adng -LESS thus steepless-less, funless.

Far mor frequent is th combination of th adverbial sufix -LY with one of th many ajectivs endng in L. Rule 2, §1.1.L.A, cuts TO principal, for instnce, to CS principl, giving th adverbial form principly; but Rule 3 then usefully simplifies th LL to produce principly, so alignng this patrn of adverb formation with that of simpl/simply (TO alredy reduces th compound simple + ly by removing E and simplifyng th two Ls). Th same
cut is made after a vowel: Rule 3 reduces TO *finally* to *finally*, TO *wholly* to its homophone *holy*, and (as for all adjectives ending in -FUL) TO *beautifully* to CS *beautifully*. A distinction is made however between TO *fully/dully*, th formr becoming CS *fully* by th abov procedur, but th latr remaining uncut in acordnce with th patrn of exeptions described in §2.5.1 abov, wich distinguishes *holy/holy*: not merely dos CS indicate th difrnt vowel valus in *fully/dully*, but ambiguity with *duly* (th adverb from TO *due*, CS *du*) is in this way avoidd too.

5.2.2.NN: openness > openness Notably trublsm in TO is th sufix -NESS wen add to a base-word endng in N, with a word like TO *openness* being comnly mispelt as *openess*. By th aplication of Rule 3, however, this is precisely th patrn that arises in CS, with *openess*, *cleaness*, *drunkness*, *meaness*, *sudness*, etc. No difrnce caused by th aparent loss of a midl sylabl from *drunkness*, *sudness* wil be herd in norml speech.

5.3.CO Hyphnation of compound words Consnnt dublng can ocur in TO wen two words ar joind with identicl contiguus letrs, as in *teammate, nighttime*, altho it is comn practis to hyphnate such forms to giv *team-mate, night-time*. Hyphnation wud also be necesry in CS with a word such as TO *pen-knife*, wich loses K, givng *pen-knife*.

Not hyphnated in TO is th uniqe compound form *cannot*. Unless this is to be ritn sepratly as *can not*, CS wil cut this to *cannot*, to mach th existng negativ contraction *can’t* (CS *cant*), with its singl N.
Chaptr 4

WICH LETRS AR SUBSTITUTED?

1 Pros and cons of letr-substitution.
Th fundmentl principl of Cut Spelng is that it regulrizes ritn English by removing redundnt letrs. Howevr, many defects of TO canot be rectified without actuly substituting mor apriprit letrs for som that ar particulrly aberant in TO. Chaptr 3 mentiond posbl substitutions to be recmendd in th presnt chaptr, altho th CS systm as a hole is largely self-suficient without any substitutions at al.

Lett-substitution in genrl has two importnt disadvantages as a method of reformng speling. Th first is that swichng letrs implies a categoricl statemnt as to th corect pronunciation of words (an insertd letr must represent th sound), altho th English language has no standrd pronunciation. Cutng redundnt letrs by contrast dos not imply that th remainng letrs acuratly represent a particulr pronunciation, but merely that they ar pronounced. Th secnd disadvantage of substitution is that it altrs th apearance of words much mor radicly than dos merely cutng out redundnt letrs.

On th othr hand, entirely ruling out substitutions limits th potential of CS for econmizing on th cumbrsm bulk of ritn English (many substitutions involv replacing two or mor letrs by just one); and without substitutions it is imposbl to overcom som of th gretst anomlis of TO. Th chaptr wil therfor now suggest a smal numbr of letr-substitutions wich enhance both th econmy and th regularity of CS, over and abov th rules for letr-omission alredy described in Chaptr 3.

2 Thre patrns of letr-substitution.
Thre patrns of letr-substitution ar proposed for CS, to acompny th thre cutng rules. They involv introducing th letrs F, J, Y in place of othr letrs, most ofn in place of G, as folos:

1 Exept in th British pronunciation of TO lieutenant (CS leutennt), th sound of /f/ shal always be spelt F, wich replaces th digraphs GH and PH wher they ar pronounced /f/.

2 Wenevr G (especialy in th digraph DG) has its soft valu, being pronounced like th letr J, it shal be replaced by J.

3 Wenevr th digraf IG has th sound of th long Y in my (as in high, sign), it shal be replaced by Y. Ths use of Y to represent th long valu of I also aplys in som othr contexts, such as wher in TO a word havng th endng of reply changes its -Y to -IE- in certn inflections (replied, replies).
Unlike many other letter-substitutions that might be suggested to regularize TO, these three entail virtually no complications, indeed they remove some complications generated by the cutting rules set out in Chaptr 3, and to that extent may be regarded as directly complementary to CS.

3 Spelng /f/ as F, not GH, PH

This substitution economizes automatically by always replacing two letters by one. There is already variation between GH, PH and F in English: for instance, *dwarf* long ago replaced -GH by -F, and *draught* is ritn draft, genly in Amerien, and in th sense ‘first ruf version’ in British usage; *fantasy* was for severl centuris spelt phantasy; phantom, pheasant wer typicly spelt with F in Midl English and ar femôme, faisin in French; in Amerien usage, *sulphur* is normly sulfur (cf French sulfurique); and innovativ commercial spelngs commonly replace PH by F, as in fone for phone. In many languages, F is always ritn wher TO has PH: among th Germanic languages, Danish, Norwejan and Swedish al rite fotograf, Dach has fotografie and German Fotografie, Czec also has fotografie; and among th romance languages Italian and Portugese rite fotografia and Spanish fotografía; Greek translitrates as fotografiki, and Turkish has fotografya. CS thus builds on recent trends and widespread international practis to regulrize an entrenched anomaly of sound-symb correspondnce in TO, wich is today shared mainly with French (in 1998 PH is to be widely replaced by F in Germn).

3.1 F for GH: laugh/laf

Th foloing ar th mor comm TO forms containng GH pronounced as F: laugh, laughter, chough, clough, cough, enough, rough, slough (=shed snakeskin), tough, trough. Aftr removing th silent O from chough, clough, enough, rough, slough, tough by Rule 1, §O.4.3, and th silent U from cough, trough by Rule 1, §U.3.3, CS respels these words laf, laftr, chuf, cluf, cof, enuf, ruf, sluf, tuf, trof. Rule 3 ensures that th final F is not doubl in any of these words (eg, CS lafng, cofng, rufng rathr than *laffing, *coffing, *ruffing).

3.2 F for PH: philosoph/philosofy

Most TO forms using PH ar of Greek derivation, as in th roots philo-, phono-, photo-, physi-, -glyph, -graph, -soph. But a few hav aquired PH in English by asociation, for instnce nephew (wher th PH may be pronounced /f/, as in Germn Neffe, or /v/, as in French neveu) and sulphur. Th PH digraph arose as a Latn transcription for th singl Greek letr phi (φ), but it can hav no justification in terms of sound-symb correspondnce in th twentieth century: th singl Greek letr φ shud be representd by th singl letr F in English.

CS spelngs ilustrating th abov roots, aplyng th PH > F substitution, ar therfor fonografic, fotografic, fysiografic, hiroglyfic, filosofic, nefew, sulfr, fesnt. Othr forms with F for PH include alfabet, esofagus, falanx,
falus, fantasm, fantm, Faro, farisee, farmaceuticl, farynx, faser, fenomnn, filanthropy, filatly, filrmonic, Filip, flebitis, flem, flox, fenix, fonetic, fosfrus, frase, frenology, fthisis, fyloxra, fyto, safire, sofisticated (aftr G > J substitution, th suf -ology becomes -olojy, givng final CS frenolojy, fyto).  

4 Spelng soft G as J  
Th widespred use of G to spel th sound of J is a serius, yet esily remedid, defect in TO, causng both mispelng and mispronunciacion. Seen in a historicl perspectiv, it is remnisnt of th confusion of th sound valus of I, J and of U, V that prevaild until around th 17th century (for instnce, modrn TO alive, journey, uncovered wer comnly rtted alive, iourneye, vncouered). For sevrl centuris now a clear fonografic distinction has been made between th vowl I and th consnnt J, and between th vowl U and th consnnt V, and it wud be equaly simpl and helpful to make such a distinction in futur between th consnnts G, J as wel.  

4.1 Problms of G/J confusion in TO. Th use of G for th sound of J leads to confusion in English on a numbr of levls, both systemic and practicl.  

4.1.1 Systemic problms.  
1) Related words somtimes difr in ther use of G, J, as in jelly/gelatine, jest/gesture, jib/gibbet.  
2) Som words ar spelt alternativly with G or J, for instnce gaol/jail, gibe/jibe, Geoffrey/Jeffrey, Gillian/Jillian.  
3) Th soft or hard valu of G is indicated in TO very inconsistntly, somtimes with and somtimes without an extra letr, typicly a foloing H or U to sho th hard valu befor one of th front vowls E, I, Y, as in TO gherkin, guerilla, or a foloing E to sho th soft valu, as in TO singeing versus singing. Th use of G as J is consequently riddl with err-prone anomlus patrnns such as: gem/get/jet, gin/begin/jinn, Gillingham (Dorset)/Gillingham (Kent), changed/hanged, ageing/raging, jerkin/gherkin, garment/guardian, guess, gild/guild, lung/tongue, yogurt/yoghurt, fatigue/indefatigable, suggest/nugget, exaggerate/dagger, George/gorge, margin/margarine, mortgagor/rigor, pigeon/pidgin, selvage/selvedge, cabbage/spinach, wastage/vestige, college/knowledge, judge/judgment, bridge/bridgeable. Furthrmor, th hard valu of final G apears difrntly in British and Americn spelling of words such as catalogue/catalog.  
4) A furthr valu (wich one myt cal super-soft, in that it laks th initial /d/ plosiv of th norml soft, africat valu of G) is found in modrn French loans, such as beige, bourgeois, genre, regime, rouge, barrage, fuselage. In practis these ar ofn pronounced as with ordnry English soft G, and it wud apear unecesry to distinguish thin in spelng.
5) Th two valus of G in TO ar an obstacl to th genrl aplication of CS Rule 2, §1.6.2.X. For instnce, altho Rule 1 cuts TO imagine to imagin, th norml Rule 2 cut canot then opra, as th resultng form, *imagin, wud apear to rym with TO waggon, CS wag; similrly, Rule 2 canot aply to TO cudgel, dudgem, pageant, sergeant, detergent, indigent, religion, dudgeon, dungeon, lodger, merger, unless th soft G is respelt as J.

4.1.2 Practicl problms.
Wen a systm of sound-symbl corespondnce is so confused, readrs and riters inevitbly make mistakes, of wich th foloing ar particulrly comm:

1) Speakrs somtimes mispronounce words containing G, for instnce giving TO ginger one or both of th hard G valus found in ganger or finger, or giving th liquid mesur gill th same pronunciation as th gills of a fish.

2) Speakrs may be uncertn how to pronounce G wen it fluctuates between hard and soft valus in related words such as misogyny/gynecology, analogy/analogous, pedagog(ue)/pedagogical. Simlr alttrnation ocurs in Latin-derived words such as TO allege/allegation, purge/purgatory, tho not in renge/renegade. Ther is also uncertnty about how to pronounce G in longevity, longitude, hegemony.

3) Mispelng of th soft/hard distinction is endemic, typicly by omitng lettrs needd to sho th hard valu of G (*vage), or its soft valu (*gorgous, *negligable, *vengance); but J is somtimes also substituted for G (or vice versa) as in *majic.

4) Frequent errs arise from th difrnt spelng of th identicly pronounced final sylabl in such words as TO spinach, manage, college, knowledge, vestige. Altho they ar al pronounced as with soft G, it is clear that substitution by J wud be a helpful regulrization. (Regulrization of th preceding vowl letr wud also be helpful, producing perhaps spinej, manej, colej, nolej, vestej [cf Welsh garej for TO garage] but such a drastic variation on th TO forms is not envisaged for CS.)

4.2 Th CS solution with J: judge/juj
By riting soft DG and G (including th super-soft French pronunciation as in genre) as J, CS resolv much of th abov confusion, as wel as acheving considrl econmis. Th CS forms with G > J substitution ar now givn for al th problmatic examples listd in 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 abov.
(From §4.1.1)
1 jelly/jelatine, jest/jestur, jib/jibet.
2 jail, jibe, Jefry, Jilian.
3 jem/get/jet, jin/begin/jin, Jilngm/Gilngm, chanjed/hangd, ajing/rajing, jerkn/gerkn, gess, garmnt/gardian, gild, Jorj/gorj, lung/tong, marjn/marjrine, morgajr/rigr, pijn (for both pidgin, pigeon), yogrt, fatige/indefatigbl, sujest/nugt, exajrate/dagr, selvej, cabaj/spinach (exptionly, perhaps CS spinaj, tho this form is not provided for by th norml CS substitution rules), wastaj/vestij, colej/nolej, juj/juimnt, brij/brijbl, catlog.
4  beij, bourjoi, jenre, rejime, ruje, baraje, fuselaje.
5  imajn, cujl, dojm, pajnt, serjnt, deterjnt, indijnt, relijn, dujn, dunjn, lojr, merjr.

(From §4.1.2)
1  jinjr, jil, gils.
2  misojny/gynecolojy, analojoy/analogus, pedagogy/pedagogic, alej/alegation, purj/purgatry, renege/renegade, longevity, longitude, hejmny.
3  vage, gorjus, neglijbl, venjnce, majic.

Othr exampls of G > J substitution in words listd in Chaptr 3 ar:
(from Rule 1, Redundnt D) baj, lej, loj, buj, gajet, porij.
(from Rule 1, Redundnt E) waje, enraje, beseje, oblije, huje, languaj, vilaj, privilej, ajing, singng, sinjng, swingng, rajng, advantajus, courajus, outrajus, pajje.
(from Rule 1, Redundnt I) contajon, contajus, lejon, rejon, relijn, relijus.
(mislaneus) geldr, gerila, gest, gide, gilote, gil, ginea, (dis)gise, gitar, gy, jenrl, hydrojn, jymnast, aknolej, wajer, ajent, cojent, rejent, cajy/cajir.

5 Substituting Y for IG and elswher
This substitution is less centrl to th opration of CS than th G > J substitution abov, but it ofrs considrbl econmis and removes som strikingly unfonografic spelngs from English, notably th only remaining GH patrn and th IG digraf in sign, etc. Furthrmor, it represents a first tentativ step towards th systematic regulrization of a major problm-area in TO, th spelng of long vowls, and as wil be explaind in Chaptr 6, §1.3.2, it has th potential for much wider use than is sujestd in CS.

5.1 Y for IGH: flight/flyt

5.1.1 Th problm of IGH  Many instnces of silent GH in TO ar cut out by Rule 1, G.2, as servng no fonografic purpose (tho, thru, etc), wile som oths pronounced /f/ ar replaced by F, as described undr §3.1 abov (eg, CS enuf for TO enough). This leves a sizebl set of GH words containing th string IGH, somtimes folod by T (th word highlight combines patrns with and without T). Simpl omission of GH is imposbl in these words because th IGH has th sound-valu of long I, wich wud othrwise not be indicated; thus TO sign, sight canot be cut to *sin, *sit.

Th -IGH set includes th foloing TO forms: bight, blight, bright, delight, fight, flight, fright, height (cut to hight by Rule 1, E.2.1.4), high, light, might, nigh, night, plight, right, sigh, sight, sleight (cut to slight by Rule 1, E.2.1.4), slight, sprightly, thigh, tight. If CS is to rid rtn English of th GH spelngs entirely, we hav to considr how best to deal with th IGH forms. Th G alone might be cut, giving hihliht, in itself a practcil posbility (indeed TO light and simlr words tendd to be spelt lht, etc in Old English), but th digraf IH for long I wud constitute a completely new sound-symbl
correspondence in English, something that CS jenrly atemts to avoid; furthrmor, th digraf İIH is not redily aplicbl to th sign patrn, th form *sihn requiring letter substitution and apearng almost unrecognizebly difrnt from sign.

5.1.2 Historicl perspectiv A historicl perspectiv, howevr, sujest Y as a natrl, evlutionry solution. Most words containing GH (exceptions ar delight, distraught, haughty, inveigh and probbly caught) derive from erlir pronunciations in wich GH was spoken as a velar fricativ (rufly th sound wich, with difrnt spelng, is herd in Scots expressions like a braw bricht munelicht nicht). Th GH in delight on th othr hand was insertd in such erlir forms as delyt, dellytte, etc by false analojy with light, and a reversion to th etymlojicly mor ‘corect’ form delyt therfor cud hav som traditionlist apeal. Mor to th point, som othr words replaced an erlir GH by Y: erlir forms of dry, fly for instnce include drigh, fligh, hos GH we se preservd in ther related nouns drought, flight. Th ‘modrn’ forms dry, fly then ofr a modl for cutng th open monosylabls high, nigh, sigh to hy, ny, sy. (For a posbl reasn wy such a substitution was erlir made in fly but not in high, se Rule 3, §1.1, on th spelng of monosylabls.) By extension, if erlir fligh became fly, then it is only lojicl for TO flight to becom CS flyt, wich in turn provides a modl for al othr words with th -IGHT endng in TO.

5.1.3 Part of a larjr stratejy But it is not only such historicl perspectivs wich sujest Y for IGH. It may at first apear that th letr Y by itselt is insuficient by TO patrs of sound-symbl corresondnce to represent th long vowl wen folod by T as in flyt (myt it be misconstrud, by analojy with myth, as flit?). Howevr, we shud remembr that CS has been stedily extndng th patrn of sound-symbl corresondnce /ai/ = Y: Rule 1, E.1.2.5, cut TO bye, dye, eye, rye to by, dy, y, ry, and Rule 1, E.1.2.6, cut TO gybe, pyre, rhym, styl, tym, typ, tyr. In TO I, Y hav thre standrd valus (se Chaptr 2, §2.2.1, §2.2.2), for al of wich both letrs ar somtimes used as alternativs (TO gipsy/gypsy, tiro/tyro, laniard/lanyard), but Rule 1, Y.3, states th CS prefrc for I with short valu (CS jipsy) and for Y with long valu (CS tyro). Th presnt proposal for an importnt new set of spelngs with long Y (flyt, etc) furthr strengthns this emerging regularity. In th confused of I, Y wich is so widesprd in TO, we se yet anothr exampl of th inadequat fonografic distinction between letrs observd in §4 abov between G and J, and in past centuris between I and J, and between U and V, and so th use of Y in hylyt contributes furthr to this historic tendncy to disambiguate letr-valu in English. In othr words, stranje tho flyt may at first apear, it is part of a wide-ranjing, long-term stratejy. Furthr steps along this path ar sujestd in Chaptr 6 (tho they ar not included in CS).

Th IGH > Y substitution thus produces th CS forms byt, blyt, bryt, delyt, fyt, flyt, fyrtyt, hyt, hy, lyt, myt, ny, nyt, ptyt, ryt, sy, styt, slyt, sprytly, thy, tlyt. In simplistic fonografic terms, th -YT forms may also be justified as
folos: TO *might* is foneticly just *my* + *T*; and it is therfor only lojicl to respel it *MY* + *T*. Two consequences of th IGH > Y substitution ar that th comparativ form TO *higher* becomes CS *hyr*; and th form *thy* for TO *thigh* has th same spelng as th arcaic persnl pronoun *thy* (this is not considrd an unacceptbl ambiguity for modrn English).

5.2 Substituting -YN for -IGN: *sign/syn*
A secnd promnnt TO patrn involvng IGH, pronounced as long I, is seen in th set of words of th typ *sign*. Silent G befor N also ocurs mor widely, but Rule 1 (especialy §G.1.3) was able to remove it from *foreign*, *sovereign*, *arraign*, *campaign*, *champagne*, *deign*, *feign*, *reign* by cutng these words to CS *foren*, *sovren*, *arrain* (by Rule 3, *arain*), *campain*, *champane*, *dein*, *fein*, *rein*. We ar here concernd just with th TO set *align*, *assign*, *benign*, *consign*, *design*, *ensign*, *malign*, *resign*, *sign*, in wich th G canot simply be omitd (othrwise TO *sign* wud be reduced to *sin*). Th strategc argumnts in favor of CS Y for TO IGH, givn in §5.1 abov, can be aplyd again to this set of words, giving th CS forms *alyn*, *asyn*, *benyn*, *consyn*, *desyn*, *ensyn*, *malyn*, *resyn*, *syn*. Som latent ambiguity arises with th Greek-derived prefix SYN-, but ther is no danjer of confusion in practis between initial SYN-, as in *synthesis*, and final -SYN, as in *desyn* because they ar positionly distinct.

TO *paradigm*, with its final -IGN, paralels th abov -IGN endngs, and can be treatd in th same way, givng CS *paradym*.

Rule 1, C.11, discusd wethr TO *indict* cud be simlrly respelt, as *indyt*. Since an aditionl substitution rule wud be required for this isolated case, it is felt to be a complication scarcely justifying th benefits, tho a mor radicl reform than CS (se Chaptr 6) cud esily make such a chanje.

5.3 Inflectng -Y-endngs: *replied/replyd*, *replies/replys*
Wile th CS forms *hylyt*, *syn* arise from a strait IGH > Y substitution, CS can use Y to improve sound-symbl corespondnce in a less radicl way in anothr spelng patrn, namely th verbs and nouns that end in consonnt + Y. In terms of ther sound-symbl corespondnce, these words fal into two distinct groups, those hos final Y is pronounced mor or less (th precise valu depending on accent) like short I, and those hos final Y is pronounced as long I, th two valu being seen in *pity* and *reply* respectivly, wich both function as nouns and as verbs.

It is clear that in an ideal spelng systm, these two endngs wud be difrntly spelt, perhaps as in *piti*, *reply*. Th unsatisfactry natur of th TO patrn is reflectd in th many mispelngs they giv rise to (including quite comnly th proposed CS forms *replyd*, *replys*). For th purporses of CS it is felt to be too drastic a chanje to th apearance of text to substitute I for final Y in th base form of evry word of th typ *pity* (wich then ot presumably to be extendd to include al adverbs endng in -LY and numerus comn ajectivs of th typ *happy*). A mor limitd oprtunity for regulrization of this endng is, howevr, ofrd by th fact that th *pity/reply* words alredy substitute I for Y in som of ther inflectd forms in TO, ie, in th -D and plural/presnt tense -S inflections.
(th -ING and possessiv -’S forms ar unaectd by this substitution):

TO pity, pitied, pities, pitying, pity’s
    TO reply, replied, replies, replying, reply’s.

CS proposes to exploit th substitution that ocurrs in TO partialy to regulrize th sound-symbdl corespondnce of these endngs.

This is don not by substitution as such, but rathr by retainng in th inflectd forms th -Y of th base form in words of th typ reply (as alredy mentiond undr Rule 2, §2.D), givng:

CS pity, pitid, pitis, pitying
    CS reply, replyd, replys, replyng.

Here we se that words of th typ reply hav achieved absulute regularity of inflection, wile th TO inflections in words of th typ pity ar only simplifyd to th extent of cutng E from th TO endngs -IED, -IES (this cut was alredy made by Rule 1, §E.3.3). A useful consequence is that th misleadingly paralel TO forms deviant/defiant, variable/reliable ar clearly distinguishd in CS as deviant/defynt, variabl/relybl.

A slyt awkwrdness arises with th possessiv form TO pity’s. As explaind in Chaptr 5 belo, CS proposes to abolish th possessiv apostrofe, wich in th case of reply’s useflu alys TO homofones replies/reply’s as CS replys. Howevr, in th case of pity, th disaparance of th apostrofe leves th form pitys, wich remains, as in TO, awkwrdly difrnt from its homofone, th basic -S-inflectd pitis, so preservng th confusing discrepncy between a thousnd pitis and for pitys sake. Th question arises wethr CS shud merj th two forms, riting pitis for th possessiv as wel as for th plural. If a later spelng reform rote base forms such as piti (thus also givng pitiing), societi, CS wud hav no hesitation about acceptng pitis, societis as both plural and possessiv forms; but pendng such a reform, it is tht wiser to keep pitys, societys as th possessiv forms in CS, so that th possessiv is formd in al cases by just adng S to th base-word.

Furthr examples of th new CS forms wud include:

CS copid/copis
    CS denyd/denys, relyd/relys,
        multiplys/multiplyd, simplifyd/simplifys

and aftr ablition of possessiv apostrofe (Chaptr 5), also

in societis of evry kind, in societys intrests.
Chaptr 5
CAPITL LETRS & APOSTROFES

Th significant feats of a riting systm based on th Roman alfabet ar not confined to th choice of letrs used in th spelng of words. Wile considrng how spelngs may be simplifyd, it is therfor worth also lookng at non-alfabetic featsurs, to se if they too cud be helpfully simplifyd. We shal here considr those featsurs that can be seen as part of th spelng systm, inasmuch as they belong to th rint forms of individul words: firstly capitl letrs, and secdndly apostrofes. Both ar found dificlt to mastr by lernrs and ar frequently misused in TO. We shal not be considrng any simplificatons to those non-alfabetic featsurs of th English riting systm that relate to larjr segmnts of rint languaj, namely capitlization at th beginng of sentnces and quotations, nor punctuation marks indicating th structur of sentnces.

1 Capitl letrs

1.1 Forms and conventions  Th Roman alfabet has two seprat forms for each of its letrs, a smalr, loer case form and a larjr, upr case form. These ar somtimes just smalr and larjr versions of th same letr shape (for instnce c/C, o/O), but they somtimes diffr markdly (for instnce f/F, m/M), and somtimes they do not hav any obvius resemblnce to each othr at al (for instnce a/A, g/G). Ther importnce for th orthografy is that ther ar ofn strict conventions or rules for th use of th smalr or larjr forms in forml riting in any particulr languaj. Languajs that use th Roman alfabet normly begin sentnces with capitl letrs, but vary in ther conventions for using them in hedngs and particulr typs of word. A peculiarity in English is th use of upr case for th first persn singulr pronoun, I (nevr i), and it wud perhaps be a useful simplification (especialy for kebd oprators) to rite it as i insted. Howevr, th use of upr case I causes litl confusion, and CS considrs that th disturbnce of th channg wud outwei its advantajs and so dos not recmend it.

1.2 Capitls for propr names  It is a near-universl convention that propr names, noteblly th names of individul places, peple and orgnizations, shud be rint with capitl letrs in th Roman alfabet. Som orgnizations, howevr, prefer to use smal letrs for ther names, usuly to giv themselvs a mor distinctiv grafic imaj in th public y (British Home Stores has for instncce adoptd th acronym BhS), or for othr reasons (th Initial Teaching
Alphabet uses the acronym i.t.a. rather than I.T.A., because that alphabet itself lacks distinct shapes for upper case letters. No change in this application of capital letters to proper names is proposed for CS, partly because proper names would sometimes otherwise have the same spelling as ordinary words and it is probably useful to maintain a clear visual distinction.

1.3 Uncertainty in use of capitals: North/north

It is the other uses of capital letters in English which cause difficulty. They are conventionally used in TO for languages (English, French, German, etc) and native of countries and places (American, Englishwoman, Mancunian, Scotsman, Spaniard, etc), for certain points or periods in time such as days of the week (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, etc), months (January, February, March, etc) and festivals (Easter, Whitsun, Christmas, etc). Capital letters are also sometimes used for seasons (Spring, Summer, Autumn/Fall, Winter or spring, summer, autumn, winter) and for points of the compass (North, East, South, West or north, east, south, west). Particular uncertainty arises when such words are used in subsidiary senses: should we write recent presidents or recent Presidents of the USA, York or york ham, eau de cologne or Cologne, French or French windows, a Dutch or dutch auction, an April or april fool, Summer or summer holidays, a North or north wind, the Western or western world, a Southerly or southerly direction? In titles of books, etc, usage is notably inconsistent in English: should we write The Origin Of Species or The Origin of Species, or The Origin of species, or The origin of species — or even the origin of species? Some versions of that title may look more acceptably familiar than others, but we cannot say categorically that only one of them is correct.

1.4 Capitalization in other languages

Not merely is usage uncertain in many such cases in English, but foreign language learners soon discover that practices vary from one language to another: French and German distinguish adjectives of nationality and languages (written with lower case) from persons having a given nationality (written with upper case): français/un Français, deutsch/ein Deutscher; while Italian and Spanish use only small letters for all these expressions (italiano, español); and conventions for capitalization in book titles are distinctly different in French and German from English. The romance languages write days of the week, months and seasons with small letters (lundi, lunedì, lunes; janvier, gennaio, enero; printemps, primavera), while German gives them all capitals like any other noun (Montag, Januar, Frühling). Not merely does the writer therefore face uncertainty in English, but familiarity with other languages increases the danger of confusion.
1.5 Capitalization unergonomic

As well as being often uncertain in English usage and prone to confusion through the influence of other languages, the use of capital letters entails certain practical, ergonomic disadvantages. Block capitals are not designed to link with the following letter in handwriting, the pen having to be lifted from the page between each letter; and in creating text by keyboard, a shift key has to be pressed specially in order to produce an uppercase letter. Not merely do capitals therefore take longer to write, but the operation of creating them is more complex and so more prone to miswriting and especially mispronunciation.

1.6 Recommendation for CS: capitals only in proper nouns

It would therefore be helpful if the use of capital letters in English were reduced to a minimum, as in some of the Romance languages, and CS proposes they be confined to proper nouns and to titles of office as preferred by the office holder, and in titles of works of art to the first word and to content words. CS will then write the examples given in 1.3 above as follows: recent presidents of the USA, Bill Clinton, President of the USA, English, French, German, American, Englishman, Manchester, Scotsman, Spaniard, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, January, February, March, Easter, Witsn, Christmas, Spring, Summer, Autumn/Fall, Winter, North, East, South, West, York Ham, au de colone, French leve, a duch auction, an April fool, summer holidays, a north wind, the western world, a southerly direction, Th Orijn of Speces.

2 Apostrophes

2.1 Punctuation marks

Writing in languages that use the Roman alphabet involves punctuation marks, especially to show the structure of sentences. In English there are quite strict and fairly clear rules for full stops, question marks and quotation marks (which may be single or double); but the use of commas, colons, semicolons, dashes and exclamation marks is left largely to the discretion of the writer. Since CS is concerned almost entirely with individual words, it makes no recommendations for the simplified use of the above punctuation marks.

2.2 Non-alfabetic marks on words

Individual words in TO also sometimes require certain marks in addition to the letters that constitute their basic spelling. One category, found especially in foreign loan words as in élite, mêlée, façade, are diacriticals or accents which serve to mark individual letters; CS generally prefers to omit them insofar as they are not essential indicators of pronunciation in English; but they will not be further discussed here. Of more
imediat concern is a secdnd categry: that of hyfns and apostrofes wich mark hole words rathr than singl letrs. Since neithr hyfns nor apostrofes relate to pronunciation, ther corect use involvs mor sofisticated analysis of linguistic structures than do th sound-symbl corespondnces of a good spelng systm, and it is therfor not surprising that they shud be suroundd by much uncertnty and err. In jenrl terms, CS wud try to discuraj ther use, as both hyfns and apostrofes complicate th riting process, and al complication is undesirebl. Th hyfn has only occasionly been referd to in previus chaptrs, notebly in conection with its role in seprating repeatd letrs on eithr side of morfeme boundris (se Rule 3, §5.2.1.LL, for sleepless/steepl-less, preen/pre-emt), and it wil not be furthr discusd here, as its aplication is fairly flexbl, and its misuse rarely attracts th severe disfavor comnly ocasiond by th rong use of letrs.

2.3 Apostrofes redundnt because problmatic? Th apostrofe on th othr hand has in theory been subject to strict rules in th twentieth century, and its misuse is usuly regardd by skild riters as a serius mistake demnstrating shameful ignrnce of gramaticl structurs. Yet in practis its use ofn deviates in varias ways from wat th rules apear to require. Individual riters ofn fail to aply th rules proprrly: they may omit an apostrofe wen it shud be presnt (*shouldnt, *womans), or else insert it wen it shud be absnt (*8 apple’s, *8 apples’), or else rite it in th rong position (*Johns’, *childrens’, *should’n). Furthrmor, th apostrofe is increasinly omitd with aparent authority in public contexts wer it myt hav been expectd, as in names of busnesses (Barclays Bank), and misused on public notices (eg, th so-cald ‘greengrocer’s apostrofe’ employd as a plural markr) much as it is in privat riting. It is also ofn unclear wen th rules require an apostrofe and wen not: thus it is in many cases posbl to anlyz a word eithr as an ajectiv not requird an apostrofe (we may rite boys room by analojy with living room) or as a possessiv wich requires one (we may rite boy’s room by analojy with John’s room). We may even perceve a difrnce of meanng between the boys’ home (stress on home, meanng wher certn boys hav ther home) and the boys home (stress on boys, meanng an institution wher boys liv sepratly from ther parents). Finaly, ther ar certn fixd expressions, such as for pity’s sake, wher th user may be unaware of th possessiv sense, and rite for pity sake or even for pities sake.

In vew of al these dificltis, it is somtimes sujestd that th apostrofe wud be betr abandnd altogethr in english: jenrly, it may be felt to cause mor trubl than it is worth; sycolojcily, it may be thot that, if so many people make
mistakes over it, it must be superfluus; and semantically, it may be claimed that, since we understand speech which has no apostrophes, it must ipso facto be redundant in writing too. Altho redundancy in speech (which has certain communicative powers such as intonation and gesture which are absent in writing) cannot be simply equated with redundancy in writing, CS is naturally sympathetic to calls for the apostrophe to be omitted, tho cautious about recommending its complete abolition. Th criterion for deciding whether an apostrophe is redundant in writing must be whether the resulting form gives rise to misleading ambiguity (ambiguity is not always misleading), and the various uses of the apostrophe must be examined in that light.

2.4 Apostrophes indicating omission

The use of the apostrophe to indicate omission has the longest pedigree, going back to the practice of so marking the many abbreviations in medieval scribal writing. The apostrophe can be used fairly freely in modern English for this purpose, indicating missing letters (bo’s’n for boatswain, the this can also be riten bosun), or missing syllables (‘bus, ‘phone for omnibus, telephone, the th forms bus, phone without apostrophe hav by th second half of th 20th century effectively achieved the status of ful, standard spellings; inconsistently, the form pram, short for perambulator, has never been riten with apostrophes). It can also be used to show defective pronunciation (as in infint speech ‘bout for about), and in a paradoxical sense one may perhaps say that in those cases the apostrophe is reflected in the pronunciation. Altogether these apostrophes may be judged to serve a useful purpose, and CS sees no reason why their fre use in this way should cease.

Elsewhere the use of the omission-apostrophe has become fossilized as a rigid convention, altho modern users are mostly unaware that an omission has taken place, as is the case with the everyday TO form o’clock (originally ‘of the clock’). Since it serves no purpose in modern English, it is omitted in CS, which rites oclok. A good analogy for this dropped apostrophe is the TO form goodbye, which has no apostrophes, altho historically it is a contracted form of God be with ye. We may perhaps generalize from this and say that apostrophes shud not be riten if they are only historicl.

2.4.1 Confusing patterns of apostrophe: hadn’t, he’d

In addition to these individual abbreviations with (sometimes optional) apostrophes, there are two important word-patterns which are correctly always riten with apostrophes in TO, and which create confusion because their graphotactic patterns differ in a rather subtle way. One pattern is the negative contraction of the typ ending in TO N’T, such as hadn’t, and the other is the pronoun-verb contraction of the typ TO he’d. Both patterns involve the joining of two separate words (had + not, he + had, or alternatively he + would) as well as the omission of one or mor
letters (O from hadnot, HA from hehad, WOUL from hewould). In both patterns, the apostrophe stands for the omitted letter(s), but in the he’d pattern, it also marks the word boundary (between he and [had]d or [would]d), whereas in the negative contractions it does not, and the word-boundary lies unmarked before the N of hadn’t. Writers then often make the mistake of regarding the apostrophe as only a word-boundary marker and apply it in that function to TO hadn’t to produce the form *had’nt. Such confusion is no doubt encouraged by the fact that in can’t, shan’t the further omission of NN, LL from cannot, shall not is not indicated by an apostrophe.

2.4.2 Cutting apostrophe from the hadn’t pattern If words of the TO hadn’t pattern contain no apostrophe, not merely would the spelling be more economical, but such confusion would not occur. George Bernard Shaw pointed the way by omitting the apostrophe from that pattern on principle (writing hadn’t). Most hadn’t type contractions are in no way ambiguous without their apostrophe, and CS can therefore write arnt, cudnt (from TO couldn’t), darent, didnt, dont, dosnt (from TO doesn’t), hadnt, hasnt, havnt (from TO haven’t), maynt, myntnt (from TO mightn’t), neednt, otn (from TO oughtn’t), shant, shudnt (from TO shouldn’t), wasnt, wernnt, wudnt (from TO wouldn’t). There are in addition two cases where omission of the apostrophe gives rise to some ambiguity. TO won’t is a homophone of TO went (meaning ‘custom’), but removing the apostrophe creates no more ambiguity than arises in speech, and the context clarifies the distinct meanings even in such a fabricated sentence as the following: it’s not my went, so I went. More awkward is TO can’t, CS cant, since in a southern English accent TO can’t is pronounced differently from TO cant; but even for speakers of that accent the danger of misunderstanding is slight (again, the context clarifies such a statement as I can’t stand cant). CS therefore also omits the apostrophe from both these words, writing cant, wont. Incidentally, won’t (as well as can’t, shan’t) does more than just omit the letter O from not (willnot), and these forms can therefore be taken as models to justify further cutting the silent medial T from TO mustn’t to give CS musnt.

2.4.3 Joined pronoun + verb keep apostrophe (he’d) The second important group of letter omissions indicated by apostrophes in TO consists of the pronoun-verb contractions of the type he’d. The main examples are: I’m, he’s, she’s, it’s, who’s, there’s, we’re, you’re, they’re, who’re, I’ve, we’ve, you’ve, they’ve, I’ll, he’ll, she’ll, we’ll, you’ll, they’ll, who’ll, I’d, he’d, she’d, we’d, you’d, they’d, who’d. It will be noticed that in forms ending in -’D (I’d, he’d, you’d, etc) the apostrophe may stand for either the HA in had or for the WOUL in would; and in forms ending in -’S (he’s, it’s, there’s, etc) the apostrophe may stand for either the I in is or for the HA in has. A somewhat different structure is the contraction let’s, which consists of the reverse sequence, verb + pronoun (ie, let us), but the following remarks apply equally to all cases listed in this section. In the pronoun + verb contractions a pronoun is joined to the truncated end of a following auxiliary verb, the truncation (and word-boundary) being indicated by the apostrophe. Some of these forms are often confused in TO with a homophone which does not have an apostrophe, TO whose,
Chaptr 5—CAPITL LETRS AND APOSTROFES

their/there for instncce being ritt for who’s, they’re; confusion of it’s/its is particrlry comm. Howevr, norml CS procedurs canot overcom these problms of homophone-confusion, and indeed removal of th apostrofes in these forms, especialy if combined with disapearance of any space between th two elemnts, wud produce even mor serius ambiguity. It myt not matr if it’s/its wer ritt identicly since they ar homofones (se §2.4.4 belo for discussion of this posbility), but merjd spelngs for th othrs (listd belo) cud hardly be acceptbl, since they wud represent two difrntly pronounced words and so conflict with th basic principl of good spelng, that sounds and symbs shud relate predictbly to each othr. Such unacceptbl merjrs wud arise as folos: TO who’re/whore as *hor; TO he’ll/hell as *hel; TO she’ll/shell as *shel; TO we’ll/well as *wel; TO he’d/head as *hed; TO she’d/shed as *shed; TO we’d/wed as *wed; TO who’d/hod as *hod. Th simplst solution in these cases is for CS to leve th apostrofe uncut in such contractions.

2.4.4 Shud TO it’s be cut to CS its? An exeption cud posbly be made in th case of it’s, wich myt lose its apostrofe to merj with th possessiv ajectiv or pronoun its. A numbr of considrations need to be taken into acount. First, ther ar som argumnts in favor of keepng th apostrofe:

1 Th two forms it’s/its indicate a significnt distinction of meanng and structur, wich it is perhaps useful to indicate by difrnt ritt forms.
2 If th contractions he’s, she’s keep ther apostrofe in CS, and th possessivs hers, ours, etc do not hav one, then th respectiv paralel forms of th contraction it’s and th possessiv its shud perhaps folo those patrns for th sake of morfemic consistncy.
3 If (as proposed in §2.5.2 belo) most possessivs ar ritt without an apostrofe in CS, th use of apostrofes jenrly wil be gretly simplifyd, and users wil then be less likely to confuse th forms it’s/its.

But th foloing argumnts may be brot against retention of th apostrofe in it’s:
1 Since riters so frequently confuse it’s/its, th distinction between them can hav no deep syclojicl reality, and a user-frendly riting systm shud then feel no need to spel them difrntly.
2 Th distinction is undrstood in speech from th context, and th context must therfor be suficient in riting to prevent misundrstandng.
3 TO has no compunction in concealing th difrnt meanngs of it has/it is in it’s (it is in it’s raining, but it has in it’s stopped raining), and therfor CS need hav no compunction about concealing th difrnt meanngs of it’s/its.

Altho these argumnts ar numericly evenly balanced, it is felt that CS shud continu to sho th difrnce of meanng and word structur indicated by th apostrofe in TO.

2.5 Th possessiv apostrofe
In gramaticl terms, TO may be said to indicate singulr possessivs by insertng an apostrofe befor th possessiv S (the dog’s kennel), and plural possessivs by adng an apostrofe aftr th plural S (the dogs’ kennels), but with complications wen th base-word alredy ends in S. Posbly simplr is th non-
CUT SPELNG Part I: th systm explaind

gramaticl definition, wich merely says: to indicate possession, ad ’S, unless th word alredy ends in S (that covrs plural S and othr S endngs), in wich case just ad apostrofe.

2.5.1 Confusion over th possessiv apostrofe Confusion over th use of th possessiv apostrofe is endemic. Firstly, since no difrnce is herd between th pronunciation of dog’s, dogs’, and th non-posessiv plural dogs, pronunciation is no gide to th need for an apostrofe in th ritn form, or to its position. Th use of possessiv apostrofe is furthr complicated by variations in position that do not acord with th norml rule; for exampl, iregulr plurals not endng in S form ther possessivs by adng ’S (eg, men’s, women’s, children’s; in othr words, these plurals behave like singulrs); and conversly, singulrs hos base form ends in S may form ther possessivs by adng ’ aftr th S (Achilles’, Erasmus’; in othr words, these singulrs behave like plurals; but such possessivs ar ofn also ritn with apostrofe + S: Erasmus’s). Possessiv pronouns behave even mor inconsistntly: most do not use apostrofe at al (hers, its, ours, yours, theirs), but one’s dos so, wile whose ads a final E insted (wich is cut by CS Rule 1, E.1.1.13, givng th final CS form hos). Th ultmat complication ocurs wen a title ending in S requires both quotation marks and an apostrofe: Fowler’s Modern English Usage spends a paragraf reslng with th best position for th apostrofe in th frase “in the ‘Times’’s opinion”, but virtuly confesses itself defeatd.

A furthr complication arises from a tendncy, wich was mor prevlnt in erlir centuris, to insert an apostrofe befor a plural S. It is stil comn, and indeed not adversely comentd on, for abreviations and numerals such as MP’s, the 1960’s to apear in TO with th apostrofe efectivly servng as a plural markr. On th othr hand, th analogus ‘greengrocer’s apostrofe’, used indiscrimnatly as a jenrl markr of plurals as in apple’s, pears’ (or apples’, pear’s) is considrd strictly ungramaticl.

In vew of th jenrl complexity of th rules and patrns for th possessiv apostrofe in TO, it is not at al surprising that it shud be frequently misused.

2.5.2 Cutng th possessiv apostrofe Clearly, if no possessiv apostrofes wer used, they cud nevr be misused. How far can CS then remove them without introducing unacceptbl ambiguity? As alredy observd, it is somtimes argud that since apostrofes ar not reflectd in pronunciation, they canot be needd in riting eithr. CS deals with th specific patrns as folos:

1) Th simplst cut, wich CS can imediatly make, is to alyn one’s with th othr pronouns, givng ones, hers, ours, yrs, theirs, hos.

2) CS can cut th apostrofe from iregulr plurals, since ther ar no othr -S forms with wich such plurals cud be confused: CS childrens, mens, womens can only be possessiv.

3) If possessivs ad -S without apostrofe in CS, they wil normly be distinguishd from ordnry plural S-forms by th context. Thus, in th frase th dogs kenl, th sequence of two nouns, dogs + kenl, th first with final S, can only be construd as indicating possession. Nevrtbhles, potential minor
ambiguities may arise. One is no mor than th ambiguity inherent in speech, wen CS *th dogs kenl* dos not indicate wethr one dog or mor is involvd (contrast TO *the dog’s kennel, the dogs’ kennel*, wich ar explicit on this point). Anothr ambiguity can theortically arise wen th form of th foloing noun coincides with that of a verb. Thus if th apostrofe is removed from TO *we saw the ship’s sail* to giv we saw *th ships sail*; only th brodr context can tel us wethr we saw *th sail of th ship* or *th ships sailng*. Th frase *th parents reply* even harbrs a tripl ambiguity, as between *th parents ar replying, th reply of th parent* and *th reply of th parents*, tho even in these cases we may expect th wider context to clarify th intendd meaning (ther is no ambiguity between *th parents reply was imediat* and *evry year th parents reply imediatly*). Altogether, it aparets that CS can unproblmaticly abandn th apostrofe at least for singulr possesivs, th complications of its abandonmmt from th plural possesiv -S’too being furthr discusd undr §5 belo.

4) With no singulr possesiv apostrofe, uncertnty about th possesiv forms of words with a base form endng in S is also removed: they ar simply rittn as pronounced. CS can rite *Achilles heel, Erasmus works, in ‘Th Times’ opinion*; but -ES can be add if th riter wishs th word to be so pronounced: *Achilleses, Erasmuses, ‘Th Times’es*. No ambiguity arises with th form *th bosses dautr* (TO *th boss’s daughter*), but, as discusd next, *th bosses dautrs* cud represent eithr *th boss’s daughters* or *the bosses’ daughters* in TO.

5) Th loss of grafic distinctions between th TO singulr possesiv sufxf -S and th TO plural possesiv -S’ wud admitly make CS marjnly less explicit than TO. If we rite *th dogs kenls*, it is unclear wethr one dog with mor than one kenl, or mor than one dog, each with its own kenl(s), is ment (TO dos not, of corse, provide th ultmat in gramaticl infrmation by indicating how many kenls each dog has, and we may conclude that precision about how many dogs ar involvd is equaly superfllus). Since th ambiguity between singulr and plural possesivs is also presnt in speech, we may say that it is to that extent inherent in th gramr of english. A conservativ aproach myt say that, altho singulr possesiv apostrofes ar redundnt in CS, an apostrofe may be placed aftr th plural inflection -S in possesivs wher th riter wishes to ensure ther is no confusion between singulr and plural. We cud then normly asume from th context that *th dogs kenl* implys one dog, and *th dogs kenls* implys mor than one dog, but th apostrofe in *th dogs’ kenl* wud imply a singl kenl shared by mor than one dog (we myt fancifuly anlyz th apostrofe as standng for an omitd possesiv -ES, as tho ther wer a ful, explicit plural possesiv form *dogses!*). Howevr, since such a device wud be needd so rarely, it myt wel lead to as much confusion as exists in TO. Lawyrs tend to be particulrly worrid about th danjers of ambiguity (tho ther dislike of commas belies such fears), warnng of disputes that myt arise if a wil, for instnce, did not distinguish *her grandson’s inheritance* from *her grandsons’ inheritance*. (Incidently, we may note that no ambiguity between singulr and plural possesivs arises even in CS with nouns endng in Y, pronounced as in *pity: th cuntrys bordrs ar th bordrs of one cuntry, wile th cuntris bordrs ar th bordrs of mor than one*
country.) However, much clearer than both rearr with apostrophes in these cases would be to reword the statement to make the singular or plural explicit by inserting **of**. So, in rare cases where the distinction was essential, we may say: *the kennels of the dog(s), the daughters of the boss(es)*, *the inheritance of the grandson(s)*; further clarification could be achieved by inserting **each**, thus *the kennel of each dog, the daughter(s) of each boss, the inheritance of each grandson*. Such formulations would be unambiguous both in speech and in writing. (We may note that the Romance languages have resorted to precisely this device, following the loss of the original Latin possessive endings: thus Latin *filius, filii* [= son, sons] merges as *fils* in French, and where Latin had *fili, filiorum* [= son’s, sons’], French has to say *du fils, des fils* [= of the son, of the sons]. In most cases absolute non-ambiguity would be unnecessary in writing as in speech, and there should be no real problem about accepting some marginal ambiguity of singular and plural possessives.

- Insofar as the possessive apostrophe has been shown to be redundant, it can therefore be dispensed with in CS.

Table 5 outlines different patterns of apostrophe omission in CS.

**Table 5: Cutting apostrophes in CS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>TO</th>
<th>CS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Historic apostrophe</td>
<td>o’clock, ‘bus, ’phone</td>
<td>oclock, bus, fone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternativ without apostrophe</td>
<td>bo’s’n</td>
<td>bosun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>hers, its, one’s, whose</td>
<td>hers, its, ones, hos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negativ contraction</td>
<td>shouldn’t, mustn’t</td>
<td>shudnt, musnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joind pronoun + verb</td>
<td>he’d, she’ll, they’re, you’ve, let’s, it’s</td>
<td>he’d, she’l, they’r, u’v, let’s, it’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural apostrophe</td>
<td>MP’s, 1960’s, *apple’s</td>
<td>MPs, 1960s, apls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singulr possessiv</td>
<td>John’s, dog’s, grandson’s, country’s</td>
<td>Jons, dogs, grandsons, countrys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singulr endng in -S</td>
<td>Achilles’, Achilles’s Erasmus’, Erasmus’s ‘The Times’s’ opinion boss’s</td>
<td>Achilles, Achilese, Erasmus, Erasmuses ‘Th Times’ opinion bosses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iregulr plural possessiv</td>
<td>children’s, men’s, women’s, countries’</td>
<td>childrens, mens, womens, countrys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulr plural possessiv</td>
<td>the dogs’ kennel(s), the grandsons’ inheritance, the bosses’ daughters</td>
<td>th kenl(s) of th dogs th inheritnce of th grandsons th dautrs of th bosses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 Riting numbrs as numerals
Amongst th most aberant of TO spelngs ar th numbrs one, two, four. It is felt that, in vew of th importnce of th corect undrstandng of numbrs for purposes of practicl comunication, no risk shud be taken of causing confusion by cutng, say, two, four to th form of th comn prepositions, to and for (this point was discusd undr Rule 1, U.3.3 and W.2; TO fourteen, howevr, alyns with forty as CS fourteen.) On th othr hand, th aberant spelngs cud be avoidd by normly riting such words numericly as 1, 2, 3, 4, etc, rathr than alfabcically; and for th sake of consistncy and econmy, this practis cud be adoptd for al numerals. A problm dos, howevr, then arise with special alfabcetic or gramaticl uses of numerals: shud th pronoun one be ritn as a numeral? shud TO twosome be ritn as CS 2-sm? CS prefers to er on th side of caution in these cases, and keeps to th TO forms. Se Chapter 6 §1.5 for discussion of th posbility of respelng one, two as *wn, *tw.
1 GOING BEYOND CS

1.1 Historic evolution

Al languages change in the course of time, most obviously in their pronunciation and vocabulary, but also in their grammar. If the writing system one is most familiar with shows little sign of changing, it may be less obvious that writing systems also do so. Some systems, however, have actually become extinct because they ceased to be fitted to their purpose (e.g., hieroglyphics and cuneiform), and the alphabet itself has steadily evolved through the millennia, adapting to different languages, adding and losing letters and diacritics, and changing letter shapes to suit new technologies, from the quill pen to the computer. Similarly, evolution takes place within the writing systems of individual languages, sometimes planned and far-reaching, but sometimes, as in the case of English, haphazard and inconsequential. Failure to modernize over a long period inevitably leads to difficulties for learners and users. If, as in English today, there is dissatisfaction with a writing system, the idea may arise that a single reform could permanently and totally rectify its defects. This must ultimately be an illusion, both because future change in the language will one day render even the best desynodic reform obsolete, and because, especially in English, the alphabet is such a crude system that it cannot possibly do full justice to the representation of all the subtleties of the spoken language and its many regional variations. And so CS is to be seen not as a permanent cure for all the ills of TO, but merely as a tidying up exercise appropriate to the end of the 20th century, and a stage in the unending process of natural change that in written English has been blocked for too long.

1.2 Looking beyond CS

CS has impermanence built into it. It is a concept for the practical improvement of written English within the self-imposed limit of mainly just removing letters, few letters not already contained in the TO form of words being substituted. This limit is imposed because to go beyond it would entail problems (such as determining a standard pronunciation) which are far more complex than the simple process of eliminating redundant letters, and because a more far-reaching reform would take CS beyond what is likely to be publicly acceptable. But implicit in these limits to CS is also the recognition that there are many confusing features of TO which ideally need rationalizing and with which the rules of CS do not touch. The first part of this chapter examines further simplifications which could follow logically on from CS as proposed in the preceding chapters, in other words further
reforms that myt subsequently be envisajd aftr CS had becom establishd. It wil be observd that som of th chanjes discusd begin with modest substitutions to remove notorius bugbers of TO, but then go furthr to sujest much mor sweepng, revlutionry chanjes that afect th apearance of ritn english far mor profoundly. Chanjes of th latr kind, it is presumed, ar too radicl to be considrd for erly introduction.

We may here mention a new reform proposal, LOJIKON (Deodhekar, 1995), wich, as a first-staje reform, confines itself to th regulrization of consnnt-spelngs, because th consnnts of english ar far esir to regulrize than th vowls. Many of its chanjes coincide with those of CS (eg, silent consnnts ar dropd, GH/PH becom F, DG becoms J), but it gos on to takl it th ‘sibln syndrome’ and related problms, as discusd in §1.3.1, §1.3.2, & §1.4 belo.

1.3 Substitutions that save letrs

As mentiond in sevrl contexts in Chaptrs 3 and 4, ther ar som letr-substitutions wich cud be made to TO wich both regulrize and shortn th spelng of words, but ar excluded from CS partly because, unlike th thre substitutions discusd in Chaptr 4, ther efect on th apearance of words is rathr radicl and partly because they involv aditionl complications.

1.3.1  CH > K: chemist > kemist

As determnd by CS Rule 1, H.2.1, ‘greek’ CH as in TO chaos loses th silent H, leving CS caos. Howevr, since th letr C is normly soft in english befor th front vowls E, I, Y, this CH (pronounced /k/) canot lose its H in CS if it is folod by any of those vowl letrs. Therfor chemist, architect, monrchy, for instnce, keep ther H in CS to indicate th hard valu of th C (altho TO monarch is cut to CS monrc). Simlr considrations aply to italian loans, as in, for instnce, chianti, chiaroscuro, wher th H also indicates a preceding hard C. This disparity between a CH that can be cut in CS, and one that canot altho it has th same pronunciation, is unsatisfactry and cud be resolvd by riting K for this CH befor E, I, Y. This wud giv kemist (cf swedish kemist), arkitekt (cf danish, norwejan, swedish arkitekt), monrky, kiaroscuoro, kianti, wich ar incidently also mor econonic spelngs. Lojicly th C in CS monrc shud then also becom K, in ordr to mach monrky, tho removal of this C/K dicrepcny myt seem to hav lo priority wen seen beside such C/K discrepncis in TÖ as joke/jocular, provoke/provocation, panic/panicking, autarchy/autarky, etc. As wel as regulrizing such words of greek and italian derivation, th abov CH > K substitutions cud also remove th modrn anomly of ache, by restorng th erlir form ake (as used in erly editions of Shakespear).

Such CH > K substitutions ar not made in CS, because th spelngs kemist, kianti, ake, etc ar that to apear too difrnt from TO for th jenrly cautius first staje reform wich CS tries to be. Furthrmor, th cirumstnces in wich th substitution wud be made ar not entirely simpl to identify: it is far from
every CH that wud be chanjed to K, and far from every occurrence of the sound /k/ that wud be respelt as K (contrast the simplicity of the CS substitution of G > J, which aplys evrywher that G is pronounced soft).

If one looks beyond this limitd CH > K substitution, one can imajn th ideal, ultmat solution for the confusion of symbols used for the sound /k/ in TO, wich can rite it with C or K or CK or Q or contain it within X, as in tic, trek, tack, plaque, fox. That ideal solution wud be always to spel the sound /k/ as K, wherevr it ocurs, so giving tik, trek, plak, foks and overcomng th discrepncy between TO cat/kitten by riting kat/kitn. Such a procedur wud then fre th letr C to represent perhaps the sound of SH in concience, suspicion, etc (se undr Rule 1, C.7 for furthr discussion of this posbility). Such developmnts, howevr, must surely lie beyond th staje aftr CS.

1.3.2  Yod-asimlation: -TION > -SHN, etc This topic is discusd here, undr th hedng §1.3 “Substitutions that save letrs”, because th most typicl substitution involvd (-TION > -SHN) produces a mor econmicl spelng. Howevr, in many of th words afectd an extra letr is also required to indicate vowl length, in wich case ther may not be any econmy.

Ther ar many words in english wher th consnnts D, S, T, X, Z as wel as soft C, G wer orijnly folod by th semi-vowl sound of Y (cald ‘yod’). In TO this yod is spelt most ofnf with an I, but somtimes with U (th yod then being th first elemt of its sound valu as ‘yoo’) and occasionly with E. In th corse of time th yod has usuly falen silent, in th process ofnf being asimlated with th preceding consnnt, hos pronunciation was therby chanjed. Yod-asimlation is alredy exploitd in CS, wheer J is substituted for soft G folod by yod-asimlated E or I, as in pageant, pigeon, dudgeon, religion; in CS these ar straitforwrdly reduced by G > J substitution to pajnt, pijn, dujn, relijn. In ordr to minmize substitution patrnsh, CS did not aply this J to yod-asimlation with D, as in soldier, verdure, wich wer simply cut to CS soldir, verdur, altho ther is an argumnt for respelng them with J too, as *soljr, *verjr.

Howevr, by far th larjst area of yod-asimlation in TO was not tuchd by CS at al, partly because th necesry letr-substitutions wud hav afectd th appearance of text too radicly, and partly because of problms that wud hav arisin in consequence. This is th area involvng th letrs C, S, SS, T, wher th posbility of substituting SH for th strings CI, CE, SI, SSI, TI wil now be explورد. Associated with these patrnsh of yod-asimlation ar also strings involvng SU, TU, XI, XU, ZU, altho in these cases simpl substitution by SH wud not be apropriat.

We se yod-asimlation with I in th foloing widespred TO patrnsh aftr a short vowl: with C + I in words like CS financial, special, comercial, coercion, oficial, suspicion, concience, concius, delicius; with a consnnt befor S + I in words like compulsion, pension, version; with SS + I in passion, session, fission, concussion; and with T + I in words like ration, discretion, inertia, initial, ignition, vitiate. Th SH substitution wich cud regulrize th spelng of these words with a preceding short vowl (ofnf aplysng CS Rule 2 to giv speshl, rashn, etc) can also aplys aftr a long vowl, but ther
ar consequences for the spelling of the long vowel which will be discussed later; examples of words displaying yod-asimilation after a long vowel are CS facial, spatial, ancient, patient, nation, completion, species, ocen, comotion, atrocious, crucial, ablution.

CS Rule 2 created forms such as bushl, fashn, freshr, but it could not align the ryming yod-asimilation words with these patterns because of the extra letter-changes required. If SH were now substituted in words of the type special, pension, inertia, etc., such words could be aligned, not merely with the above CS forms, but with each other, so removing the hyly confusing, non-phonographic and hence err-prone variations between CI, SI, SSI, TI. A massive harmonization would be achieved by riting for instance finanshl, speshl, comershl, coershn, ofishl, suspishn, conshncce, conshus, delishus, compulshn, penshn, vershn, pashn, seshn, fishn, concushn, rashn, discreshn, inersha, inishn, ignishn.

Such spellings appear quite disturbing by comparison with TO, not only because of the letter-substitutions themselves, but perhaps also because of an unconscious sense that the grapheme SH is mainly appropriate in words of Germanic derivation, but rather rarely so in French and virtually never in Latin derivations; so we are used to SH in TO ship, fish and (from French) fashion, but it appears alien even in words that rhyme with CS fashn, such as rashn, pashn. Another consideration which may inhibit us from making this substitution is that the present -ION endings are common to many European languages, as well as English ration appears with the same letters in French and Danish (ration) and as Ration in German, and with only slight modifications in Italian (razione) and Spanish (ración). To substitute rashn in English would therfore tend to undermine such orthographic harmony as exists between European languages. We may further hesitate to use SH more frequently, if, as suggested at the end of §1.3.1 above, there is theoretically the possibility that the letter C may eventually become available to represent the sound of SH more economically, and, by producing forms like specl, suspicn, delicus, less disturbingly too: it would scarcely be sensible first to change TO special to speshl, only for the C to be restored in a subsequent reform to giv specl. We may lastly note that it is not the -ION ending as such that causes problems in English, but rather the preceding consonant and vowel before that, with given different spellings to ration/passion and different pronunciations to ration/nation.

The form nation exemplifies this further problem, previously mentioned, that when such endings have a preceding long vowel, additional complications arise which, if the necessary phonographic substitutions were made, would change the appearance of words even more radically. If the examples given in an earlier paragraph of words containing a preceding long vowel simply had SH substituted for the asimilated yod, then the spelling still fails to show, as it fails in TO, that the value of that preceding vowel is not short. For instance, non-indication, so confusing for foreign learners, of the different vowel-length in TO/CS ration/nation, nation/nationl, discretion/completion would not merely be preserved in rashn/*nashn, *nashn/nashnl, discreshn/*compleshn, but other pairs too, has different vowel-values as shown in TO and CS, would merit: thus
discussion/ablution wud alyn as discushn/*ablushn. Abov al, th 1,000+ words ryngg with nation wud stil not be distinguished from ration with its short A. (A short-term solution cud howevr be to retain th O aftr a long vowel, so distinguishng nashon/rashn.) As explaind in §1.5 belo, th posbl regulrization of long vowls jenrly must be hyly speculativ, but if for th sake of th presnt discussion we asume that long A wud at som futur date be spelt AE, then nation and al ryngg words wud becom, aftr SH substitution, naeshn, and so be clearly distinguished from rashn (or, using C, naecn/racn).

An isolated problm is th word anxius, wher th yod-asimilation involvs XI. Substituting SH is hardly adequat, as *anshus dos not convey th ful valu of th X, but a fulr representation such as *ankshus wud be an even mor disturbing form. How or wethr to retain a paralel speling with TO anxiety is anothr question without an obvius ansr.

Som othr patrn of yod-asimlation ar likewise not adequatly representd by SH. Th strings SU, TU (wher th U was formrly pronounced with an initial yod) may hav a ranje of valus. Typicly, U is pronounced with a preceding yod in english words derived from french, wher it represents an anglicized pronunciation of french frontd U (compare initial yod in english utilize with th yodless but frontd valu of U in french utiliser, wile th U in jermanic utter has a quite difrnt, yodless valu). With a preceding initial S, we find TO sugar, sure (cf french sucre, sûr), wich exeptonly myt, if we ar prepared to accept th extra letrs, be rith shugr, shure. Elsewher, as in lesur, mesur, plesur, tresur, english has retaind th orijnal french voicing of th medial S in th yod-asimlated pronunciation; but SH, being voiceless, wud not represent this. If th disturbnce wer thot acceptbl, th inovatory ‘russian’ grafeme ZH cud com into play here, givng lezhr (tho this form dos not represent th long american E), mezhr, plezhr, trezhr. Anothr instnce is th word casul, wich myt then be reduced to cazhl.

Th fonlojicl efect of yod-asimlation in othr letr strings difrs again. Unlike SU, th string TU is voiceless, but SH wud stil be an inapropriat grafeme to represent th sound: in fractur, lectur, pictur, ruptur, etc th digraf wud need to be CH, givng th disturbng form *fracchr (or *frakchr), etc. With XU, in luxury, luxurius, th efect varis once mor; as with anxius, th pronunciation chalenjs alfbetic defnition: is th XU voiced in both words, or only in one, or in neithr? shud eithr or both of these words be spelt luksh- or lugzh-?

Over and abov such specific questions of how idealy to spel these yod-asimlations, ther is a mor jenrl uncertnty. As was noted abov, th yod-asimlations hav arisn thru gradul chanjes in pronunciation over a long period of time. Howevr, chanjes of this kind ar stil in progress, and it is not always clear wen they can be regardd as complete. For instnce, th word negotiatus is comnly herd with yod-asimlation of th TI, but is also somtimes stil pronounced as with /si/ (cf french négociat); and in th case of assume, we may juj th process of asimlation of th SU to hav just begun, it being only occasionly pronounced as tho spelt *ashume. It is thus somtimes unclear wich letr strings myt be betr replaced by SH, CH, ZH, etc, and for wich such a
substitution wud be premature.

Altogether it can be seen that, howevr problmatic th spelng of th yod-asimlated sounds may be in TO, so many problms atend ther regulrization that a first-staje reform such as CS dos wel not to atem respelng. It is a caractristic advantaj of CS that, by concentrating on omitng letrs rathr than on substitutions, it is able to leve those problms reasuringly unresolvd, for futur jenrations to resl with, if they shud feel it importnt to do so.

1.3.3 I > Y: climb > clym

As noted undr Rule 1, occasionly a silent letr othr than ‘majic’ E had to be kept in CS because it efectivly also had ‘majic’ function, indicating th long valu of th preceding vowl. Examples included th B in *climb (se Rule 1, §B.3) and th C in *indict (se Rule 1, §C.11), both preceded by an I hos long valu was shown by th silent letr (*clim, *indit wud be pronounced with short I). Alredy in Chaptr 4, §5, we saw how th long valu of I in sevrl TO pattns was clarifyd by I > Y substitution in CS, as wen TO *high, *height, *sign, *simplified became CS *hy, *hyt, *syn, *simplifyd, and th same substitution was considrd for climb, indict as exepthonl cases. Ful respelng of evry long I by Y has in fact proved th extension to CS wich users hav most strongly cald for. If CS did not go so far as to include th forms clym, indyt, those spelngs wud undoutdly be erly candidats for th staje aftr CS.

This patrn of regulrization cud also be used to sort out th anomly of th dubld consnnts wich ar exepthonlly retaind in CS *child, *milld, *willd, *binnd, *finnd, *grinnd to prevent ambiguity with child, mild, wild, bind, find, grind. As explaind undr Rule 3, §3.1, these dubld consnnts can only be simplifyd by th norml CS procedur aftr I > Y substitutions hav becom fuly establishd in TO *child, *milld, etc, givng *chyld, *mylld, *wyld, *bynd, *fynd, *grynd. If these substitutions wer not included in CS itself, ther is a strong case for them to hav priority in watevr reform myt folo CS.

As alredy explaind undr Rule 1, Y.3, and in Chaptr 4, §5, these prolifrating I > Y substitutions representng long I mark a strong trend towards standrdization of that sound-symbl corespondnce in english. This is very much to be welcmd, as th represntation of long vowls is one of th most problmatic aspects of TO left larjly untuchd by CS. Long I is th most comnly ocurng of th long vowl valus in english, and it is fortunat that th letr Y is availbl to represent it. In th longr term, we myt look forwrd to a time wen th presnt tripl ambiguity of I and Y (se Rule 1, Y.3: both can represent short I, or long I, or th semi-vowl yod-glide of initial Y in TO) cud be larjly resolvd. Th letr I wud normly represent th short vowl, wile th letr Y wud normly represent eithr th long vowl or th yod-glide — th latr distinction being usuly indicated by th letrs position in a word (normly yod in initial position as in yes, and with long valu in final position or befor a consnnt as in hy, hyr, hyt).

This use of Y for th long I-sound has a long tradition in english (cf William Blakes poem *The Tyger) and wud ofr sevrl systemic advantajs if introduced as standrd.
A single letter for a single phoneme is always less ambiguous than a digraph (consider the ambiguity of *IE* in *die/diet/alien/brief/friend/sieve*).

A general I > Y substitution would enable the ‘magic’ E long-vowel indicator to be removed after long I without entailing any further substitution, so allowing TO *tribe, side, life, like, pile, lime, line, ripe, fire, site, drive, prize* to be reduced to *tryb, syd, lyf, lyk, pyl, lyn, ryp, fyr, syt, dryv, pryz*.

That substitution would also allow words with long I ending in *L, M, N, R* such as TO/CS *idle, title, item, ripen, trident, tiger* to align with normal CS Rule 2 patterns as *ydl, tydl, ylim, rypn, trydnt, tygr*.

The inconsistency of monosyllables such as *die/try/rye* would be resolved by spelling all three words with just Y as *dy/try/ry* (CS ry was already introduced by Rule 1, E.1.2.5).

The total substitution of Y for long I would, however, cause such numerous and far-reaching changes to the appearance of rhythm English as to be considered too radical for immediate inclusion in CS. It would also entail some minor dilemmas, such as which I-vowels should be deemed long and which short (would it be *dilema* or *dylema*, for instance?), and how to treat the rare cases of pre-vocalic long I (how would TO *yon/ion* be distinguished, for instance?).

### 1.4 The Siblnt Syndrome

As was repeatedly pointed out under Rule 1, C and S, and under Rule 3, §2.3 for SS, the representation and differentiation of voiceless and voiced siblnts constitute a serious difficulty in TO, which is further compounded by the associated patterns of yod-asimilation discussed in §1.3.2 above. In this section we are concerned only with the two sounds /s/ and /z/, yet between them they are commonly spelt in at least five different ways in TO, as C or S or Z or SC or SS, without any of these spellings reliably indicating any one pronunciation. The letter C may stand for the sounds of K and SH, as well as voiceless /s/. The letter S may stand for voiceless /s/, or voiced /z/, or SH, or the voiced equivalent of the later (ie, ZH). The letter Z is normally voiced as /z/, but in some foreign loans it may stand for /s/ or /ts/ (*blitz, pizza*). The double SS may be voiceless, or voiced, or stand for SH. And SC may stand for /s/, or /sk/, or SH. These are merely some of the more common uses of these letters in TO, rarer occurrences such as the C in TO *cello* or Z in TO *Czech* being ignored here.

The practical problems these inconsistencies cause are well illustrated by a series of different patterns found in words which can function either as nouns or as verbs. The pair *advice/advise* changes its spelling to indicate the change in pronunciation that occurs according to whether the noun or the verb is being used (as in TO *I advise you to seek advice*); the only difficulty here is that the user must not that the S in *advise* is voiced, and not voiceless as in *precise* (let alone pronounced on the model of TO *practise*). The same C > S noun-verb switch occurs, but with no pronunciation change, in TO *practice/practise*, understandably with frequent confusion of the two forms (in American usage the two are interchanged). TO *promise* keeps the same spelling and same pronunciation for both noun and verb, and is therefore less prone to mispelling than *advic/se, practic/se*. And the words *close, excuse, house, use* have the same
spelling for their functions on the one hand as adjective (close) or noun (excuse, house, use) and on the other as verb (to close, to excuse, to house, to use), but they give the reader no hint that the S is voiced in the verbs and in the plural of house, tho not otherwise.

CS is only able to regularize the spelling of /s, z/ to a limited extent: Rule 1 reduces SC to S in many words where it stands only for /s/ (eg, TO scythe > CS sythe) and aligns TO practice/practise and promise with the ending of tennis, etc as practis, promis; Rule 2 simplifies the -SCE ending where a consonant follows (CS aquiesce with -SCE, but aquiesd, aquiesng with S); Rule 3 (in conjunction with Rule 2) similarly simplifies many occurrences of SS (eg, TO possessed > CS posesd); and where alternative spellings with S or Z are available, CS prefers Z for the voiced sound (eg, cozy, orgnize).

If a subsequent reform were to make more letter-substitutions, such regularizations could be taken at least a little further. Amongst the most troublesome forms in both TO and CS are the many words ending in -CE and -SE (beside the advice/advise-typ pairs discussed above), which are often confused and/or mispronounced. CS Rule 1, A, E and I, aligns the vowel spellings in sets such as TO peace/cease/geese/piece, please/cheese/freeze/seize/frieze by omitting one of the medial vowels (giving CS pece/cese/gese/pece and plese/cheze/frieze (x2)/seze); but without C > S and S > Z letter-substitutions no regularization of final CE, SE, ZE is possible in such words. In consequence, CS leaves notorious traps unresolved, like the adjective/verb distinction in loose/lose, and it gives no more help than TO in showing that the S in the singular house, etc., is voiceless, tho voiced in houses, to house, etc.

A resolution of these ambiguities would be quite easy if final SE were always used for the voiceless ending, and ZE for its voiced equivalent. This would give the following forms for the words listed above: advise > advize, pese/cese/gese/pese, pleze/cheze/frieze/seze, loose/loze, close/to cloze, an excuse/to excuse, th house/to house, th use/to uze. Visually, such substitutions are not very disturbing, as final ZE is already fairly common in TO (graze, freeze, organize, doze), and it could be implanted with few complications (tho the simultaneous switch of advice > advise and advise > advize might cause transitional confusion). Presumably any regularization of this sort would keep precise, but change TO expertise to exprtize.

The substitution of S for siblnt C, as already introduced by the major of TO practice/practise as CS practis, and as already prefirgd by th loss of E from a few words like TO promise (CS promis), cud harmnize these with th endngs of over 30 rymng -ICE words. Thus TO office, service, notice, justice cud be simplifed to ofis, servis, notis, justis. Ther ar only about 10 examples of th unstresd TO endng -ACE, but such as surface, palace, terrace, menace cud redily alyn with atlas to giv surpras, palas, teras, menas. Simlrly, th one exampl of TO -UCE, lettuce, cud becom letus (tho th false paralel of fetus wud idealy need atention).

Wile such spellings wud improve on TO, they stil do not resolv al th siblnt ambiguities by any means. Rule 1, A.2.2.2 and Rule 3, §1.7.SS also discusd wethr, in ordr to remedy othr such ambiguities, SS myt be mor widely used.
to represent final voiceless /s/. It wud then be posbl to rite *aquiess* without a confusing final CE, and final E aftr S wud hav a purely ‘majic’ function, as in *precise, morose, debase.* (Erase wud probbly then be deemd to hav voiced S, alynng with *raze*, rathr than voiceless S as in americn speech, rymng with *race*.) Such substitutions, however, incresingly disturb th apearance of text, final SS in polysylabic words being not very comm in TO (*compass* is unusul), and they myt therfor be delayd for sevrl stajes aftr CS.

Th remainng C, S, Z ambiguitis in TO include al th words containing C pronounced /s/, wich, in th intrests of totaly predictbl sound-symb'l cospondnc, shud be chanjed to S. We wud then se initial C in CS *cement, centrl, circl, cycl*, etc, becomng S to giv *sement, sentrl, sircl, sycl* (cf norwejan *sement, sentral, sirkel, sylkus*), and TO *cymbal/symbol* wud merj perhaps as *simbl*; but th degree of visul disturbnce entaild in such initial-letr chanjes is clearly hy. In medial position, th chanjes wud be less obtrusiv: S cud quite unobtrusivly replace C to giv forms like *nesesy, prosess, desision, sinsere, spesies, polisy, democrasy, fasade* (cf jermn *Fassade*).

If final CE wer evrywhe convertd to S(E), questions of overlap with inflectional -S wud becom mor acute (TO *fence* can presumably not be alowed to alyn with TO *fens* — se Rule 1, E.1.1.13 for discussion of this point). To remove this danjer entirely, one wud probbly need to chanj most (or perhaps al) -S inflections to -Z, with TO *fens* becoming *fenz*, to enable TO *fence* to becom *fens*. Ther wud be two posibilitis: eithr evry inflectionl S cud be ritn Z regardless of voicing (*caz and dogz*), or else voiceless inflectionl S, wich nevr clashs with difrntly pronounced -CE, -SE endngs in TO, cud remain, giving *cats, but dogs*. Such far-reachng spelng chanjes, if they wer evr thot worth introducing, wud presumably only be considrd sevrl stajes aftr CS.

1.5 Regulrizing long vowls beside I > Y
§1.3.3 abov discusd th wider use of Y in place of long I, a useful and fairly unproblmatic substitution. Ther has always been demand for th othr long vowls to be simlrly regulrized, but they hav mor varid TO spelngs than dos long I, and ther regulrization wud be much mor complex.

We se this gretr variety of sound-symb'l cospondncs in such sets as TO *vain/vane/vein* for th long A-sound, *air/care/prayer/bear* for long A folod by R, *beat/greet/deceit/these/field* for long E, *roll/hope/coat* for long O, and *food/soup/truth/fruit/rule/queue/new* for th long U-sound. Even if one did decide that al those spelngs for each long vowl shud be alyned, it is not at al obvius wat th new standrdized grafemes shud be. Wile th letr Y sujestd itself as a straitforwrd, alrdy existing, economicl standrd for long I, th othr long vowls present us at th outset with th dilema of wether to choose an existing spelng, or to invent a new one — both aproachs hav advantajs and disadvantajs. Purely by way of ilustration, one myt nevrthlss sujest that, if unfamiliarity wer no obstacl, th foloing myt be considrd (ther is not th space to set out th ful systemic and fonografic reasnng behind them here): for long A, th digraf AE wud giv *vaen, aer, caer, praeer, baer*; IE for long E
wud giv biet, grit, deciet, thiese (or thiez), field; OH for long O wud giv rohl, hohp, coht; and UH for long U wud giv fuhd, suhp, truht, fruht, ruhl, and assuming they rym with you rathr than just with too, with an insertd I befor th UH, qiuh (or kiuh), niuh.

Beside th dificlty of choosng aproprit grafemes, ther is th furthr problm that in TO variant spelngs constitute over 600 sets of homofones, such as vain/vane/vein or pair/pare/pear. It is tru that TO alredy givs numerus sets of difrnt words identicl spelngs (th noun, verb and ajectiv tender, for instnce), but that dos not mean that adng anothr 600+ sets to th languaj wud not cause som confusion. (One notices, for instnce, that jermn, hos spelngs othrwise relate fairly predictbly to th pronunciation, makes a point of giving most homofones difrnt spelngs, as in th pair Lärche/Lerche for ‘larch/lark’, or ist/ißt for ‘is/eats’.) Even CS may be open to criticism for merjng th spelngs of such pairs as TO peace/piece (CS pece) and place/plaice (TO place), as discusd in §2.4.2 & §2.4.3 belo.

A third posbl objection to regulrizing long vowls myt be that, othr than those alredy regulrized by CS, ther difrnt spelngs do not apear to cause jenrl users especial dificlty, howevr irationl ther variety and use may apear. Forms such as *hoap, *sopre ar for instnce not very promnnt among th mispelngs that bedevl th riting of th less litrat.

Altogethr, it wud seem that ther ar sevrl quite good reasns for givng relativly lo priority to th regulrization of long vowl spelngs in english.

Ther ar, however, a few long-vowel spelngs in TO wich wud survive th CS cuts and wich so blatantly defy th alfabetc principl that som regulrization myt seem desirebl at a fairly erly staje, if mainly for tidiness sake. They wud include, for instnce, th remaining words endng in silent B, such as comb, tomb, womb, for wich th least controversial forms myt be coam, toom, woom, since these at least conform to comm TO patrons of sound-symbll corespondnce (eg, roam, zoom). Likewise th ‘majic’ L in th TO patrons calm, talk, folk cud usefully be regulrized, perhaps givng caam, tauk, foak.

We must finaly mention a long-term posbility for reducing th confusion surounding th letr U, its main sound-corespondnces (as in but, put, truth, music, fur), and th alternativ TO spelngs for those sounds (as in to, too,两张, truth, through, grew, her, sir). Wat is needd is first at least one, and perhaps even thre, othr standrd spelngs for th sounds in question, and secnd a reduction in th numbr of spelngs availbl to represent those sounds in TO. Surprisingly, as alredy mentiond undr Rule 1, E.2.1.7 (-EW > -*W: brew > *brw), and O.8 (two > *tw), th letr W, now jenrly thot of as a consnnt, cud lend itself to som of these purposes rathr wel.

Th letr W orijnated as a dubl U-vowl (hence its name) centuris ago befor U and V wer distinguishd in riting, indeed it functions as a vowl to this day in welsh, wich spels english curriculum, for instnce, as cwrlicwlwm. A mor radicl reform of english spelng than CS myt considr using W as a standrd vowl letr, as a means to reducing th multipl ambiguitis of U in TO (W is also so used in th Agilitype kebord shorthand system, from
wich this idea derives). Th introduction of vowl-W wud in most cases require letr substitution, but ocasionly it cud arise from simpl omission of redundnt leters (TO two, grew > tw, grw?). Just as with Y, positionl distinctions wud ensure minml ambiguity between th presnt consnnt W and th new vowl W; thus in tw final W can only be a vowl, wile in twin, befor a vowel, it can only be a consnnt). Th abov exampls ar not ment to sujest that vowl-W need necesrly only represent th long U sound: it myt also lend itself to th spelng of certn notoriusly iregulr TO forms, eg, one > wn, who(m) > hw(m), whose > hwz, could > cwd (cf welsh cwm), and most weirdly, with successiv consnnt-W and vowl-W, wwd, wwm for TO would, womb.

In th longr term, th potential for expandng th role of W myt be worth explorng; but for th imediat purposes of CS its extreme stranjeness excludes it from considration.

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**2 STOPNG SHORT OF CS**

2.1 Acomodating public reactions

Any proposal for spelng reform is likely to arouse oposition, at least from a minority unwilng to countnnce any chanje to existng riting conventions, regardless of its merits. But jenrly, th mor radicl th chanje from existng spelngs that is proposed, th gretr th unese that is likely to be felt by al litrat peple. As explaind in Chaptr 1, th basic principl of CS — th omission of redundnt leters — has th efect of minmizing th apearance of chanje, wile maxmizing th regulrization of forms that cause most dificlty in TO. Altho th concentration on cutng redundnt leters, along with th thre substitutions explaind in Chaptr 4, sets firm limits to th amount of chanje brot about by CS, in a sense th amount of chanje is arbitry. Th balance between minmizing chanje and maxmizing regulrization cud be shiftd in eithr direction, with eithr less chanje and less regulrization, or else mor of both. Section 1 of this chaptr has sujestd furthr chanjes, som straitforwrd, othrs hyly problmatic, even esoteric, wich cud be introduced, eithr undr th auspices of a mor ambitius CS (ie, with mor than 3 substitution rules), or as subsequent, seprat stajes. Therfor, if ther wer a public cal for a reform to go furthr than CS as outlined in Chaptrs 3-5, a selection of those aditionl chanjes cud redily be incorprated in an expandd CS.

But if, as is mor probbl, even a positiv public response to th CS proposal was acompnid by resrvations, then it wud be necesry to say wich of th cuts sujestd cud be dispensd with in ordr to make CS mor acceptbl, without at th same time fundmently undrmining th most importnt of th new regularitis acheved. Previus chaptrs repeadeely comentd with regard to one cut or
anothr that th cut concernd was recmendd in th last analysis because th gains in econmy wer felt to outwei certn posbl objections; and elswher th much improved fonografic regularity of a particulr cut was taken to justify it, altho its visul impact myt be quite disturbng. This presnt section wil describe those elemnts in th overal CS proposal wich myt be sacrificed, for instnce by givng loer priority to econmy or to fonografic regularity than to familr apearance of text, but without at th same time abandnng th esential systemic qualitis of CS.

2.2 Jujng wat is esential
Of th 3 cutng rules, it may be said that only Rule 1 is oprtunistic, as it cuts letrs here and ther within certn limitd spelng patrns or even in isolated words, wherevr they serv no purpos. Rule 1 rationlizes countless minor ‘silly’ spelngs (for instnce, th B in debt, doubt), but if public atachmnt to certn of them proved very strong, most such letrs or patrns cud be kept. Rule 1 also perhaps affects th apearance of text mor radicly than Rules 2 and 3, as it cuts som words by ther most pronmnt letrs, and is therfor likely to cause most initial hesitation in readng. So if concessions wer required in ordr to reduce th disturbnce factr of CS, of th thre cutng Rules th most imediatly promisng candidat for dilution wud be Rule 1.

By contrast, Rule 2 (cutng vowl letrs in unstresd endngs) wud be much less esy to dilute, as, mor than th othr two rules, it establishs patrns and principls that covr th hole of th english languaj. If, for instnce, it wer agreed that TO centre shud lose its final E by Rule 1, then to insist on not cutng th secnd E in TO enter by Rule 2 wud be to undrmine th lojic and regularity of th systm; and it is abov al th lak of lojic, regularity and systm in TO wich is its basic deficiency and wich any reform must be desynd first and formost to rectify. Furthmor, many of th cuts proposed by Rule 2 ar a prerequisit for Rule 3: dinner canot simplify its dubld N by Rule 3, unless Rule 2 also removes th E; and hopping canot simplify its dubld P, unless Rule 2 also removes th I. Th efects of Rule 2 ar probbly rathr less noticeable in fluent readng of CS — for one thing, only vowel letrs ar removed, wich, havng neithr asendrs nor desendrs, contribute less to th global shape or distinctiv ‘coastline’ of a word than do many consnnts, and for anothr thing, Rule 2 cuts tend to fal in less pronmnt positions towards th ends of words; but most Rule 2 cuts ar systemicly fundmentl to CS as a hole.

Rule 3 lies somwher between Rules 1 and 2 in that regard: like Rule 1 it cud be aplyd selectivly (indeed, CS dos aply it selectivly), but like Rule 2 it embraces th hole languaj. It ataks a problm of TO that causes riters a gret
deal of trubl and affects larj areas of vocablry, words of jermaine, french and latn derivation alike, in ther roots, afixs and inflections equally. Yet som tys of words, or som positions within words, or som letrs, cud be declared exemt from this cut. Rule 3 dos not gretly afect th apearance of som words (eg, acomodate, paralel), but aplyd togethr with Rules 1 and 3 it can somtimes agravate profoundly disturbng efects.

Th relativ impact of each rule may be ilustrated from th TO form written, wich is first decapitated by Rule 1 (ritten), then amputated from within by Rule 2 (rittn), and finaly dismbowl by Rule 3 (ritn). Yet th fonografic simplicity and rationality of that final form is beyond question. If it wer nevrthless decided that CS ritn is too savaj an reduction, but that som cuts wer justyfyd, then as a first concession CS cud accept writn, and as a secnd concession writtn. Howevr, it wud then hav to be apreciated that keepng th W in TO written implys keepng it in al othr WR- words too (eg, rangl, rench, rinkl, rong), and refusing to simplify th TT in written implys keepng TT in bitn, kitn and by extension keepng dubld consnnts in countless othr such words too.

Th thre substitution rules (GH, PH > F, soft G > I, IG > Y) cause considrbl visul disturbnce, and cud be deferd until a later reform, but with som damaj to th CS systm as a hole, for instnce implyng th retention of GH in many words such as rough and high. On th othr hand, th loss of certn capitl letrs and apostrofes (as described in Chaptr 5) has less impact, is unconectd with patrns of letr-use as such, wich ar at th root of th problms of TO, and so is perhaps th least esential part of th hole CS proposal.

2.3 Reducing visul disturbnce
Th CS forms wich ar visuly most disturbng ar those wich lose ther most promnnt letrs (especialy initial letrs), or wich lose a hy proportion of letrs from ther TO form, or wich introduce new letrs. Cut letrs wich myt be retaind specifcly to reduce visul disturbnce include th foloing categris:

2.3.1 Initial letrs Th first letr of a word is its most promnnt identifyng featur, so if CS removes it, th apearance of th word is radicly chanjed. Rule 1 cuts th foloing silent initial letrs as blatantl floutng th alfabetic principl that letrs shud represent sounds: E as in TO eye, G as in gnaw, H as in honest, K in kneel, M in mnemonic, P in psychology, and W as in who, whole, write. These initial letrs cud be kept without othrwise undrmining th CS systm. As wel as making words mor imediately recognizebl to uninitiated readrs, keepng these letrs wud hav less efect on th alfabetic position of such words in dictionris (indeed, ther position myt in som cases then not be afectd at al).
2.3.2 Multipl cuts

Wen a word (especialy a short word) loses mor than one letre, its apearance can chanje substantialy. Sevrl words wich lose ther initial letre also lose othr letrs (eg, CS y, orn, ritn for TO ey, honour, written); but just restorng th initial letre significntly improves recognizebility in these cases (ey, honr, writn), and th remaining cuts can then be considr as part of brod patrn (ey in th context of al words endng in redundnt E, honr in th context of al -OUR, -OR endngs, etc). As a longr word, sycology probbly retains suficient featurs from its TO form for it stil to be esily recognized, despite its loss of medial H and its G > J substitution, but th form psycology with silent P retaind, apear a good deal less strange than final CS sycology (th mor so in th case of th ajectiv psyclojicl for CS syclojicl, with its four cuts and one substitution). Th holesale GH cuts can serioulsy disturb th apearance particulrly of shortr words; forms such as tho, thru, thoro aramiliar as existing abreviations, and a longr word like straitforwrd retainds plenty of familir featurs; but with ther aditionl GH > F substitutions, CS tuf, trof cause a visul shok despite ther fonografic transparency, and cutng TO eight, weight to CS eit, weit is also quite disconcertng. Undoutdly, som or al GHs cud be kept in CS, since they do not hav many seriou consequences for th systm as a hole; but th retention of ths prize specimn of TO irationality wud be a signl moral defeat for th alfabetic principl.

2.3.3 Doubtful corepondnces

It wil be remembrd that Rule 1 sujestd a few simplifications of vowl digrafs wich produced fonograficly doubtful sound-symbl corepondnces. Such wer th reduction of EA to E in CS brek, gret, stek, th reduction of OA to O in brod, and th reduction of -OUGHT to -OT in ot, brot, thot, etc. TO break, great, steak, broad cud esily be left uncut in a diluted CS orthografy, without damajng side efects for th systm as a hole, but, as discusd undr Rule 1, G.2.5.4, th -OUGHT words pose a mor seriou dificlty, with substitution of -AUT th best alternativ (tho wethr aut, thaut ar less disturbng than CS ot, thot must be doubtful).

2.3.4 Reduplicated consnnts

Rule 2 produces sevrl patrn of reduplicated consnnts, that is, dubld consnnt letrs each pronounced sepratly. This featur of CS is disturbing, as it is almost unown in TO, unless we count NN in TO unnecessary or SS in misspell as reduplicated (tho both these patrn ar simplifed in CS unecesry, mispel). Exampls of reduplication in CS ar BB in probbl, DD in needd, MM in maxmm, NN in consnnt and meanng, and RR in terr. Such reduplication cud be excluded from CS, tho at th price of retainng th orijnl uncertntis of TO wich reduplication removes. For instnce, if CS rote probabl, riters cud stil not tel from th pronunciation not to rite *probibl; if CS kept E in lidd (TO lidded), th vowl-length distinction from elided wud be blurd (unless th DD of lidded wer also kept, therby undrmining a larj part of Rule 3); if CS kept I in planng (TO planning), th distinction from planing wud be lost (unless th NN of planning wer also kept, therby again undrmining a larj part of Rule 3); and if CS rote teror,
riters myt be equaly inclined to rite *terar, *terer, etc. For such systemic reasnls, rathr hyr priority shud prbably be givn to keepng th reduplicated consnnts than to som of th othr disturbng feats listd in ths section.

2.3.5 Simplifyd consnnts Th abov reduplicated consnnts becom posbl only because CS othrwise removes nearly al dubld consnnts from TO; thus th verb TO to err becomes CS to er, wile th noun TO error loses its O by Rule 2, and Rule 3 simplifys th medial RR, to produce th CS noun err. Now if, in a diluted CS systm, Rule 3 aplyd to many fewr words, th reduplicated consnnts wud be ambiguous, it not being clear wethr they wer new CS reduplications, or old TO dubld forms. To that extent, th consnnt simplifications of CS must be seen as integrl to th systm as a hole.

Nevrthless, th simplification of dubld consnnts can be disturbng on first aquaintnce. Th efect may be imperceptbl in such comm TO mispelngs as *accomodate, *comitted, *omitted, *embarass, but especialy in words of one or two sylabls, th disturbnce may also be considrbl. Among monosylabls, th singl final consnnts in CS eg, od hav a distinctly difrnt look from egg, odd; and th reduction of CK to K turns TO pack, peck, pick, etc into th disturbngly difrnt CS forms pak, pek, pik. Such monosylabls cud be left uncut, wer it not for th resultng confusion of a pair like TO error/err (se §2.4.6.AMB (2), belo). Simplifying medial dubld consnnts in disylabic words has th efect of blurng th length of som preceding vowls, as wen TO follow becomes CS folo (contrast solo). Just as CS makes disylabic words endng in unstresd Y exeptions to Rule 3 (to distinguish holly/holy, etc), so an exeption cud be made with TO follow and similr forms, to giv diluted CS follo (no danjer of confusion with reduplicated forms here); such possibilitis ar discusd in detail undr §2.4.5.LT belo.

2.3.6 Post-accentul shwa in medial sylabls Rule 2, §1.3, proposed cutng letrs representng shwa not only in final sylabls, but ofn in erlir (tho nevr initial) sylabls. Wile th efects wer usuly not very disturbng (eg, CS consdiration, derived from considr), in som cases a significnt visul elemnt was lost, as in CS conslration, inflmation, intnaton, adracion from TO consolation, inflammation, intonation, adoration. In such forms, th lost vowl letr carris th stress in th root verbs from wích th nouns derive, console, inflame, intone, adore. If such cuts wer thot too extreme, they cud be excluded from CS by a rule that letrs representng shwa in medial sylabls ar not cut if they ar stresd in othr forms based on th same root. By such a rule, CS econmic wud keep its first O, since that is stresd in CS econmy, wile th latr wud keep its secnd O, since that is stresd in CS econmic, and as a result both economy and economic wud remain uncut.

2.3.7 Substituted letrs Substituted letrs, particulrly F for GH and PH, and J for DG or soft G, can be very disturbng on first encourtr, especialy in initial position (eg, CS ruf, trof, filosofy, fotografy, ej, juj, jenrl, jermn for TO rough, trough, philosophy, photography, edge, judge, general, German). Because th F for PH substitution is already familir from
commercial spelng (eg, foto, freefone), it may be less disturbng thn th othrs, wile som Y for I substitutions ar comnly found as spelng errs in TO aredy (eg, simplifyd). Any one, or al, of these substitutions cud be excluded from CS, tho th loss of th GH > F and IG > Y chanjes wud leve two patrn of GH intact, and loss of th J for soft G chanje wud preserv certn systemic cruces of TO (eg, ageing or aging?). Stratejically it is perhaps importnt that CS shud contain at least som letr substitutions, to sho that such genrl chanjes can be hyly efectiv, and indeed ar in th long term indispensbl.

2.4 Ambiguus forms
Like TO, CS contains varius ambiguus forms wich in difrnt ways may intrfere with fluent, acurat readng. If th CS systm as recmendd by this Handbook had to be diluted to make it acceptbl, it is worth considrng wat myt be gained by preventng som of these ambiguities from arising. Ther ar sevrly typs of ambiguity, listd here in rufly asendng ordr of likely objectionblness.

2.4.1.£ holly, two, four Not objectionbl at al in terms of ther stranjeness efect ar th potential ambiguities that wud hav arisin in th norml process of consnnt simplification, if Rule 3, §2.5 had not aredy declared them exeptions. They include som 15 disylabic pairs endng in Y of th typ holly/holy, and a few isolated pairs like comma/coma, corral/coral, vellum/velum. Simlrly, Rule 1, W.2, recmendd an exeption be made of two to prevent ambiguity with to, and Rule, 1 U.3.3, recmendd an exeption for four to prevent ambiguity with for. Such exeptions reduce th regularity of CS for riters, but asist readrs familir with TO. Clearly, such exeptions alredy represent a dilution of CS, and canot be undon to efect furthr dilution.

2.4.2.SYM peace/piece > pece Ther ar over 100 sets (mostly pairs) of homofones that ar difrntly spelt in TO, but wich by losing redundnt letrs aquire th same spelng in CS, as wen TO peace/piece merj as CS pece. As explaind in Chaptr 2, §1.3, these symetricly merjd forms cause no confusion (ther meanng is elucidated by th context), and ar scarcely mor disturbing thn any othr CS form. Th mor comnly ocurng sets that merj in this way in CS include: aisle/isle > ile, altar/alter > alr, ascent/assent > asent, ball/bawl > bal, batten/baton > batn (assuming british pronunciaton of batn), bell/belle > bel, billed/build > bld, boar/bore > bor, board/bored > bord, boarder/border > bordr, bolder/boulder > boldr, buyer/byre > byr, cannon/canon > cann, coarser/courser > corsr, complement/compliment > complmnt, core/corps > cor, coward/cowered > cowrd, dependant/dependent > dependnt, dollar/dolour > dolr, flea/flee > fle, floe/flow > flo, freeze/frieze > freze, gamble/gambol > gamb, grill/grille > gril, hall/haul > hal, handsome/hansom > hansm, hanging/hanger > hangr, hoar/whore > hor, hoard/horde/whored > hord, hostel/hostile > hostl (assuming americn pronunciaton of TO hostile), immanent/imminent > immnt, knight/night >
nyt, lea/lee > le, lesson/lessen > lesn, lightening/lightning > lytnng, literal/littoral > litrl, lumbar/lumber > lumbr, mall/maul > mal, manner/manor > manr, mantel/mantle > mantl, marten/martin > martn, medial/meddle > medl, metal/mettle > metl, missal/missile/mistle > misl (assuming american pronunciation of missile), muscle/mussel > musl, mustard/mustered > mustrd, oh/owe > o, ordinance/ordnance > ordnnce, palette/pallet > palet, pea/pee > pe, peace/piece > pece, pedal/peddle > pedl, pedaller/pedddler/pedlar > pedlr, petrel/petrol > petrl, pigeon/pijnn, pore/pour > por, principal/principle > principl, rabbit/rarebit > rabit, rapped/wrapped > rapd, retch/wretch > rech, rho/roe/row > ro, rigger/rig(o)r > rigr, right/wright > ryt, rough/ruff > ruf, rye/wry > ry, sailor/sailor > sailr, sea/see > se, sleight/slight > slyt, sloe/slow > slo, soared/sword > sord, stationary/stationery > stationry, summary/summery > sumry, tea/tee > te, tenner/tenor > tenr, their/there > ther, thro/throw > thro, tough/tuff > tuf, watt/what > wat, weather/wether/whether > wethr, wear/where > wer, witch/witch > wicch, woe/woe > wo. Slylty mor disturbng ar perhaps mourning/morning > mornng, wich may apear to belong rathr with th asymetricl merjrs belo. We may conclude that declaring th abov words to be exeptions and exemtng them from cuts wud not make CS significntly mor acceptbl. Mor awkwrd than these ar thre pairs hos distinction in TO depends entirely on a shwa befor L, N or R, but hos meanngs and orijs ar totaly unconectd: from exalt/exult com th TO forms exaltation/exultation, wich if deemd homofnus wud merj as exltation in CS; simlrly, th two ajectivs distinguishd in TO as immanent/imminent wud merj as CS imnnt; and from th verbs confirm/conform coms th merjd CS noun-form confirmation. This dificlty cud be avoidd if th A of exaltation, immanent and th O of conformation wer deemd not to be pronounced shwa.

2.4.3.ASYM plaice > place Somwat mor disturbing than th peace/piece > pece merjrs ar sets wher one word loses a letter or letters, and therby asumes th spelng of an existng TO form, as wen TO plaice is cut to place (eg, ‘ther was place on th menu’). Th Rules of CS also produce over 100 sets of these asymetric merjrs like plaice > place, th foloing comm words being afectd: aide > aid, aunt > ant, bade > bad, banned > band, barred > bard, bee > be, bohey > bogy, bowled > bold, buoy > boy, bread > bred, butt > but, buy > by, candied > candid, canvass > canvas, chord > cord, copse > cops, (for could > cud, se §2.4.4.HH) belo), cruise > cruse, damn > dam, dessert > (to) desert, fiancée > fiancé, Finn > fin, Finnish > finish, flue > flu, forego > forgo, guild > gild, heard > herd, heart > hart, heroine > heroin, hoarse > horse, hour > our, inn > in, jamb > jam, knave > nave, kneed > need, knew > new, knit > nit, knot > not, know > no, lead > led, leant > lent, maize > maze, mooed > mood, morn > morn, oar/ore > or, penned > pend, plaice > place, plumb > plum, reign > rein, raise > rase, read (past tense) > red, seamen > semen, scent > sent, soled > sold, steppe > step, storey > story (alredy US spelng), straight > strait, sty > sty, tolled > told, tore > tor, waive > wave, waressed > ward, wee > we,
welled > weld, whet > wet, Whig > wig, while > wile, whine > wine, whole > hole, wholly > holy, whorled > world, wrap > rap, wrest > rest, write > rite, wring > ring, wrote > rote, wrung > rung. Readers of CS have commented that, of these, they have found monosyllables such as butt > but the most disruptive of fluent reading. If CS had to be diluted, then some (or even all) of the above mergers could be prevented by declaring the longer word to be an exception, exempt from normal cutting rules. However, such a step should only be taken with caution, as every additional exception tends to undermine the systemic regularity of CS; thus if write/wrote were required to keep their silent W to prevent confusion with TO rite, rote, then the loss of W from ritn, rench, rong, etc, is also called into question.

2.4.4. HH statues > status A particularly obnoxious feature of TO and the heteroфонic homographs of the type wind (as in ‘north wind’ or ‘unwind’) and tear (‘rip’ or ‘teardrop’). CS resolves some of these (eg, numbr/numr, ter/tear), but unfortunately creates a few more of its own, thus argues/Argus > a/Argus, bellow/below > belo, brisling/brisling > brising, choir > coir, could > cud, done > don, farrow/Paraoh > faro, grisly > grisly, laterally/latterly > latrly, pall > pal, statues > status, thigh > thy, tongues > tongs, venues/Venus > v/Venus, wooed > wood, wrought > rot. These are accepted by CS only because, for reasons of rarity, capitalization, different contexts, etc, their ambiguity is not thought likely to cause serious misunderstanding. A more radical reform than CS could disambiguate most of them, perhaps as argues/Argus, brisling/brisling, coir/coy, cud/cud, don/don, faro/faero, grisly/grisly, paul/pal, statues/statius, tongs/tongz, venues/Venus, raut/rot. However, if reducing the strangeness-effect of CS were paramount, several of these pairs could be allowed to remain uncut as exceptions, eg, argues (perhaps implying that all verbs ending in U should add -ES, not -S for their inflections, and so leaving statues, venues uncut too), bello, brising, choir, pall, tongue. On the other hand, to make an exception of could, laterally, thigh would do more serious damage to the system, since they would undermine the important CS patterns of cud/wud/shud and fedrly/jenrly/litrly/librly, etc, as well as the ablation of all GH spellings (nigh[t], sigh[t], thigh > ny[t], sy[t], thy).

2.4.5. LT cities > citis, follow > folo As noted under Rule 1, E.3.3, some minor latent ambiguity arises in CS between voiced and voiceless values of S in the ending -IS. This already occurs in a few cases in TO, as between the voiced plural S of taxis and the voiceless S of non-plural axis. Two CS cutting patterns aggravate this ambiguity: first, Rule 1, E.3.3, respells many -IES, -EYS plurals as -IS (eg, TO cities, chimneys become CS citis, chinnis); and second, several words like TO practise, promise lose their final E by Rule 1, E.1.1.13, to give CS practis, promis. The result is latent ambiguity between the endings of, eg, bronchitis/posibilitis, but the only instance of actual confusion so far recorded was a misreading of CS yris (from TO eyries) as
representing TO iris. If such dangers of misreading were felt to be excessive, then forms with -IES for plurals could be recommended instead, e.g., cities, chimneys, yries, while -IS is reserved for voiceless, non-plural endings such as axis, practis, etc. (This distinction would satisfy those speakers for whom the final vowels of TO clematis/cities differ in length anyway.) A long-term, radical solution to this problem might suggest sitiz, chimniz, practis, promis, bronkytis, but such forms lie far beyond the scope of CS.

If the above ambiguities pose possible hazards for the reader, it is the writer who is most likely to be troubled, if at all, by the anomalous vowel spellings of related nouns and verbs sheath/shethe, reath/rethe (Rule 1, A.2.2.3.), which might be compared to the anomalous vowels of TO precede/proceed/procedure. If such isolated discrepancies were thought to outweigh the gain of aligning brethe, shethe, rethe, sethe, then the A could, exceptionally, be kept in sheathe, reathe.

Certain patterns involving latent ambiguity were commented on in Chapter 3, especially those containing a short vowel as the CS form parallels TO forms (or other CS forms) containing a long vowel. Posibly somewhat disturbing for the reader (see Rule 3, §2.2.3.O) are words such as follow > folo which align with polo, solo; and likewise willow > wil o which aligns with sil o. Similar latent ambiguity may be observed in the following cases: brackish > brakish versus rakish (Rule 3, §2.2.6.SH); bonnet > bonet (Rule 3, §1.8.TT & §2.2.1.ET) versus brunette > brunet (Rule 3, §1.8.TT); and village > vilaj versus silaj, cottage > cotaj versus dotage > dotaj, and rummaj > rumaj versus plumage > plumaj (Rule 3, §2.2.2.GE). An isolated case is TO comment, which were reduced to CS coment then parallels moment with long O; this ambiguity could be avoided if the E were deemed to represent shwa and the CS form reduced to *comnt. Altho these latent ambiguities are defects in the CS system (and could easily be overcome in a more radical spelling reform), they are not felt to entail serious practical problems. Even less problematic, since there are no parallel forms containing long vowels, are ready, steady > redy, stedy and sweaty > swety, tho they might nevertheless be felt to suggest rimes with needy, sweety rather than with eddy, jetty. In a pattern where numerous actual ambiguities threatened, as between pairs like holly/holy, Rule 3 (§2.5.1) readily allowed exceptions retaining double consonants from TO; and CS could without suffering too much systemic damage allow exceptions in the present cases too, with double consonants retained as in follo, wil o, brackish, bonnet, brunett, villaj, cottaj, rummaj. To go further and double previously single consonants to create forms such as *reddy, *stiddy, *swetty would exceed normal CS procedures (after all, TO tolerates several similar discrepancies, as between very/ferry, proper/copper), and they cannot therefore be so easily recommended, however much the resulting forms may be considered ‘improved’.

2.4.6.AMB

A common kind of ambiguity arises merely from the process of conversion from TO to CS, or vice versa. It is not an ambiguity of sound-symbl correspondence affecting readers or writers of CS itself, and does not therfor
constitute a systemic defect, indeed it reflects an advantage CS has over TO. Where CS disambiguates pairs of words that are heterophones in TO, anyone converting text from TO to CS has to discriminate by sound between ambiguous meanings or grammatical functions. Thus in numerous parallel pairs of words such as *to advocate/an advocate*, or *to present/a present*, and in individual pairs such as CS *a tear(drop)/to ter*, a cut is made for one of the meanings but not the other. Provided the converter knows how the two words are pronounced and understands the cutting rules for each pronunciation, no difficulty arises in such cases. More complex is the case of TO *leaves*, which actually produces heterographs in CS but which the writer has to distinguish according to whether the word is the plural of *leaf* (CS *leaves*) or the TO verb *to leave* (CS *to leave, he leaves*). The reverse pattern of ambiguity confronts the converter from CS to TO in having to decide which meaning of CS *place* requires expansion to TO *plac(e)* (see §2.4.3.ASYM above for a list of such pairs) and whether CS *ther* requires expansion to TO *their* or *there* (see §2.4.4.HH above for a list of such pairs). A computerized conversion program would either need to be equipped with a parser to make the necessary discrimination in these cases, or would need to operate interactively with the user, prompting the user to make a choice whenever such words arose.

(2) **betterment/detriment** A very minor ambiguity of sound-symbl correspondence (which might equally have been listed under §2.4.5.LT above), partly inherited from TO, arises in consequence of Rule 2, §1.2.M, where a differing syllabic structure is concealed in pairs like CS *setlmnt/complmnt, betrmnt/detrmnt, infrmation/acrimony*. In the first word of each pair the structure is as *setl + mnt* with syllabic L, and *betr + mnt, infr + mation* with syllabic R, while the second word in each pair has syllabic M. If it were thought important to make this distinction clear in CS, the shwa-letter could be retained before syllabic M, giving *complemnt/complimnt* (also *implemnt, suplemnt*, *detrimnt, acrimny*), the main disadvantage being the continuing distinction between the two frequently confused forms *complemnt/complimnt*. Another such pattern is seen in the TO pairs *knobbly/probably, worry/orrery*, which by the application of the normal CS rules align as *nobbly/probbly* and *worry/orry*, the *nobbly, worry* have two syllables and and *probly, orry* three. It would not be difficult to allow *probbl* (which is the only CS form to be rime with reduplicated B) exceptiionally to retain its A as *probabl* (cf. the CS exceptions *arabl, berabl*), but the parallels of *onry, litry* make it harder to justify *orery*.

(3) **added > add** Readers coming to CS from TO for the first time are likely to be initially disturbed by a few cases of forward incompatibility, that is, words whose CS form coincides with that of a different TO word. Two such cases have occurred repeatedly in this Handbook already, namely CS *add, err* which correspond to TO *added, error*, and not to TO *add, err*, which in CS are rime *ad, er*. (Conversely, users educated in CS would be disturbed in reading TO by the backward incompatibility of *add, err*, which correspond to CS *ad, er*, and not to CS *add, err*, which in TO are rime *added, error*.) Five further cases are CS *bowl, clever, dingy, lever, raged*, which cud
be mistaken for TO forms, insted of being identifyd with TO bowl, cleaver, dinghy, leaver, ragged; TO bowl, clever, dingy, lever, raged, on th othr hand, ar ritn bol, clevr, dinjy, levr (assuming american pronunciation), raged in CS. Again, altho these problms of compatibility cud be overcom by making exeptions of th words concernd, to do so wud undrmine th systemic regularity of CS, a procedur wich, it is sujestd, wud be betr resistd: afr al, within CS itself th pairs ad/add, er/err, bol/bowl, clevr/clever, dingy/dinjy, levr/lever, raged/raged ar as distinct as add/added, etc, ar in TO. If TO thee wer felt to be a livng word in modrn english and wer cut to CS the, it wud join this list: “My cuntry, ’tis of the...”; but as an arcaic form thee cud be alowd to keep its -EE.

(4) err/heir > er Th CS form er is aditionly problmatic in that it is also ambiguous within CS, resultng not only from from TO err by Rule 3 (§1.1), but also from TO heir by Rule 1 (H.1.1, and I.1.4.). If TO err/heir ar presumed difrntly pronounced, a case cud be made for leving TO heir as CS eir, despite th paralel, very helpful reduction of TO their to CS ther (and simlrly bear, there to ber, ther).

(5) hallow > halo Th typs of ambiguity found in add and err/heir ar combined in th cases of hallow, winnow, wich by Rule 1 (W.3.3) and Rule 3 (§2.2.3.O) wud becom halo, wino, producing not merely forwrs incompatibility, but ambiguity of stresd vowl length within CS itself. Unless th rarity of these words in modrn usaj is jujd to rendr th problm nugatry, exeptions wud seem cald for, overriding Rule 3 and leving hallo, winno (wethr or not th consnnts ar left dubld in similr forms such as TO follow, minnow, as discusd in §2.4.5.LT abov); se Rule 3, §2.2.3 for th recomendation that exeptions be made for hallow/winnow. Less stridently ambiguous than these ar TO borough/borrow, bureau/burrow, wich th CS rules cut to boro/boro, burau/buro respectivly; if ther ambiguity wer found unacceptbl, RR cud esily be kept to distinguish boro/borro, burau/buro. But alowng hallo, winno, borro, burro wud jenrly reinforce th case for making exeptions of th mor numerus, but merely latently ambiguous, forms like folo, mino, givng follo, minno, etc, as wel.

(6) showd/vowd Finaly, ther is th varying retention of W (Rule 1, W.3.2) in difrnt derivativs of TO show and som rymng verbs (sho, shos, shoing, showd, shown; snoed, snowy). This is perhaps th most irritatng inconsistncy in th hole CS systm, and is only persistd in by th Handbook because th vow/show inconsistncy is th sorce of an enormus numbr of errs in TO (especialy mispronunciations by non-nativ speakers). No satisfactry solution to this -OW problm has been found within th rules of CS. We ar therfor faced with a choice between a mor radicl solution (eg, shohd, shohn, ohd, snohd, snohy, vow, vowd), or retention of W thruout (show, shows, showing, showd, shown, owd, snowd, snowy, vow, vowd). If th recomndd CS forms ar felt to be intolrbly untidy, th conservativ choice apears inescapebl.
2.4 Th integrity of th systm
We thus se that not al th cuts recmendd in th CS Handbook and observd in practis in this chaptr ar strictly necesry for th coherence and integrity of th CS systm as a hole. On th othr hand, we also se how many intrconections ther ar between al thre cutng rules (and th substitution rules), so that if a set of exeptions is made in one group of words, ther ar ofn side-efects wich cal othr parts of th systm into question. It is therfor strongly urjd that readrs ho ar evaluating CS shud do so on th basis of th hole systm, rathr than, as it is al too esy to do wen first examnng a new spelng reform proposal, reactng in favor of or against individul CS forms. Apart from som of th uniqely anomlus TO forms like broad, choir, friend wich ar (not always entirely satisfactrly) delt with by Rule 1, most CS spelngs that difr from ther TO equivlnts do so within a coherent framework. If one of th suports of that framework is moved, then th stability of othr parts, or even of th hole structur, can be compromised.

For that is th natur of a wel-desynd riting systm: it has a coherence that alows both readrs and riters of th languaj to move confidntly from th ritn form to th spoken, and from th spoken to th ritn. Th CS orthografy for english is far from flawless (indeed, th first half of this chaptr amounts to a catlog of th most obvius flaws inheritd from TO), but compared with TO, wich has no desyn and no coherent framework, consisting rathr of countless bords, spars, joists, raftrs and purlins tied loosely togethr into a perilusly shaky structur, CS ofrs th kind of solidity enjoyd by many othr languajs, and wich english too wud equaly benefit from.
CUT SPELNG

PART II

TH SYSTM DEMNSTRATED
PART II: CONTENTS

Part II of the Cut Spelling Handbook is divided into three Sections. The first consists of lists of words grouped according to individual cutting patterns. The second mixes words that follow more than one cutting pattern. And the third consists of parallel texts in TO and CS. The introduction to Part II suggests how each of these sections may best be used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td></td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>To new readers</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Outline structure of Cut Spelling</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Purpose of Part II: the system demonstrated &amp; taut</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Using Part II for critical evaluation of TO &amp; CS</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section 1: Patterns of cutting &amp; substitution</td>
<td></td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rule 1 cuts:</td>
<td></td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>letters A–D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>letter E</td>
<td></td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>letters G–M</td>
<td></td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>letters N–T</td>
<td></td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>letters U–Z</td>
<td></td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rule 2 cuts (category 1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>before syllabic L</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>before syllabic M</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>before syllabic N</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>before syllabic R</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>in non-final syllables</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>colliding consonants</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>exceptions</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(category 2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>in the -ED ending</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>in the -ING ending</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>in the comparative -ER ending</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>in the -ES ending</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>in the superlative -EST</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>in the -ABLE, -IBLE endings</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rule 3 cuts:</td>
<td></td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>simplifying final consonants</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>simplifying medial consonants</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>simplifying consonants after prefixes</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>simplifying consonants at morpheme boundaries</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letter substitutions</td>
<td></td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1 substituting F for GH, PH ....................... 238
2 substituting J for soft G .......................... 238
3.1 substituting Y for IG .............................. 239
3.2 substituting Y for IE .............................. 239

Non-alfabetic simplifications:
1 simplifyd use of capitl letrs ...................... 240
2 simplifyd use of apostrofes ........................ 240

Section 2 Cutng exrcises, mixd patrns ......................... 241
1.1 Exrcises for mixd Rule 1 cuts ...................... 241
1.2 Exrcises for mixd Rule 2 cuts ...................... 243
1.3 Exrcises for mixd Rule 3 cuts ...................... 244
2.1 Exrcises for mixd Rules 1 & 2 ...................... 245
2.2 Exrcises for mixd Rules 1 & 3 ...................... 248
2.3 Exrcises for mixd Rules 2 & 3 ...................... 250
3.1 Exrcises for mixd Rules 1, 2 & 3 ................... 253
3.2.1 Exrcises for mixd cuts with F-substitution ...... 254
3.2.2 Exrcises for mixd cuts with J-substitution ...... 255
3.2.3 Exrcises for mixd cuts with Y-substitution ...... 257
4.1 Mixd cuts with simplifyd use of capitl letrs ...... 258
4.2 Mixd cuts with simplifyd use of apostrofe ...... 259

Section 3 Paralel texts in TO and CS ......................... 261
Text 1, fysics & archeolojy, New Scientist.................. 261
Text 2, musicl jenius, London Review of Books ............. 262
Text 3, consrvation of elefnts, The Guardian ................ 263
Text 4, th new Europ, The Economist ...................... 264
PART II
Introduction: HOW TO USE PART II

1 To new readers
Readers coming to Cut Spelling (CS) directly, without intending to study the detailed analysis in Part I, are advised to begin here, with Part II. For the benefit of such readers a brief review of how CS works is given next, which may be skipped by those who have studied Part I. Readers starting with Part II will encounter full CS from the next paragraph onwards (it was introduced chapter by chapter in Part I), and may like some guidance on how to begin reading it. New readers are likely to pause and reflect on unusual spellings, but it is probably better if they begin by trying to read fluently, ignoring the spellings as far as possible, as there will be plenty of opportunity to think about them afterwards in Sections 1, 2 & 3. Naturally CS will appear a little strange at first, but the strangeness wears off quite soon, and before long readers should find themselves only hesitating over occasional spellings. Fluency in reading CS grows quickly with practice.

2 Outline structur of CS
CS is quite easy to read even when seen for the first time, because most words are spelt almost in their familiar way. The main change is the disappearance of the many unnecessary letters which learners, readers and writers find so confusing in traditional spelling (called Traditional Orthography, or TO for short).

Learning to write in CS, on the other hand, needs much more concentration than reading. The writer has to learn which letters in TO are unnecessary, and then to practice writing words without them. There are three rules for deciding which letters to cut out, and three rules for which letters are substituted. These rules are outlined next.

- **Rule 1** says that letters are cut out if they have nothing to do with how words sound. Many such letters are obvious, like B in *debt* or G in *foreign*. In fact around 20 letters of the alphabet are sometimes redundant like this. But some letters may at first seem redundant because they are silent, although they cannot be cut, as they tell us something indirectly about how to a word sounds. For example, the E in *hope* is silent, but without it, the word would be *hop*. This tells us that, although silent, the E in *hope* is needed to show the sound of the word, and it must be kept in CS. The patterns and exercises in Sections 1 & 2 teach how to decide which silent letters have to be kept in CS, as well as which can be cut.
Rule 2 cuts unstressed vowel letters, most often in the last syllables of words, especially before L or M or N or R, but also in the endings -ED, -ES, -ING, -ABLE, -IBLE. This rule cuts words like TO chapel, fathom, curtain, murmur to CS chapl, fathm, curtn, murmr, and TO washed, washes, washing, washable to CS washd, washs, washng, washbl. These endings are very common, and although there are some exceptions to this rule, it is not difficult to learn when to make this cut.

Rule 3 is the easiest: it involves cutting nearly all double consonants to just one; for instance, TO accommodate becomes CS acomodate. There are a few exceptions to this rule too, for instance to prevent holly becoming holy.

Thre substitution rules are also easy. The first says, write F instead of GH or PH, when these are pronounced /f/ (eg, CS ruf, fotograf). The second replaces G or DG with J when they are pronounced like J (eg, jinjr, juj). And the third says, write Y instead of IJ in words like sigh, sight, sign and Y instead of IE in some other positions (eg, CS sy, syt, syn, replyd).

3 Purpos of Part II: the system demonstrated and taut

Part I of the Handbook gives a detailed account of how the CS system is desynthesized, discussing the underlying linguistic and sociolinguistic theory as well as which letters can be omitted from the rhythm form of English words. It is intended for reference on specific points of CS and as essential background information for a critical evaluation of the system. By and large it is intended for specialists rather than for the general reader. Although the text of Part I progressively introduces CS in practice, it is not meant to give a quick overview of the system, nor to teach learners how to write it.

Those are the aims of this second part of the Handbook. Part II is intended for readers whose main interest is practical, who want a clear overview of how CS works, and who may wish to learn to write CS themselves. By skimming through lists in the first section of Part II, readers will gain a general impression of the system, and by studying the spelling patterns more carefully they will begin to develop a feel for the CS cutting procedures.

The patterns listed in Section 1, with TO forms in the left-hand column and CS equivalents beside them on the right, can, if learners wish, be used as teach-yourself exercises. The learner can cover the CS column and write down the CS forms, checking the correct answers afterwards against the CS list; any wrong answers can be marked for attention again later. However, the lists in Section 1 are not primarily intended for this purpose: since a typical list consists of words cut by a single pattern, most cuts are obvious and readers may find the process tedious after respelling the first two or three words in each list. Section 1 is primarily intended for rapid perusal, as a demonstration and catalog of CS rules. Each pattern refers to a paragraph in Part I, where it is discussed in its wider orthographic context.
Sections 2 and 3 of this second Part of the Handbook on the other hand are designed specifically as self-tutoring exercises, where learners can test their mastery of the CS cutting and substitution rules. Unlike Section 1, the lists in Section 2 are structured to mix the patterns, and learners will therefore need to consider carefully which are the appropriate cuts to make as they work through each exercise. In the early exercises most words are cut more than once by a single cutting rule (e.g., TO *adjourn* loses both its D and its O by Rule 1), but as the learner proceeds, so the range of cuts required becomes more varied, with cuts being made by two or more Rules, until in the final exercises the most complex and varied cutting patterns of all have to be applied (e.g., TO *acknowledgment* becomes CS *aknolejmnt* by Rules 1, 2 & 3, as well as by DG > J substitution).

Section 3 provides authentic texts with parallel versions in TO and CS. These are in one respect easier and in another respect harder to reduce to CS: many words in them are easy because they do not have to be cut at all, but the learner has to be able to distinguish those words in the texts which are not cut from those that are, and then make the necessary cuts.

4 Using Part II for critical evaluation of TO & CS
Whether or not the exercises are used specifically for training in how to write CS, they will be found, by their systematic comparison and contrasting of different spelling patterns in TO, to give a revealing insight into its irregularities and redundancies. Readers wishing to undertake a critical evaluation of CS as a reformed orthography should also find the lists useful, as directly showing which CS forms are self-evidently an improvement on TO (in the sense of giving a better match between spelling and pronunciation) and whether some should be considered more doubtful.
Section 1
PATRNS OF CUTNG AND SUBSTITUTION

Listing of patterns
Th words listd in Section 1 belo ar groupd acordng to patrns of cutng and substitution, in rufly th same ordr and with th same subdivisons as for ther analysis in Part I (Chaptrs 3-5) of th Handbook. A typicl list contains about 10 words, mostly relating to a singl patrn of cutng or simplification, but th numbr may vary acordng to how many useful exampls ar availbl for each patrn. Somtimes mor than one list deals with a givn patrn, in wich case they ar numbrd as eg 103/1, 103/2 etc. Th lists consist of two colums, on th left a colum for th TO form of th words, and on th ryt a colum for th CS form of th same words.

Words to be cut and words not to be cut
Many lists contain one or mor TO forms for wich no CS equivlnt is givn. These words ar not cut, but ar included to provide a contrast with th basic patrn ilustrated in th list; ther purpos is thus to clarify th reasn for th cut or substitution. For instnce, Patrn 104 is concernd with words of th typ bread, wich lose ther redundnt A in CS; but th patrn begins with th exampl bed, to sho th standrd english sound-symbl corespondnce with wich CS alys TO bread. Similrly, that list also contains th exampl bead, wich is not cut eithr, as it shos th pronunciation wich th TO form bread shud represent, but dos not.

Reference to explications in Part I
Beneath th numbr for each patrn ther is a refrnce to th paragraf in Part I wher th thinkng behind th patrn in question is discusd. Th ke to th refrnce is as folos: Patrns 241/1 and 241/2 refer to Part I of th Handbook, 3/2-2.D; ths means that th explication for th cut is to be found in Part I, Chaptr 3, Categry 2, Section 2, Paragraf D.
CS Rule 1
CUTNG LETRS IRELEVNT TO PRONUNCIATION

For explnations, se Part I, Chaptr 3, Rule 1 (= I-3/1)

Cutng redundnt A

### Patrn 101
Se Part I: 3/1-A.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TO</th>
<th>CS (if cut)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 aeons</td>
<td>eons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 aerial</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 anaemia</td>
<td>anemia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 anaesthetic</td>
<td>anesthetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 caesarian</td>
<td>cesarian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 encyclopaedia</td>
<td>encyclopedia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 faeces</td>
<td>feces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Gaelic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Israeli</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 orthopaedic</td>
<td>orthopedic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 palaeolithic</td>
<td>paleolithic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 primaeval</td>
<td>primeval</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patrn 102
Se Part I: 3/1-A.2.1

| 1 be       |             |
| 2 flea     | fle         |
| 3 idea     |             |
| 4 pea      | pe          |
| 5 plea     | ple         |
| 6 sea      | se          |
| 7 tea      | te          |
| 8 peanut   | penut       |
| 9 seaside  | seside      |
| 10 teapot  | tepot       |

### Patrn 103/1
Se Part I: 3/1-A.2.2

| 1 these    |             |
| 2 disease  | disese      |
| 3 please   | plese       |
| 4 tease    | tese        |
| 5 ease     | ese         |
| 6 easy     | esy         |
| 7 grease   | grese       |
| 8 peace    | pece        |
| 9 cease    | cese        |
| 10 increase| increse     |
| 11 lease   | lese        |
| 12 crease  | crese       |

### Patrn 103/2

| 1 breathe  | brethe      |
| 2 breath   | breth       |
| 3 sheathe  | shethe      |
| 4 sheath   |             |
| 5 eve      |             |
| 6 eaves    | eves        |
| 7 bereave  | bereve      |
| 8 heave    | heve        |
| 9 weave    | weve        |
| 10 leave   | leve        |
| 11 leaf/leaves | leaf/leavs |
| 12 sheaf/sheaves | sheaf/sheavs |
### Patrn 104/1

Se Part I: 3/1-A.2.3.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>bed</th>
<th>CS (if cut)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>bread</td>
<td>bred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>bead</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>dead</td>
<td>ded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>dread</td>
<td>dred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>hed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>heal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>health</td>
<td>helth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>spread</td>
<td>spred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>threat</td>
<td>thret</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patrn 104/2

| 1 | best |
| 2 | breast | brest |
| 3 | beast | |
| 4 | deaf | def |
| 5 | realm | relm |
| 6 | steal | |
| 7 | stealth | stelth |
| 8 | sweat | swet |
| 9 | thread | thred |
| 10 | tread | tred |

### Patrn 104/3

| 1 | breadth | bredth |
| 2 | breath | breth |
| 3 | breathe | brethe |
| 4 | death | deth |
| 5 | cleanse | clense |
| 6 | instead | insted |
| 7 | wealth | welth |
| 8 | heavy | hevy |
| 9 | ready | redy |
| 10 | steady | stedy |

### Patrn 104/4

| 1 | deal |
| 2 | dealt | delt |
| 3 | dream | |
| 4 | dreamt | dremt |
| 5 | lean | |

| 7 | leap |
| 8 | leapt | lept |
| 9 | mean | |
| 10 | meant | ment |
| 11 | lead (metal) | led |
| 12 | to lead | |
| 13 | to read | |
| 14 | he read | he red |

### Patrn 105

Se Part I: 3/1-A.2.3.2

| 1 | earl |
| 2 | ear |
| 3 | early | erly |
| 4 | earn | ern |
| 5 | earnest | earnest |
| 6 | earth | erth |
| 7 | hear | |
| 8 | heard | herd |
| 9 | learn | lern |
| 10 | pearl | perl |
| 11 | rehearse | rehearse |
| 12 | search | serch |

### Patrn 106

Se Part I: 3/1-A.2.4 1

| 1 | breakfast | brekfast |
| 2 | break | brek |
| 3 | leak | |
| 4 | eat | |
| 5 | great | gret |
| 6 | steak | stek |

### Patrn 107

Se Part I: 3/1-A.2.4 2

| 1 | sombrero | |
| 2 | bear | ber |
| 3 | pear | per |
| 4 | dear | |
| 5 | smear | |
| 6 | swear | swer |
| 7 | tearful | |
| 8 | wear & tear | wer & ter |
| 9 | year | |
| 10 | their/there | ther |
### Patrn 108

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Part</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Rule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>108</td>
<td>Part I: 3/1-A.3</td>
<td>TO CS (if cut)</td>
<td>9 clothe 10 loathe lothe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 road</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 broad</td>
<td></td>
<td>brod</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 for</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 boar</td>
<td></td>
<td>bor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 board</td>
<td></td>
<td>bord</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 ford</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 coarse</td>
<td></td>
<td>corse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 hoarse</td>
<td></td>
<td>horse</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

### Patrn 109

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Part</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Rule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>109</td>
<td>Part I: 3/1-A.5: mislaneous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 rococo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 cocoa</td>
<td></td>
<td>coco</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 samovar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 bazaar</td>
<td></td>
<td>bazar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 by</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 ay(e)</td>
<td></td>
<td>y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Cutng redundnt B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Part</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Rule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>110/1</td>
<td>Part I: 3/1-B</td>
<td>TO CS (if cut)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 ram</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 lamb</td>
<td></td>
<td>lam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 jamb</td>
<td></td>
<td>jam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 rim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 limb</td>
<td></td>
<td>lim</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 climb</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Tom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 aplomb</td>
<td></td>
<td>aplom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 bomb</td>
<td></td>
<td>bom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 comb</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

### Cutng redundnt C

<table>
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<th>Part</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Rule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>Part I: 3/1-C.2</td>
<td>TO CS (if cut)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 aquatic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 acquaint</td>
<td></td>
<td>aquaint</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 acquiesce</td>
<td></td>
<td>acquiesce</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 aquiline</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 acquire</td>
<td></td>
<td>aquire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 acquit</td>
<td></td>
<td>aqu</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Part</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Rule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>112</td>
<td>Part I: 3/1-C.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 scene</td>
<td></td>
<td>sene</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 sent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 scent</td>
<td></td>
<td>sent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 sciatica</td>
<td></td>
<td>sciatica</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 science</td>
<td></td>
<td>sience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 scythe</td>
<td></td>
<td>sythe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 ascetic</td>
<td></td>
<td>asetic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 descend</td>
<td></td>
<td>descend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 disciple</td>
<td></td>
<td>diseple</td>
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</tr>
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</table>
### Patrn 113

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>CS (if cut)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>coalesce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>schist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>schmaltz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>schwa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patrn 114

**Se Part I: 3/1-C.5**

| 1      | exceed     |
| 2      | execute    |
| 3      | excel      |
| 4      | except     |
| 5      | excerpt    |
| 6      | exert      |
| 7      | excess     |

### Cutng redundnt D

**Patrn 116**

**Se Part I: 3/1-D**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TO</th>
<th>CS (if cut)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ajar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>adjacent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Cutng redundnt E

**Patrn 117**

**Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.1/2/4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TO</th>
<th>CS (if cut)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>axe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>adze</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>caviare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>styre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>carafe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>carcasse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>premise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Patrn 118**

**Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TO</th>
<th>CS (if cut)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>dove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>drove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>glove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>love</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patrn 115

**Se Part I: 3/1-C.8/9/10**

(alternatives with S, K preferred)

| 1      | czar       |
| 2      | expense    |
| 3      | defence    |
| 4      | licence    |
| 5      | risk       |
| 6      | disc       |
| 7      | skip       |
| 8      | sceptic    |

| 9      | exist      |
| 10     | excise     |
|        | exited     |
### Patrn 119
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.7
| 1 | beadle | beadl |
| 2 | idle |
| 3 | eagle | eagl |
| 4 | soluble | solubl |
| 5 | noble |
| 6 | principle | principl |
| 7 | maple |
| 8 | steeple | steepl |
| 9 | beetle | beetl |
| 10 | title |

### Patrn 120
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.8.1
(for americn pronunciation)
| 1 | docile | docil |
| 2 | futile | futil |
| 3 | mobile | mobil |
| 4 | sterile | steril |
| 5 | virile | viril |

### Patrn 121
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.9
| 1 | discipline | disiplin |
| 2 | doctrine | doctrin |
| 3 | heroine | heroin |
| 4 | machine |
| 5 | masculine | masculin |
| 6 | glycerine | glycerin |
| 7 | alpine |
| 8 | urine | urin |
| 9 | shone | shon |
| 10 | tone |

### Patrn 122
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.12.1
| 1 | bar |
| 2 | are | ar |
| 3 | bare |
| 4 | her |
| 5 | were | wer |

### Patrn 123
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.12.2
| 1 | fibre/-er |
| 2 | calibre/-er | calibr |
| 3 | litre/-er |
| 4 | goitre/-er | goitr |
| 5 | centre/-er | centr |
| 6 | metre/-er |
| 7 | ogre |
| 8 | meagre/-er | meagr |
| 9 | sabre/-er |
| 10 | sombre/-er | sombr |
| 11 | spectre/-er | spectr |
| 12 | theatre | theatr |

### Patrn 124
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.12.4
| 1 | ore | or |
| 2 | bore | bor |
| 3 | core | cor |
| 4 | more | mor |
| 5 | abhor |
| 6 | before | befor |
| 7 | deplore | deplor |
| 8 | ignore | ignor |
| 9 | therefore | therfor |
| 10 | forego | forgo |

### Patrn 125
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.12.5
| 1 | nature | natur |
| 2 | mature |
| 3 | picture | pictur |
| 4 | tenure | tenur |
| 5 | manure |
| 6 | pressure | pressur |
| 7 | lecture | lectur |
| 8 | verdure | verdur |
| 9 | endure |
| 10 | procedure | procedur |
| 11 | exposure | exposur |
| 12 | secure |
**Cutng patrnsv—RULE 1**

### Patrn 126
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TO</th>
<th>CS (if cut)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>basis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>practise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>pathos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>atlas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>purchase</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patrn 127
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a graduate</th>
<th>a graduat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to graduate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to delegate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a delegate</td>
<td>a delegat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one minute</td>
<td>one minut</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patrn 128/1
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>drive</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to live</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>olive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twelve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patrn 128/2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>have</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>octave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’ve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we’ve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they’ve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oakleaves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loaves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>halves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patrn 129
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.1.16

| few |
| ew  |

### Patrn 130
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.2.1

| be  |
| bee |
| fee |
| glee |
| she |
| see/sea |
| tee/tea |

### Patrn 131
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.2.3

| so  |
| foe |
| go  |
| roe |
| do  |
| doe |
| woe |
| who |
| hoe |
| show |
| shoe |
| to  |
| toe |
| canoe |

### Patrn 132
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.2.4

| menu |
| continue |
| continu |
| residue |
| residu |
| truly |
| true |
| tru |
| flu |
| blue |
| blu |
| duly |
| due |
| du |
| arguing |
| argu |
| valuation |
| valu |
CUT SPEELNG Part II: th systm demnstrated

Patrn 133
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.2.5
  TO  CS (if cut)
  1 try
  2 rye  ry
  3 by
  4 bye  by
  5 dye  dy

Patrn 134
Se Part I: 3/1-E.1.2.6
  sty
  2 style  styl
  3 type  typ
  4 tyre  tyr
  5 myth
  6 scythe  sythe

Patrn 135
Se Part I: 3/1-E.2.1.1
  hart
  2 heart  hart
  3 hearth  harth
  4 hear

Patrn 136
Se Part I: 3/1-E.2.1.2
  bureau  burau
  2 bureaucracy  buraucracy
  3 plateau  platau
  4 tableau  tablau

Patrn 137
Se Part I: 3/1-E.2.1.3
  1 Grecian
  2 Greece  Grece
  3 fleece  fleece
  4 peace  pece
  5 geese  gese
  6 grease  grese
  7 cheese  chese
  8 these
  9 seethe  sethe
  9 sheathe  shethe
  10 eve
  11 sleeve  sleve
  12 leave  leve
  13 breeze  breze
  14 freeze  freze
  15 sneeze  sneze

Patrn 138
Se Part I: 3/1-E.2.1.4
  1 emir
  2 bier  bir
  3 frontier  frontir
  4 elixir
  5 hotelier  hotelir
  6 pier  pir
  7 tier  tir
  8 earlier  erlir
  9 soldier  soldir
  10 glacier  glacir
  11 fire
  12 fiery  firy

Patrn 139
Se Part I: 3/1-E.2.1.4/5
  1 sieve  siv
  2 weir
  3 wider
  4 eiderdown  iderdown
  5 alkali
  6 kaleidoscope  kalidoscope
  7 Roman
  8 yeoman  yoman

Patrn 140
Se Part I: 3/1-E.2.1.6
  1 adieu  adiu
  2 grandeur  grandur
  3 verdure  verdur
  4 truth
  5 sleuth  sluth
### Patrn 141
Se Part I: 3/1-E.2.1.7

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>convey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>curtsey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>donkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>monkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>bony</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>storey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>chimney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>turkey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patrn 142
#### 1/3
Se Part I: 3/1-E.3.1

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>reached</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>roofed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>looked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>joked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>peeled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>piled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>toothed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>lived</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>dived</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>arced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>forced</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 2/3
Se Part I: 3/1-E.3.2.1

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<td>taxied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>skied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>pitted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>pitied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>volleyed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>embargoed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>hoed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>showed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>toed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>towed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>argued</td>
</tr>
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<td>12</td>
<td>glued</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### 3/3
Se Part I: 3/1-E.3.2.2

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pianos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>potatoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>he does</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>tomatoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>goes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>embargoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>whose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>hoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>shows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>shoes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4/3
Se Part I: 3/1-E.3.3

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
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### Patrn 142/3

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### Patrn 142/4
Se Part I: 3/1-E.3.2.1

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Cutng patrns—RULE 1

Cutng redundnt H

**Patrn 149**  
Se Part I: 3/1-H.1.1  

TO | CS (if cut)  
---|---  
1 | honest | onest  
2 | hour | our  

Se Part I: 3/1-H.1.2  

3 | exhale | exale  
4 | exhaust | exaust  
5 | exhibit | exibit  
6 | exhort | exort  
7 | exhume | exume  

Se Part I: 3/1-H.1.3  

8 | cheetah | cheeta  
9 | hookah | hooka  
10 | verandah | veranda

**Patrn 150**  
Se Part I: 3/1-H.2.1  

1 | case  
2 | chaos | caos  
3 | chase  
4 | chorus | corus  
5 | chiropody  
6 | choir | coir  
7 | mechanic | mecanic  
8 | ochre/-er | ocre  
9 | orchestra  
10 | school | scool  
11 | stomach | stomac  
12 | archbishop  
13 | scene | sene  
14 | scheme | scheme  

Se Part I: 3/1-H.2.2  

15 | ache  
16 | squat  
17 | yacht | yat

**Patrn 151**  
Se Part I: 3/1-H.2.3  

1 | ghastly | gastly  
2 | ghost | gost  
3 | ghoul | goul

**Patrn 152**  
Se Part I: 3/1-H.2.5/6  

1 | rap  
2 | rhapsody | rapsody  
3 | ruminate  
4 | rheumatic | rumatic  
5 | rhinoceros | rinoceros  
6 | rhododendron | rododendron  
7 | romp  
8 | rhombus | rombus  
9 | ruby  
10 | rhubarb | rubarb  
11 | rhythm | rythm

**Patrn 153/1**  
Se Part I: 3/1-H.2.7  

1 | wash  
2 | what | wat  
3 | went  
4 | when | wen  
5 | whence | wence  
6 | which | wich  
7 | while | wile  
8 | why | wy  
9 | were/wear | wer  
10 | where | wher

**Patrn 153/2**  
Se Part I: 3/1-H.2.8  

1 | wade  
2 | whale | wale  
3 | wart  
4 | wharf | warf  
5 | wheat | weat  
6 | weed  
7 | wheel | weel  
8 | whilst | wilst  
9 | whim | wim  
10 | whip | wip  
11 | whiskey | wisky  
12 | whine | wine  
13 | khaki | kaki
Cutting redundant I

**Patrn 154**
Se Part I: 3/1-I.1.1

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**Patrn 155**
Se Part I: 3/1-I.1.2: AI > A

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**Patrn 156**
Se Part I: 3/1-I.1.3

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**Patrn 157**
Se Part I: 3/1-I.1.4

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**Patrn 157**
Se Part I: 3/1-I.1.5

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**Patrn 158**
Se Part I: 3/1-I.1.6

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**Patrn 159**
Se Part I: 3/1-I.1.7

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**Patrn 160**
Se Part I: 3/1-I.1.6

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### Cutng redundnt K

**Patrn 161**  
Se Part I: 3/1-K.1  
TO CS (if cut)  
| 1 | knave | nave |
| 2 | knead | nead |
| 3 | kneel | neel |
| 4 | knew  | new  |
| 5 | knife | nife |
| 6 | knit  | nit  |
| 7 | knob  | nob  |
| 8 | knout | nout |
| 9 | knot  | not  |
| 10| known | nown |

Redundnt L cut with othr letrs, se Section 2.

### Cutng redundnt M

**Patrn 162**  
Se Part I: 3/1-M  
TO CS (if cut)  
| 1 | mnemonic |
| 2 | amnesia  |
| 3 | mnemonic |

### Cutng redundnt N

**Patrn 163**  
Se Part I: 3/1-N  
TO CS (if cut)  
| 1 | column | colum |
| 2 | condemn | condem |
| 3 | damn  | dam  |
| 4 | damnation |  |
| 5 | hymn | hym |

### Cutng redundnt O

**Patrn 164**  
Se Part I: 3/1-O.1/2  
TO CS (if cut)  
| 1 | people | peple |
| 2 | foetus | fetus |
| 3 | oedema | edema |
| 4 | Oedipus | Edipus |

**Patrn 165**  
Se Part I: 3/1-O.3  
TO CS (if cut)  
| 1 | son |
| 2 | blood | blod |
| 3 | flood | flod |
| 4 | door  | dor  |
| 5 | floor | flor |
| 6 | poor  |  |
| 7 | taboo | tabu |
Cut Spelng Part II: th systm demnstrated

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<td>3 truth</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 youth yuth</td>
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<td>5 sleuth sluth</td>
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<td>6 superb</td>
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Cutng redundnt P

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<td>3 redemption redemtion</td>
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<td>4 consumption consumtion</td>
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<td>5 gumption gumtion</td>
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Se Part I: 3/1-P.3
| 6 deceit |  |
| 7 receipt receit |  |
| 8 conceit |  |

Se Part I: 3/1-P.6
| 9 soup |  |
| 10 coup cu |  |
### Cutting redundant S

**Patrn 171**
Se Part I: 3/1-S.1
- TO: pile
- CS: (if cut)

**Patrn 172**
Se Part I: 3/1-S.2
- 5. debris: debri
- 6. fracas: fraca
- 7. chamois (anml): chamoi
- 8. corps: cor

### Cutting redundant T

**Patrn 175**
Se Part I: 3/1-T.1
- TO: patch
- CS: (if cut)

**Patrn 176**
Se Part I: 3/1-T.3
- 1. castle: casl
- 2. trestle: tresl
- 3. bristle: brisl
- 4. epistle: episl
- 5. jostle: josl
- 6. apostle: aposl
- 7. hustle: husl
- 8. rustle: rusl

### Cutting redundant U

**Patrn 178/1**
Se Part I: 3/1-U.2.1.1/2
- TO: garb
- CS: (if cut)

**Patrn 177**
Se Part I: 3/1-T.4
- 1. depot: depo
- 2. trait: trai
CUT SPELNG Part II: th systm demonstrated

**Patrn 178/2**

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5  clique   cliqe
6  critique critiqe
7  brusque  brusqe

**Patrn 179**

Se Part I: 3/1-U.2.1.3

1  renege
2  vague
3  fatigue
4  vogue
5  fugue
6  tongue

**Patrn 180/1**

Se Part I: 3/1-U.2.2

1  bouquet   buqet
2  croquet   croqet
3  parquet   parqet
4  mosquito  mosqito
5  masque    masq
6  Iraq      
7  plaque    plaq
8  burlesque burlesq
9  grotesque grotesq
10 picturesque picturesq

**Patrn 182**

Se Part I: 3/1-U.3.3

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**Patrn 183**

Se Part I: 3/1-U.3.4

1  boy
2  buoy

Se Part I: 3/1-U.3.5

3  by
4  guy
5  buy
## Cutting Redundant W

### Patrn 184
Se Part I: 3/1-W.1

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### Patrn 185/1
Se Part I: 3/1-W.1.2

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### Patrn 186
Se Part I: 3/1-W.2

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Se Part I: 3/1-W.2.1/2/4

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**Cutng redundnt Y**

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<td>Semor</td>
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**Singl Z nevr cut**
222  

**Patrn 206**

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.L.O

| 1 | gambol | gambl |
| 2 | alcohol | petrol |
| 3 | patrol  | pistol |

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.L.U

| 6 | consul  | consl |
| 7 | consult |  |
| 8 | peepul  | peepl |
| 9 | people   | peple |

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.L.Y

| 10 | methyl  | methl |

**1.2—Cutng vowls with sylabic M**

**Patrn 207**

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.M.A

| 1 | madam | madm |
| 2 | amalgam | amalgm |
| 3 | gingham | gingm |
| 4 | flotsam | flotsm |
| 5 | Masham | Masm |
| 6 | Measham | Meashm |
| 7 | bantam | bantm |
| 8 | Chatham | Chatm |
| 9 | rhythm | rythm |
| 10 | Grantham | Granthm |

**Patrn 208**

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.M.E

| 1 | tandem | tandm |
| 2 | condemn | condem |
| 3 | problem | problm |
| 4 | system | systm |
| 5 | anthem | anthm |

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.M.I

| 6 | pilgrim | pilgrm |
| 7 | victim | victm |
| 8 | maxim | maxm |

**Patrn 209**

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.M.O

| 1 | random | randm |
| 2 | kingdom | kingdm |
| 3 | venom | venm |
| 4 | maelstrom | maelstrm |
| 5 | ransom | ransm |
| 6 | microcosm |  |
| 7 | bosom | bosm |
| 8 | atom | atm |
| 9 | custom | custm |
| 10 | fathom | fathm |
| 11 | buxom | buxm |

**Patrn 210**

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.M.U

| 1 | album | albm |
| 2 | modicum | modicm |
| 3 | fulcrum | fulcrm |
| 4 | panjandrum | panjandrm |
| 5 | tantrum | tantrm |
| 6 | dictum | dictm |
| 7 | momentum | momentm |
| 8 | quantum | quantm |

**1.3—Cutng vowls with sylabic N**

**Patrn 211**

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.N.A

| 1 | Haydn |  |
| 2 | urban | urbn |
| 3 | republican | republicn |
| 4 | Jordan | Jordn |

Se Part I: 3/2-1.1.N.U

<p>| 5 | hooligan | hoolign |
| 6 | woman | womn |
| 7 | metropolitan | metropolitin |
| 8 | Jonathan | Jonathn |
| 9 | Pakistan |  |
| 10 | silvan | silvn |</p>
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1.4—Cutng vowls with sylabic R

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1. **Cutng patrns**—**RULE 2, CATEGORY 1**

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1.5—**Cutng vowls in non-final sylabls**

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Se Part I: 3/2-1.2.L

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Se Part I: 3/2-1.2.N

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Se Part I: 3/2-1.2.R

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Se Part I: 3/2-1.3
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### 1.7—Patrons of exepption to Rule 2 (category 1)

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### Patrn 233
Se Part I: 3/2-1.6.1.XR

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### Patrn 234
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### Patrn 235
Se Part I: 3/2-1.6.2.XC

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### Patrn 236
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**Patrn 237**
Se Part I: 3/2-1.6.3.XV.4.MN
TO CS (if cut)
1 museum
2 tedium
3 vacuum
4 herculean
5 radiant
6 truant
7 fluent
8 consequent
9 piquant piqant

| 5   | central | centrl |
| 6   | film    |
| 7   | alum    |
| 8   | Jerusalem | Jeruslm |
| 9   | optimum | optmm |

---

**Patrn 238**
Se Part I: 3/2-1.6.3.XV.5.R
1 seer
2 theatre-goer theatr-goer
3 peculiar peculir
4 tidier tidir
5 exterior exterir
6 elixir
7 jaguar jagur
8 valuer valur
9 picture pictur

| 1   | venom   |
| 2   | form    |
| 3   | forum   |
| 4   | marjoram marjrm |
| 5   | kiln    |
| 6   | woolen  |
| 7   | equivalent equivlnt |
| 8   | lemon   | lemn |
| 9   | linen   | linn |

---

**Patrn 239/1**
Se Part I: 3/2-1.6.4.XS
1 camel caml
2 panel panl
3 girl
4 moral

| 5   | central | centrl |
| 6   | film    |
| 7   | alum    |
| 8   | Jerusalem | Jeruslm |
| 9   | optimum | optmm |

---

**Patrn 239/2**
1 seer
2 theatre-goer theatr-goer
3 peculiar peculir
4 tidier tidir
5 exterior exterir
6 elixir
7 jaguar jagur
8 valuer valur
9 picture pictur

| 1   | venom   |
| 2   | form    |
| 3   | forum   |
| 4   | marjoram marjrm |
| 5   | kiln    |
| 6   | woolen  |
| 7   | equivalent equivlnt |
| 8   | lemon   | lemn |
| 9   | linen   | linn |

---

**Patrn 239/3**
1 barn
2 Karen
3 brethren
4 reverent revrnt
5 cauldron
6 modern modrn
7 sailor sailr
8 steamer steamr
9 owner ownr
10 murderer murdrr
Category 2—vowels in suffixs (for explanations see Part I-3/2-2)

2.1—Cutng E in past-tense -ED inflections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrn 240/1</th>
<th>Patrn 240/2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Se Part I: 3/2-2.D</td>
<td>1  agreed</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2 needed</td>
<td>needd</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 conceded</td>
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</tr>
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<td>4 completed</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 fated</td>
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<td>6 failed</td>
<td>faild</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 waited</td>
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<tr>
<td>8 raided</td>
<td>raidd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 coated</td>
<td>coatd</td>
</tr>
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<td>10 coded</td>
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<tr>
<td>1  surveyed</td>
<td>surveyed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 showed</td>
<td>showd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 sued</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 acned</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 taxied</td>
<td>taxid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 embargoed</td>
<td>embargod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 argued</td>
<td>argud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 pitied</td>
<td>pitid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 worried</td>
<td>worrid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 speeded</td>
<td>speedd</td>
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<td>11 looted</td>
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2.2—Cutng I in -ING inflections

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<td>2 arcng</td>
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<td>3 reaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 conceding</td>
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<td>5 needing</td>
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</tr>
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<td>6 roofng</td>
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<td>7 singng</td>
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<td>8 leakng</td>
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<td>9 feelng</td>
<td>feelng</td>
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<td>10 comng</td>
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<td>13 soapng</td>
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<td>15 striving</td>
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### 2.3—Cutng E in -ER comparativ inflections

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</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>hating</td>
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<td>7</td>
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### 2.4—Cutng E in -ES inflections

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<td>fusses</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>gases</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>atlases</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>irises</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>circuses</td>
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<td>taxis</td>
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### 2.5—Cutting E in -EST superlative inflections

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<td>2 hardest</td>
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<td>7 cheapest</td>
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### 2.6—Cutting A, I in -ABLE, -IBLE suffixes

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<tr>
<td>2 bible</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
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<td>3 feeble feebl</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 eatable eatbl</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 edible edbl</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
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<td>6 voluble volubl</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 valuable</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 probable</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>9 noticeable</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 unteachable</td>
<td>2 indefinable</td>
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<td>3 navigable</td>
<td>3 notable</td>
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<td>4 singable</td>
<td>4 excusable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 unthinkable</td>
<td>5 refutable</td>
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<td>6 available</td>
<td>6 agreeable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 redeemable</td>
<td>7 liable</td>
</tr>
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<td>8 obtainable</td>
<td>8 pitiable</td>
</tr>
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<td>9 hearable</td>
<td>9 noble</td>
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<td>hearbl</td>
<td>10 doable</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 forgivable</td>
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### Patrn 246/5

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<td>adorable</td>
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<p>| | | |</p>
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<td>8</td>
<td>incalculable</td>
<td>incalculabl</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
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CS Rule 3
DUBLD CONSNNTS SIMPLIFYD
For explnations, se Part I, Chapter 3, Section 3 (I-3/3)

1—Simplifyng final consnnts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrn 301</th>
<th>Patrn 302</th>
<th>Patrn 303</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 3/3-1.1.MV</strong></td>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 3/3-1.2.CK</strong></td>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 3/3-1.3.FF</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
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<td>ebb</td>
<td>staff</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>bad</td>
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<td>add</td>
<td>eff</td>
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<td>if</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>odd</td>
<td>cliff</td>
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<td>off</td>
</tr>
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<td>scoff</td>
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<td>bluff</td>
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<td>hemlock</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
2—Simplifying medial consonants
### Patrn 311
**Se Part I: 3/3-2.2.7.IT**
- **TO**: graffiti, stiletto, vermicelli
- **CS** (if cut):
  1. graffiti
  2. stiletto
  3. vermicelli

### Patrn 311/1
**Se Part I: 3/3-2.2.8**
- 1. tobacco
- 2. goddess

### Patrn 312/1
**Se Part I: 3/3-2.3**
- 1. bellicose
- 2. current
- 3. erratic
- 4. ferric
- 5. horrific
- 6. flammable
- 7. mollify
- 8. narrate
- 9. nullify
- 10. perennial
- 11. summit
- 12. terrestrial
- 13. terrific
- 14. torrent
- 15. umbrella
- 16. villa

### Patrn 312/2
- 1. attic
- 2. ballistics
- 3. callisthenics
- 4. streptococcus
- 5. dilemma
- 6. gamma
- 7. grammarian
- 8. hippopotamus
- 9. parallel
- 10. monosyllabic

### Patrn 313/1
**Se Part I: 3/3-2.4.SS**
- 1. basic
- 2. classic
- 3. evasion
- 4. passion
- 5. adhesion
- 6. impression
- 7. vision
- 8. mission
- 9. confusion
- 10. concussion

### Patrn 313/2
- 1. evasive
- 2. massive
- 3. adhesive
- 4. expressive
- 5. divisive
- 6. dismissive
- 7. prussic
- 8. music

### Patrn 313/3
- 1. dessert
- 2. hussar
- 3. possess

### Patrn 313/4
- 1. ambassadorial
- 2. embassy
- 3. narcissus
- 4. narcissistic
- 5. professes
- 6. professorial
- 7. brassica
- 8. cassava
- 9. gossip
- 10. vicissitude
- 11. class
- 12. classless
- 13. classlessness
- 14. pastime
- 15. passport
### CUT SPELNG Part II: th systm demonstrated

#### Patrn 313/5

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<td>essential</td>
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<td>Clarissa</td>
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Se Part I: 3/3-2.5.1

Se Part I: 3/3-2.5.2

#### 3—Simplifying consonants arising from prefixes

#### Patrn 315/1

Se Part I: 3/3-4

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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>allude</td>
<td>allude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>ammunition</td>
<td>ammunition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>annex</td>
<td>annex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>appear</td>
<td>appear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>arrogate</td>
<td>arrogate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>assume</td>
<td>assume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>attend</td>
<td>attend</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Patrn 315/2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Word</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>collect</td>
<td>collect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>commit</td>
<td>commit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>connect</td>
<td>connect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>correct</td>
<td>correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>effect</td>
<td>effect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Patrn 315/3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Corrected Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>illusion</td>
<td>illusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>illustrate</td>
<td>illustrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>immure</td>
<td>imure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>immense</td>
<td>immense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>innate</td>
<td>inate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>innocent</td>
<td>innocent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>irrigate</td>
<td>irrigate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>irregularity</td>
<td>irregularity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Patrn 315/4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Word</th>
<th>Corrected Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>occur</td>
<td>occur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>occiput</td>
<td>occiput</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>oppose</td>
<td>oppose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>succubus</td>
<td>succubus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>success</td>
<td>success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>suffice</td>
<td>suffice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>suppose</td>
<td>suppose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>surround</td>
<td>surround</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>syllabus</td>
<td>syllabus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>symmetry</td>
<td>symmetry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4—Simplifying dubld consnnts at morfeme boundris

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrn 317</th>
<th>Patrn 317</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Se Part I: 3/3-5.1.2</td>
<td>TO CS (if cut)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>unnamed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>dissatisfy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>dissect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>dissent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>disservice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>dissipate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>dissociate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>dissuade</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Se Part I: 3/3-5.1.3

| 1 | recoiless | recoiless |
| 2 | goalless | goaless |
| 3 | finally | finaly |
| 4 | evilly | evily |
| 5 | hilly | |
| 6 | coolly | cooly |
| 7 | hopefully | hopefully |
| 8 | fully | fuly |
| 9 | duly | |
| 10 | dully | |

Se Part I: 3/3-5.1.4

| 9 | missspent | mispent |
| 10 | misshapen | |

Se Part I: 3/3-5.2.1

| 1 | recoiless | recoiless |
| 2 | goalless | goaless |
| 3 | finally | finaly |
| 4 | evilly | evily |
| 5 | hilly | |
| 6 | coolly | cooly |
| 7 | hopefully | hopefully |
| 8 | fully | fuly |
| 9 | duly | |
| 10 | dully | |

Se Part I: 3/3-5.2.2

| 11 | cleanness | cleaness |
| 12 | openness | openess |
| 13 | cannot | canot |
| 14 | teammate | team-mate |
LETR SUBSTITUTIONS
For explnations, se Part I, Chaptr 4

1—Substituting F for GH, PH (I-4/3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern F1</th>
<th>Pattern F2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Se Part I: 4/3.1</td>
<td>Se Part I: 4/3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO</td>
<td>CS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 laugh</td>
<td>laf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 chough</td>
<td>chuf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 clough</td>
<td>cluf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 enough</td>
<td>enuf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 rough</td>
<td>ruf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 to slough</td>
<td>to sluf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 tough</td>
<td>tuf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 cough</td>
<td>cof</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 trough</td>
<td>trof</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 sophisticated</td>
<td>sofisticated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2—Substituting J for soft G, DG (I-4/4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern J1</th>
<th>Pattern J2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Se Part I: 4/4.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO</td>
<td>CS (if chanjed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 jelly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 gelatine</td>
<td>jelatine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 gaol</td>
<td>jail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 gibe</td>
<td>jibe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 gem</td>
<td>jem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 gin</td>
<td>jin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 gipsy</td>
<td>jipsy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 magic</td>
<td>majic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 genre</td>
<td>jenre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 regime</td>
<td>rejime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 gymnasium</td>
<td>jymnasium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 3.1—Substituting Y for IG (I-4/5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrn Y1/1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Se Part I: 4/5.1</td>
<td>TO</td>
<td>CS (if changed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 bright</td>
<td>byt</td>
<td>4 sight syt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 blight</td>
<td>blyt</td>
<td>5 slight slyt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 bright</td>
<td>bryt</td>
<td>6 sprightly sprytly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 delight</td>
<td>delyt</td>
<td>7 tight tyt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 fight</td>
<td>fyt</td>
<td>8 high hy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 fly</td>
<td></td>
<td>9 sigh sy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 flight</td>
<td>flyt</td>
<td>10 thigh thy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 fright</td>
<td>fryt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 light</td>
<td>lyt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 might</td>
<td>myt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrn Y2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Se Part I: 4/5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 align</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 benign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 consign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 ensign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 malign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 resign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 sign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 paradigm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrn Y1/2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 plight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 right</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.2—Substituting Y for IE inflections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrn Y3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Se Part I: 4/5.3</td>
<td>TO</td>
<td>CS (if cut)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 reply</td>
<td></td>
<td>6 pitying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pity</td>
<td></td>
<td>7 replies replys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 replied</td>
<td>replyd</td>
<td>8 pities pitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 pitied</td>
<td>pitid</td>
<td>9 simplified simplifyd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 replying</td>
<td>replying</td>
<td>10 copied copid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 denying denyng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12 multiplies multiplys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13 relied relyd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
NON-ALFABETIC SIMPLIFICATIONS
For explanations, see Part I, Chaptr 5

1—Simplifyd use of capitl letrs (I-5/1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrn C1</th>
<th>Patrn C2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 5/1.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>1 Monday  monday</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO CS (if chanjed)</td>
<td><strong>2 Tuesday  tuesday</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 English  english</td>
<td><strong>3 Friday  friday</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 England</td>
<td><strong>4 April  april</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 French  french</td>
<td><strong>5 July  july</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 France</td>
<td><strong>6 August  august</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Australian  australian</td>
<td><strong>7 Spring  spring</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Australia</td>
<td><strong>8 North  north</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Californian  californian</td>
<td><strong>9 West  west</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 California</td>
<td><strong>10 South-East  southeast</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Indian  indian</td>
<td><strong>Patrn C2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 India</td>
<td><strong>Patrn C2</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2—Simplifyd use of apostrofes (I-5/2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrn A1</th>
<th>Patrn A2</th>
<th>Patrn A3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 5/2.4</strong></td>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 5/2.4.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 5/2.4.3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO CS (if cut)</td>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 5/2.4.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 5/2.4.3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 bo’s’n  bosun</td>
<td>1 can’t  cant</td>
<td>1 I’m  I’m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 ’bus  bus</td>
<td>2 daren’t  darent</td>
<td>2 he’s  he’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Patrn A2</strong></td>
<td>3 didn’t  didnt</td>
<td>3 she’s  she’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 5/2.4.2</strong></td>
<td>4 don’t  dont</td>
<td>4 it’s  it’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 can’t  cant</td>
<td>5 hadn’t  hadnt</td>
<td>5 I’d  I’d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 daren’t  darent</td>
<td>6 has’t  hasnt</td>
<td>6 he’d  he’d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 didn’t  didnt</td>
<td>7 hasn’t  hadnt</td>
<td>7 she’d  she’d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 don’t  dont</td>
<td>8 needn’t  neednt</td>
<td>8 it’d  it’d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 hadn’t  hadnt</td>
<td>9 shan’t  shant</td>
<td>9 we’d  we’d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 has’t  hasnt</td>
<td>7 needn’t  neednt</td>
<td>10 they’d  they’d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 shan’t  shant</td>
<td><strong>Patrn A7</strong></td>
<td>10 they’d  they’d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 wasn’t  wasn’t</td>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 5/2.5.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>Se Part I: 5/2.5.2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 wasn’t  wasn’t</td>
<td>1 hers  hers</td>
<td>1 hers  hers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 won’t  wont</td>
<td>2 ours  ours</td>
<td>2 ours  ours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Patrn A7</strong></td>
<td>3 one’s  ones</td>
<td>3 one’s  ones</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section 2
EXERCISES INVOLVING MIXD CUTS

Purpose of mixd cut exercises
Th previus section (Part II, Section 1) listd examples of words for each of th CS cutng and substitution patrns sepratly. Its aim was to giv lernrs a quik impression of how CS works, with plentiful ilustrations of th varius kinds of redundncy in TO. Section 2 is by contrast intendd to teach lernrs how to aplly th CS rules in ther own riting. In Section 1 th words in a list mostly folod th same, predictbl patrn; in Section 2 they usuly combine two or mor patrns, and th CS equivlnts ar therfor less esy to derive mecanically, by repeatdly apllyng a singl patrn. Incresing concentration and undrstanding of th rules of CS ar needd, in ordr to find th corect CS form of each word.

Structurd sequence of excrcises
Th excrcises progress from esir to mor dificlt. Th erlir excrcises ar groupd so that th CS forms ar normly produced by apllyng just Rule 1, or just Rule 2, or just Rule 3, altho most words undrgo at least two cuts by th rule in question (for instnec, TO accommodate is cut twice by Rule 3 to becom CS acomodate). Later excrcises require two difrnt rules to be aplyd (eg, Rules 1 & 2, or 2 & 3); and towards th end of Section 2 words require cuts to be made by any combnation of cutng or substitution rules, somtimes even by al th rules at once (TO haemorrhage requires cuts by Rule 1 — twice —, 2 & 3, plus G > J substitution, to produce CS hemraj).

1.1—Mixd Rule 1 cuts: letrs irelevnt to pronunciation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exrcise 101</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Th foloing words lose one letr by Rule 1:</td>
<td>7  scientific  scientific</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO CS (if cut)</td>
<td>8  shadows    shados</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 become becom</td>
<td>9  adjunct    ajunct</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 kneel neel</td>
<td>10 feign      fein</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 dumbly dumly</td>
<td>11 fracture   fractur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 honesty onesty</td>
<td>12 relieve    releve</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 instead insted</td>
<td>13 acquisition aquisitions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 rumour rumor</td>
<td>14 worthwhile worthwhile</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15 awry       ary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Exercise 102/1

The following words lose final E and one other letter by Rule 1:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TO</td>
<td>CS (if cut)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>eye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>seizure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>manoeuvre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>ptomaine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>league</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>whore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>dialogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>sieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>couple</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Exercise 102/2

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>aye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>leisure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>picturesque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>owe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>plaque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>rhyme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>moustache</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>torque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>tortoise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Exercise 103

The following words lose an E and at least one other letter by Rule 1:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>wrangle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>gnarled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>wheeze</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>wrestle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>queue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>whiskey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>wrinkle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>damned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>sceptre</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Exercise 104/1

The following words lose more than one letter by Rule 1:

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>could</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>yacht</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>chamois (letter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>fuchsia</td>
</tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>heirloom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>adjourn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>beauteous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>quayside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>esprit de corps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>conscientious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>wretch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>whose</td>
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### Exercise 104/2

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>dreadnought</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>pestle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>doorknob</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>exhaustive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>redoubled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>deathwatch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ryebread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>centreboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>conscious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>thorough</td>
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### Exercise 104/3

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<td>2</td>
<td>aisle</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>treasure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>sumptuous</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>meringue</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>thyme</td>
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<td>widowed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>should</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>foregone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>restaurant</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>pneumatic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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1.2—Mixd Rule 2 cuts: unstresd vows

### Exercise 105

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<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>platinum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>armament</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>permanent</td>
</tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>ornament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>eminent</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>prominence</td>
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### Exercise 106/1

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<td>instalts</td>
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<td>scalpels</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>lapels</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>nostrils</td>
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<td>distils</td>
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<td>pistols</td>
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<td>extols</td>
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### Exercise 106/2

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>he rebels</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>handles</td>
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<td>singles</td>
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<td>camels</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>panels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>chapels</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>propels</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>steeples</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>weasels</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>petals</td>
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<td>13</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>withdrawls</td>
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### Exercise 106/3

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<td>2</td>
<td>destinies</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>histories</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>litanies</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>properties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>turkeys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>chimneys</td>
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### Exercise 107/1

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<table>
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<tbody>
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<td>stapled</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>steepled</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>entitled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>chortled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>bugled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>gurgled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>cycled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>fathomed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>abandoned</td>
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</table>

### Exercise 107/2

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>burdened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>sweetened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>depend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>deepened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>opened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>cushioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>curtained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>seconded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>relented</td>
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</table>

### Exercise 107/3

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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
<td>hatred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>centred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>centered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>entered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>hovered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>revered</td>
</tr>
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</table>
### Exercise 107/4

<table>
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<td>sugared</td>
<td>sugrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doctored</td>
<td>doctrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>restored</td>
<td>restord</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>harboured</td>
<td>harbrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>devoured</td>
<td>devourd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>murmured</td>
<td>murmrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pictured</td>
<td>picturd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>injured</td>
<td>injrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>martyred</td>
<td>martrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cleverer</td>
<td>clevrr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Exercise 107/5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise 107/4</th>
<th>Exercise 107/4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 sugared</td>
<td>sugrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 doctored</td>
<td>doctrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 restored</td>
<td>restord</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 harboured</td>
<td>harbrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 devoured</td>
<td>devourd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 murmured</td>
<td>murmrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 pictured</td>
<td>picturd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 matured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 injured</td>
<td>injrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 martyred</td>
<td>martrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 cleverer</td>
<td>clevrr</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### Exercise 108/1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise 108/1</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 weakening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 wakening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 bargaining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 regaining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 captaining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 obtaining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 fastening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 hastening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 loosening</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Exercise 108/2

| 1 rationing   | rationng      |
| 2 fashioning  | fashnng       |
| 3 abandoning  | abandnng      |
| 4 condoning   |               |
| 5 opening     | opening       |
| 6 burdening   | burdnng       |
| 7 examining   | examnnng      |
| 8 determining | determnng     |
| 9 covenanting | covnntng      |
| 10 implementing| implmntng    |

### Exercise 108/3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise 108/3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 rewarding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 forwarding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 interning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 governing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 exporting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 comforting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 centring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 centering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 gathering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 showering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 cycling</td>
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</table>

### 1.3—Mixd Rule 3 cuts: simplifying double consnnts

### Exercise 109

#### Dubl cuts

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>attack</td>
<td>atak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>barracks</td>
<td>baraks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bullock</td>
<td>bulok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cassock</td>
<td>cassok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>committee</td>
<td>comitee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>derrick</td>
<td>derik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gimmick</td>
<td>gimik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haddock</td>
<td>hadok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skillfully</td>
<td>skilfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beckett</td>
<td>Beket</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Exercise 110

#### Final SS

| 1 address | adress      |
| 2 embarrass | embaras  |
| 3 harass   | haras      |
| 4 mattress | matress   |
| 5 possess  | posess     |

### Exercise 111/1

#### Mislaneus

| 1 idyllic   | idylic     |
| 2 falsetto  | falseto    |
| 3 corrode   | corode     |
| 4 dissension| disension  |
| 5 meanness  | meanness   |
| 6 hollyhock | hollyhok   |
Cutting exercises—RULES 1 & 2 MIXD CUTS

Exercise 111/2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>1 toffee</td>
<td>toffee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 sluggish</td>
<td>sluggish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 alleviate</td>
<td>alleviate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 suffocate</td>
<td>suffocate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 fearfully</td>
<td>fearfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 niblick</td>
<td>niblik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 brackish</td>
<td>brakish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 offend</td>
<td>ofend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 appetite</td>
<td>apetite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 misstated</td>
<td>mistated</td>
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Exercise 111/3

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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>wallet</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>narrator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>emm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>packet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>efete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>illumination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>curriculum</td>
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<tr>
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<td>rabbit</td>
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</table>

Exercise 1201

<table>
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<tbody>
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<td>dednng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 bomber</td>
<td>bomr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 scented</td>
<td>sentd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 infinitely</td>
<td>infinitely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 eyelashes</td>
<td>ylashs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 foreigner</td>
<td>forenr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 honour</td>
<td>onr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 befriending</td>
<td>befrendng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 kneeled</td>
<td>neeld</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 reminisced</td>
<td>remnisd</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Exercise 1203

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<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>catalogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>acquiescing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>adjustable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>becoming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>foreshortened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>campaigner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>stomach-ache</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>unbelievable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>bloodstained</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Exercise 1202

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</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 foetal</td>
<td>fetal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 symptom</td>
<td>symtm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 arbitrary</td>
<td>arbitrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 desert island</td>
<td>desrt iland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 watch-tower</td>
<td>wach-towr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 guarded</td>
<td>gardd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 wholehearted</td>
<td>holehartd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 shadowed</td>
<td>shadod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 keying</td>
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</table>

Exercise 1204

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<td>trublsm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 consumptive</td>
<td>consumtiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 purchased</td>
<td>purchasd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 bristling</td>
<td>brisng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 travel-guide</td>
<td>travl-gide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 queuing</td>
<td>quing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 favourite</td>
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<td>8 whoever</td>
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<td>obsenitis</td>
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2.1—Mixd cuts, Rules 1 & 2

Composit patrn from Handbook, Chaptr 3: Sections 1 & 2
Exercise 1205

TO CS (if cut)
1 spreadeagled spredeagld
2 broadsword brodsord
3 dumbshow dumsho
4 exceptional exptionl
5 adjoining ajoinng
6 axe-handle ax-handl
7 sea-breeze se-breze
8 inveighed inveid
9 choir-master coir-mastr
10 somewhere somwher

Exercise 1206

1 sorghum sorgm
2 practised practisd
3 damning damng
4 nourishment nourishmnt
5 receipted receitd
6 satchel sachl
7 builder bildr
8 wretches rechs
9 grand prix gran pri
10 monkeys monkis

Exercise 1207

1 wrong-headed rong-hedd
2 lambing lamng
3 descendant desendnt
4 lieutenant-colonel lieutenant-colnl
5 weight-training weit-trainng
6 peremptory peremtry
7 kitchen-knife kichn-nife
8 uncoupled uncupld
9 business-people business-peple
10 youngster yungstr

Exercise 1208

1 fascinate fasnate
2 water-meadow watr-medo
3 measurement mesurmnt
4 whistled wisld
5 schooling scoolng

Exercise 1209

1 promising promisng
2 anchored ancrd
3 oecumenical ecumenicl
4 whittles wils
5 gnashed nashd
6 epilogue eplog
7 Reynolds Renlds
8 parliamentary parlmentry
9 transcendental transndentl
10 pleasanter plesntr

Exercise 1210

1 salmon samn
2 determined determnd
3 Vaughan Vaun
4 both estimates both estmats
5 bungalow bunglo
6 shouldering sholdrng
7 endeavours endevrs
8 cousin cusn
9 weather-beaten wethr-beatn
10 preponderance prepondrnce

Exercise 1211

1 heavenly hevnly
2 somnolence somnlnce
3 admiral admrl
4 admirable admrbl
5 famine famn
6 listening lisnng
7 lancer
8 answer ansr
9 wheedling weedlng
10 conqueror conqrr
### Exercise 1212

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<td>4</td>
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<td>deader</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>debtor</td>
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### Exercise 1213

| 1  | broad-shouldered |
| 2  | southern        |
| 3  | boisterous      |
| 4  | threatening     |
| 5  | butchered       |
| 6  | pearlfisher     |
| 7  | floorboard      |
| 8  | whisper         |
| 9  | execrable       |
| 10 | jeopardy        |

### Exercise 1214

| 1  | sweater       |
| 2  | beater        |
| 3  | tea-strainer  |
| 4  | feminine      |
| 5  | undoubted     |
| 6  | acquaintance  |
| 7  | exceedingly   |
| 8  | shepherded    |
| 9  | discerning    |
| 10 | turtledove    |

### Exercise 1215

| 1  | earnings     |
| 2  | dishonourable|
| 3  | quite separate|
| 4  | yoghourt     |

### Exercise 1216

| 1  | heartbreaking |
| 2  | indebted      |
| 3  | acquisitive   |
| 4  | eying         |
| 5  | interdisciplinary |
| 6  | unled         |

### Exercise 1217

| 1  | curtseyed     |
| 2  | aforethought  |
| 3  | exhausting    |
| 4  | viewfinder    |
| 5  | leisurewear   |
| 6  | great-niece   |
| 7  | whichever     |
| 8  | gherkin       |
| 9  | kneading      |
| 10 | jodhpurs      |

### Exercise 1218

| 1  | Southwark     |
| 2  | natural       |
| 3  | whaling       |
| 4  | undergraduate  |
| 5  | wrenched      |
| 6  | deigning      |
| 7  | apostles      |
| 8  | exempted      |
| 9  | chamois-leather |
| 10 | rumoured      |
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<td>4 families</td>
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<td>4 gavotte</td>
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### Exercise 1303

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<td>3 catarrh</td>
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### 2.2—Mixd cuts, Rules 1 & 3

Composit patrsns from *Handbook*, Chaptr 3: Sections 1 & 3
Exercise 1305/1

TO | CS (if cut)
---|---
1 robed | robd
2 locked | lokd
3 stuffed | stufd
4 dragged | dragd
5 trekked | trekd
6 pulled | puld
7 jammmed | jamd
8 fanned | fand
9 hopped | hopd
10 purred | purd
11 passed | pasd
12 buzzed | buzd

Exercise 1305/2

1 appalled | apald
2 equalled | equald
3 peddled | pedld
4 compelled | compeld
5 fuelled | fueld
6 cancelled | canceld
7 controlled | controld
8 gambled | gambld

Exercise 1305/3

1 starred | stard
2 stared |
3 interred | interd
4 entered | entrd
5 adhered |
6 bestirred | bestird
7 desired |
8 abhorred | abhord
9 adored | adord
10 concurred | concurd
11 murmured | murmrd
12 immured | imured

Exercise 1305/4

1 kidnapped | kidnapd
2 worshipped | worshipd
3 gossiped | gossipd
4 galloped | galopd
5 knocked | nokd
6 wrapped | rapid

Exercise 1305/5

1 mass
2 masses
3 massive | massiv
4 massed | masd
5 messed | mesd
6 mosed | mosd
7 mused | musd
8 dismissed | dismisd
9 reminisced | reminisd
10 promised | promisd

Exercise 1305/6

Exceptions
1 child
2 chilled | chilld
3 mild
4 milled | milld
5 wild
6 willed | willd
7 bind
8 binned | binnd
9 find
10 finned | finnd
11 grind
12 grinned | grinnd

Exercise 1306

1 gallows | galos
2 shallow | shalo
3 swallow | swalo
4 yellow | yelo
5 pillow | pilo
6 poll | pol
7 follow | folo
8 minnow | mino
9 narrow | narro
10 borrow | boro
11 burrow | buro
12 tomorrow | tomarro

Exercise 1307

1 accrue | acru
2 appease | apese
3 appraise | aprase
4 arraign | arain
5 assault | asalt
6 assemble | assembl
7 assumption | asumption
### Exercise 1308

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<td>6</td>
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<td>9</td>
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### 2.3—Mixd cuts, Rules 2 & 3

Composit patrns from *Handbook*, Chaptr 3: Sections 2 & 3

### Exercise 2301/1

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### Exercise 2301/2

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### Exercise 2301/3

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### Exercise 2307/1

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### Exercise 2307/2

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### Exercise 2308

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<td>syllable</td>
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<td>buzzard</td>
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### 3.1—Mixd cuts by Rules 1, 2 & 3

Composit patrns from Handbook, Chaptr 3: Sections 1, 2 & 3

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### Exercise 12304

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<td>bearable</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>ineffable</td>
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<td>irrefutable</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>permissible</td>
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### 3.2.1—Mixd cuts by Rules 1, 2 and/or 3 with F substitution

Composit patrns from *Handbook*, Chaptr 3, Sections 1, 2 & 3, and Chaptr 4

### Exercise F1

**Rule 2, cat. 2 + GH > F substitution**

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### Exercise F2

**Rule 1 + PH > F substitution**

1. phlegm  
2. hieroglyphics  
3. oesophagus  
4. phoenix  
5. pharaoh  
6. philately  
7. philosophical  
8. phosphorus  
9. cypher  
10. elephant  
11. metaphor  
12. sulphur  
13. syphon  
14. zephyr  

### Exercise F3

**Rule 2, cat. 1 + PH > F substitution**

1. phantom  
2. phasing  
3. phenomenon  
4. phenomenal  
5. phallic  
6. saffron  
7. philharmonic  
8. philosophically  
9. phylloxera  
10. euphemistically  

### Exercise F4

**Rule 3 with PH > F substitution**

1. phallic  
2. saffron  

### Exercise F5

**Various rules + PH > F substitution**

1. pharmaceutical  
2. pheasant  
3. philharmonic  
4. philosophically  
5. phylloxera  
6. euphemistically  

---
### 3.2.2—Mixd cuts by Rules 1, 2 & 3 with J > G substitution

Composit patrns from *Handbook*, Chaptrs 3 & 4

#### Exercise J1

**Rule 1 + J > G substitution**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TO</th>
<th>CS (if chanjed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>garbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>bandage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>leakage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>silage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>damage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>manage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>to rampage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>peerage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>sausage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>voltage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>savage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>voyage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Exercise J2

| 1   | vestige         | vestij          |
| 2   | prestige        | prestije        |
| 3   | bilge           | bilj            |
| 4   | bulge           | bulj            |
| 5   | flange          | flanj           |
| 6   | henge           | henj            |
| 7   | fringe          | frinj           |
| 8   | sponge          | sponj           |
| 9   | plunge          | plunj           |
| 10  | barge           | barj            |
| 11  | verge           | verj            |
| 12  | dirig           | dirj            |
| 13  | gorge           | gorj            |
| 14  | urge            | urj             |

#### Exercise J3

| 1   | beige           | beij            |
| 2   | siege           | seje            |
| 3   | rouge           | ruije           |
| 4   | contagion       | contajon        |
| 5   | legion          | lejon           |
| 6   | region          | rejon           |
| 7   | gorgeous        | gorjus          |
| 8   | advantageous    | advantajus      |
| 9   | courageous      | curajus         |
| 10  | outrageous      | outrajus        |
| 11  | contagious      | contajus        |
| 12  | religious       | relijus         |

#### Exercise J4

| 1   | George          | Jorj            |
| 2   | scourge         | scurj           |
| 3   | liege           | leje            |
| 4   | language        | languaj         |
| 5   | mortgage        | morgaj          |
| 6   | orange          | oranj           |
| 7   | aegis           | ejis            |
| 8   | ageing          | ajing           |
| 9   | bourgeois       | burjoi          |
| 10  | hygiene         | hyjene          |
| 11  | eulogy          | eulojy          |
| 12  | psychology      | sycolojy        |
| 13  | archaeology     | archeolojy      |

#### Exercise J5

| 1   | badge           | baj             |
| 2   | hedge           | hej             |
| 3   | ridge           | rij             |
| 4   | lodge           | loj             |
| 5   | judge           | juj             |
| 6   | edgy            | ejy             |
| 7   | stodgy          | stojy           |
| 8   | gadget          | gajet           |
| 9   | midget          | mijet           |
| 10  | budget          | bujet           |
| 11  | knowledge       | nolej           |
| 12  | acknowledge     | aknolej         |
### Exercise J6
Rules 1 & 2 (category 1) + G > J substitution

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vestigial</td>
<td>vestijl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vigil</td>
<td>vijl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stratagem</td>
<td>stratajm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hydrogen</td>
<td>hydrojn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pigeon</td>
<td>pijn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>margin</td>
<td>marjn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engine</td>
<td>enjn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>religion</td>
<td>relijn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pungent</td>
<td>punjnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>detergent</td>
<td>deterjnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pageant</td>
<td>pajnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sergeant</td>
<td>serjnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urgent</td>
<td>urjnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manager</td>
<td>manajr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>merger</td>
<td>merjr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Exercise J7
1. privilege privlej
2. sacrilege sacrlej
3. progeny projny
4. imaginary imajnry
5. budgerigar bujrigar

### Exercise J8
1. cudgel cujl
2. dodgem dojm
3. bludgeon blujn
4. dungeon dunjn
5. pidgin pijn
6. badger bajr
7. wager wajer
8. stranger stranjer
9. lodger lojr

### Exercise J9
1. invigilate invijlate
2. originate originate
3. marginalize marjnlize
4. lethargy lethrjy

### Exercise J10/1
Rule 2, category 2 + G > J substitution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>CS (if changed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hanged</td>
<td>hangd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flanged</td>
<td>flanjd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>changed</td>
<td>chanjed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>changeable</td>
<td>chanjebl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>damaging</td>
<td>damajng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plunging</td>
<td>plunjng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verging</td>
<td>verjng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>savages</td>
<td>savajs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gorges</td>
<td>gorjs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>larger</td>
<td>larjr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>largest</td>
<td>larjst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unbridgeable</td>
<td>unbrijbl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Exercise J10/2
1. badgered bajrd
2. badgering bajrng
3. badgers bajrs
4. angers angrs
5. languages languajs
6. strangest stranjest
7. abridged abrijd
8. mergers merjrs
9. judges jujs
10. ineligible inelijbl

### Exercise J10/3
1. manageable manajbl
2. cadging cajng
3. caging cajing
4. singing singng
5. singeing sinjqng
6. hedging hejng
7. hedged hejd
8. vegetable vejbl
9. endangering endanjerng
10. lodges lojs
Exrcise J11
Rule 3 + G > J substitution
TO                CS (if chanjed)
1    allege    alej
2    arrange   aranje
3    assuage   asuaje
4    challenge chalenj
5    college   colej
6    knowledge nolej
7    jib
8    gibbet    jibet
9    giraffe   jiraf
10   illegible ilejbl
11   legionnaire lejonair
12   suggest   sujest
13   porridge   porij
14   carriage   carrij
15   marriage   marrij

Exrcise J12
1    cabbage    cabaj
2    suffrage   sufraj
3    baggage    bagaj
4    package    pakaj
5    village    vilaj
6    scummage   scrumaj
7    tonnage    tonaj
8    stoppage   stopaj
9    presage    presaj
10   message    messaj

Exrcise J13
Mixd cuts
1    allergy    alrjy
2    allergic    alerjic
3    allegory    alejry
4    dangerous   danjerus
5    emergency   emerjncy
6    exaggerate exajrate
7    general    jenrl
8    generous    jenrus
9    gerbil      jerbl
10   ginger      jinjr

Exrcise J14
1    haemorrhage hemraj
2    margarine marjrine
3    messenger mesnjr
4    misogyny misojny
5    passenger pasnjr
6    phrenology frenolojy
7    swingeing swinjng
8    vengeance venjnce
9    wage-earners waje-ernrs
10   wreckage   rekaj

3.2.3—Mixd cuts by Rules 1, 2 & 3 with Y substitution
Composit patrns from *Handbook*, Chaptrs 3 & 4

Exrcise Y1
Mixd Rule 1 + IG > Y substitution
TO                CS (if cut)
1    height      hyt
2    highlight   hyltyt
3    sly
4    sleight     slyt
5    rhyme       rym
6    rye          ry
7    knight      nyt
8    wright      ryt
9    style       styl
10   type        typ
### Exercise Y2
Rule 2 + IG > Y substitution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TO</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>brighten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>frighten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>heighten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>tighten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>brighter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>fighter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>lighter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>slighter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>tighter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>higher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>brightest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12 lightest    lytst
13 slightest   slytst
14 tightest     tytst
15 highest      hyest

### Exercise Y3
Rule 2 + IE > Y substitution

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>multiplier</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>simplifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>reliable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>undeniable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Exercise C1
Rules 1, 2, 3 + decapitlization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>CS (if chanjed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>you and I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>American</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Belgian</td>
</tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Finn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Finnish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Frenchwoman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Norwegian</td>
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### Exercise C2

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<td>Greece</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Italian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Italy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Scottish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Spaniard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Swiss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
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</table>

### Exercise C3

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Londoner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>New Yorker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Bostonian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Boston</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Glaswegian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Liverpudlian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Geordie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Cajun</td>
</tr>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Strine</td>
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### Exrcise C4

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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Northerner</td>
<td>northrnr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Westerner</td>
<td>westrnr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Wednesday</td>
<td>wensday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>satrday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>January</td>
<td>janury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>February</td>
<td>febry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>October</td>
<td>october</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>November</td>
<td>novembr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>December</td>
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### Exrcise C5

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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Whitsun</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Christmas</td>
<td>crismas</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<td>fal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
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<td>wintr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Chianti</td>
<td>chianti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>eau de Cologne</td>
<td>au de colone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>King John</td>
<td>king Jon</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### 4.2—Mixd cuts with simplifyd use of apostrofe

Composite patrs from *Handbook*, Chaptrs 3 & 5

### Exrcise A1

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>fone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>o’clock</td>
<td>oclok</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### Exrcise A2

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</thead>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>arnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>couldn’t</td>
<td>cudnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>doesn’t</td>
<td>dosnt</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>haven’t</td>
<td>havnt</td>
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<td>myntnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>mustn’t</td>
<td>musnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>oughtn’t</td>
<td>otn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>shouldn’t</td>
<td>shudnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>weren’t</td>
<td>wernt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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### Exrcise A3

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>who’s</td>
<td>ho’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>there’s</td>
<td>ther’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>who’re</td>
<td>ho’r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>we’re</td>
<td>we’r</td>
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<td>you’re</td>
<td>u’r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>they’re</td>
<td>they’r</td>
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</table>

### Exrcise A4

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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>I’l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>he’ll</td>
<td>he’l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>she’ll</td>
<td>she’l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>we’ll</td>
<td>we’l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>you’ll</td>
<td>u’l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>they’ll</td>
<td>they’l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>who’ll</td>
<td>ho’l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>you’d</td>
<td>u’d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>who’d</td>
<td>ho’d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</table>

### Exrcise A5

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>whose</td>
<td>hos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>one’s</td>
<td>ones</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Exercise A6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TO</th>
<th>CS (if cut)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 John’s book</td>
<td>Jons book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 the children’s shoes</td>
<td>th childrens shoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 the men’s wives</td>
<td>th mens wives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 the women’s husbands</td>
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<td>5 Achilles’ heel</td>
<td>Achilles heel</td>
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<td>6 a man’s a man</td>
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<td>7 Jones’ job, Jones’s job</td>
<td>Jones job, Joneses job</td>
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<td>8 the 1960’s</td>
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<td>9 600 MP’s</td>
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<td>10 the parents reply</td>
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<td>11 the parent’s reply</td>
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<td>12 the parents’ reply</td>
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<td>13 her grandson’s inheritance</td>
<td>her grandsons inheritnce</td>
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<td>14 her grandsons’ inheritance</td>
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<td>15 we saw the ships sail</td>
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<td>16 we saw the ship’s sail</td>
<td>we saw th ships sail we saw th sail of th ship</td>
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Section 3: PARALEL TEXTS IN TO & CS

1—By Nina Hall, from New Scientist, 13 July 1991, p.15

Reprinted by permission. This text first appeared in New Scientist magazine, London, the weekly review of science and technology.

Particle physicists plumb the depths for Roman lead

Nuclear physics and Roman archaeology just don’t mix, or so you would think. But researchers at the National Institute of Nuclear Physics in Padua, Italy, and a team of archaeologists have found a common goal: to raise 1500 ingots of lead from a Roman freighter which sank off the coast of Sardinia more than 2000 years ago.

The physicists... want the lead for experiments that are of critical importance in particle physics and cosmology. Donatella Salvi, an archaeologist working with the Italian authority for artistic and historical heritage, wants to know more about the Mediterranean lead trade in the first century BC.

The ship was discovered two years ago near an island called Mal di Ventre, so-named because of the high wind that plagues the area. It was modified to carry lead and is the only one of its type known.

The physicists want the ancient lead for a practical reason. Lead is the best material for shielding delicate instruments which detect minute amounts of radiation, for example from the unusual kinds of radioactivity associated with double beta decay, or from the rare interaction of neutrinos—the ghost-like particles that are emitted from...
We may nowadays be chary about using the word ‘genius’, but we still have a good idea what is meant by it. For example, there are great numbers of very gifted musicians who are admired but not called geniuses. But there are others manifestly prodigious, performing often at extraordinarily early ages, a variety of feats so complex that the musical layman could hardly imagine, even with the most desperate labour, accomplishing any one of them, while even musicians are astonished: and we then reach for the good, handy, vague Enlightenment word and call them geniuses. The list includes Mozart and Mendelssohn; and, despite all the limiting judgments, it includes Benjamin Britten.

At a time when there was more interest than there is now in deciding what genius was, and what a genius was, Fichte argued that ‘where genius is really present, there industry is found spontaneously, and develops with a steady growth…’ Industry, then, is a necessary though clearly not a sufficient condition of genius. Earlier Kant had named taste, no doubt industriously developed, as a necessary quality, and was aware that it might be in conflict with another precondition—that a certain imaginative wildness is also required, indeed is so essential that it is possible to think of it as genius.
<table>
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<th>The ivory triumph</th>
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<tr>
<td>The nearer you live to an African elephant, the less attractive that beautiful beast becomes. For tourists on their once-in-a-lifetime safari, the elephant has obvious appeal: noble, strong, and yet extremely gentle and caring of the babes in the herd. But for many peasant farmers on the edge of Africa’s national parks, the beast has become a pest. It brings them few rewards. The tourists swirl past in a cloud of dust in their safari vehicles without stopping, while the elephants move in and out of the parks causing widespread damage to trees, soil and crops. Trees are regularly pushed over so they can graze on the leaves. Maize crops are even more attractive. The truth of this unromantic picture is undeniable: but the solution which some have now suggested—the reopening of the ivory trade—must be opposed.</td>
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<td>Th nearr u liv to an africn elefnt, th less atractiv tht butiful beast becoms. For tourists on thr once-in-a-lifetime safari, th elefnt has obvius apeal: noble, strong, and yet extremely jentl and carin of th babes in th herd. But for many pesnt farmrs on th ej of Africas nationl parks, th beast has becom a pest. It brins thm few rewrd. Th tourists swirl past in a cloud of dust in thr safari vehicl without stopng, wile th elefnts move in and out of th parks causng widespred dama to tres, soil nd crops. Tres ar regurlry pushd over so thy cn graze on th leavs. Maze crops r even mor atrctiv. Th truth of th unromntc pictur is undenybl: but th solutn which som hav now sujestd—th reopenng of th ivory trade—must be opsd.</td>
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<td>The economists calling for an end to the ivory trade ban—and they include Professor David Pearce, former adviser to the Department of the Environment—believe that it is only by giving the peasant an economic investment in the elephant that the animal will survive. Their argument coincides with moves by six African states to push for the reopening of the ivory trade at next year’s meeting of Cites (the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species), the UN agency which imposed the ban less than two years ago. Two separate</td>
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Economic groupings come in different forms. A free-trade area has no internal tariffs, but its members are free to set their own tariffs on trade with the rest of the world. A customs union has a common external tariff and no internal customs. A common market is a customs union, but it also has a common system of commercial law permitting freedom of movement of goods, capital, labour and services inside.

A confederation is a group of sovereign states sharing some government tasks. America’s 13 colonies in 1781-89 were an example. Their members usually have vetoes. To become law, confederal decisions need ratification by national parliaments.

Switzerland is called a confederation but is really a federation. In a federation, the central power has law-making and executive authority in some areas, the members (cantons, states, republics) in others. Anti-federalists tend to stress the powers yielded to the centre, pro-federalists those kept by the states. Central decisions involve majority voting (no single state has a veto), and are automatically law throughout a federation. A supreme or constitutional court is usually needed to settle conflict of laws between a federation’s different bits. Confusingly, the EC shares some of the features of a common market, a
SUJESTIONS FOR FURTHR READNG

Th aknolejmnts at th beginng of th Handbook mention som works wich servd as direct sorces of refrence in th developmnt of Cut Spelng. Th foloing titles, with brief notes, ar sujestd for readrs seekng a basic grasp of th brodr field of riting systms and ther reform with particulr regard to english.

Jenrl introduction


Sir James PITMAN & John ST JOHN (1969) *Alphabets & Reading*, London: Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons Ltd; ranjes from th history and sycolojy of litracy, thru english spelng and atemts at its reform, to th desyn of th initial teachng alfabet (its main theme).

Th historicl context


Donald G SCRAGG (1974) *A history of English spelling*, Manchester University Press; takes english spelng from its orijns in post-roman times up to th presnt, with numerus ke exampls of how th vagaris of traditionl english orthografy arose.

Riting systms


Sujestions for FURTHER STUDY

Geoffrey SAMPSON (1985) *Writing Systems*, London: Hutchinson; a welth of clearly presentd infrmation, with particl attention gvn to th evlution of th alfabet and far eastrn riting systms.


**Th spoken basis of riting**


**Spelng english**


Edward CARNEY (1994) *A Survey of English Spelling*, London: Routledge, shos how far a computer program can predict english sound-symbl and symbl-sound corespondnces, with a massiv catlog; litl explnation of histry, nor about how th human brain is supossed to cope.


ed. Tom McARTHUR (1992) *The Oxford Companion to the English Language*, Oxford University Press, includes for each letr of th alfabet a detaild analysis of how it is used to spell english.

David MOSELEY & Catherine NICOL (1989, 1986) *ACE (Aurally Coded English) Spelling Dictionary*, Wisbech: Learning Development Aids; a clevrly orgnized lernrs gide thru th patrns and hazrds of english spelng, also useful as an overview of th ‘systm’.
George H VALLINS (1965, 1954) *Spelling*, André Deutsch; revised by Donald G Scragg; a wide-ranging account of the spelling of English, including history, structure, difficulties, and past attempts at reform.

**Spelling**


**Spelling in education**


ed. John DOWNING (1973) *Comparative Reading*, Cross-National Studies of Behavior and Processes in Reading and Writing, New York: The Macmillan Company; a revealing survey of how literacy teaching is taught in major writing systems around the world.

John DOWNING (1967) *Evaluating the Initial Teaching Alphabet*, London: Cassell; research report on the effects of the initial teaching alphabet, showing how easily literacy skills are acquired in English with a phonetically regular spelling system.

Ian MICHAEL (1987) *The Teaching of English from the sixteenth century to 1870*, Cambridge University Press; traces the evolution of literacy-teaching methods in English and shows that today's problems are nothing new.

Reform

Govind N DEODHEKAR (1995) The LOJIKON System of Simplified English Spelling by the LOJIKal use of KONsonants, Simplified Spelling Society; a useful concept for a limited first-stage reform of English spelling, desyned in the first instance for use in India, but universally applicable.


Axel WIJK (1959) Regularized English, Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell; a cautious reform proposal, but containing a valuable catalog of the variations in sound-symbol correspondence in English spelling.


The Simplified Spelling Society, England
CUT SPELNG

PART III

DICTIONARY

OF

TRADITIONL

&

CUT SPELNGS
PART III
Introduction to the CUT SPELNG DICTIONRY

1 Acknowledgement
The words in this Dictionary have been selected from the frequency listing of the Birmingham Corpus, the body of text which underpins the COBUILD Project and is held at the University of Birmingham. The frequency listing was extracted by the University's Research and Development Unit for English Studies. It is hoped that, with this data as its source, the Dictionary has succeeded in combining compactness with systematic coverage of the core vocabulary of the English language.

2 Selection of words
The Dictionary aims to list all commonly occurring English words which are written with few or different letters in Cut Spelling (CS). Uncut words appear only if users may be tempted to cut them and their unchanged form therefore needs to be stated explicitly (eg, *comma*). In total some 10,000 headwords are included, many with two or more inflections, and over 21,000 of the 57,000 most commonly occurring alphabetic forms in the Birmingham Corpus word list are covered, either explicitly by being listed, or implicitly by remaining unchanged. We may therefore estimate that CS simplifies over one English word-type in three — which does not of course mean that this proportion of words in any one text will be cut.

The following categories of word are merely excluded from the Dictionary:
1. words occurring under 5 times in the Birmingham Corpus of over 19 million word-tokens.
2. words whose traditional spelling is unchanged in CS.
3. forms differing only by an invariant affix from words that are included (see following page for 4 patterns of examples).
4. most hyphenated forms.
5. many names of people and places.

3 How to use the Cut Spelling Dictionary
The CS form of a word may be found by looking up its TO form in the left-hand of the two columns in the Dictionary. If the word is cut in CS, the simplified form will be given against it in the righthand column; for instance, against *the* we find the CS form *th*. If a word does not appear in its own ryt, and no related word does either, it can be assumed to be unchanged in CS; for instance, *of* and *but* do not appear, as neither is cut in CS.
Very often the base-form of a word is given, but, to save space, not all its derivatives. For instance, *abandon*+ed,+ing, *abandonment* appear with CS equivalents *abandn+d,+ng, abandnmnt*; but TO *abandons* is not listed, as CS simply adds the standard suffix -s to its base form *abandn*, exactly as in TO, giving CS *abandn + s*. Similarly, an entry such as TO *hopp+ed,+ing*, CS *hop+d,+ng* indicates that, although TO *hopped, hopping* are cut to CS *hopd, hopng*, the forms *hop, hops* are uncut.

Other derivatives that are commonly omitted include:

1 nouns ending in -NCE, -NCY when a related adjective ending in -NT is given. Thus *abhorrence, clemency* are not listed, as their CS forms (*abhorence, clemncy*) are derived from the CS forms of the related adjectives (*abhorent, clemnt)*.

2 adverbs, if they are formed as in TO. So for instance *hugely, abominably* are not listed, since they are formed by adding just -LY, -Y respectively to the CS forms of the adjectives *huje, abomnbl*.

3 nouns ending in -BILITY, since these are formed predictably from adjectives ending in -BL. So *possibility* is not listed, as its CS form *posbility* is derived from the CS form of the adjective *posbl*.

4 nouns ending in -ATION which have an equivalent verb ending in -ATE or -IZE taking the same cuts. So *accommodation/organisation* are not listed, as the CS forms *acomodation/orgnization* can be derived from CS *acomodate/orgnize*.

Many entries are divided by brackets, plus-signs, commas and/or diagonal slashes. The entry *armo(u)r+er,+y*, CS *armr+r,+y* first shows by the bracketed *(u)* the British/American TO variants *armour/armor*, which align as CS *armr*; second, plus-signs link base-words to suffixes, +er indicating the TO derivativ *armo(u)rer*, which is reduced to CS *armrr* (the CS ending indicated by +r), while the comma followed by +y shows the alternative derivativ *armo(u)ry*, which is reduced to CS *armry*. Slashes are used to show alternative TO endings as in *organise/ize* which have the single CS form *orgnize*.

Compound words with only one cut element are usually not listed as such, and should be checked under the separate elements. For instance, *football* is not listed (nor is *foot*), but CS *football* is implied under TO *ball*, CS *bal*.

### 4 Alternative and doubtful forms

When alternative spellings exist in TO, the Dictionary recommends whichever form best represents the pronunciation (hence CS *orgnize* rather than *orgnise*). In some cases the preferred TO form is given as the CS equivalent to the less phonographic TO form: thus the entry for *gaol* gives *jail* as its CS form, although TO *jail*, being
unchanged, is not separately listed. Preferred American spellings are indicated in the same way, *skeptic* for instance being given as CS equivalent of *sceptic*. By including such entries, the Dictionary is implying that, whether or not writers use full CS, they should choose the more phonographic of alternative TO forms.

Some TO spellings, known as homographs or homophones, have alternative pronunciations according to meaning (e.g., *row* for both ‘dispute’ and ‘alignment’, *graduate* as both a noun and a verb). Th Dictionary distinguishes these when CS cuts only one of the words (e.g., CS *row* for ‘dispute’, but *ro* for ‘alignment’; *graduate* as the noun, but *graduate* as the verb).

Prefix forms in general are often not listed, but a note in italics indicates that the base word should be looked up if the prefixed form is not given. Thus for TO *uninteresting*, the user is referred to TO *interesting*, which gives CS *interesting*. When a prefix entails a repeated consonant at the boundary with the base word (as NN in TO *unnecessary*), alternative forms are given, one with a single consonant, and the other with the two consonants hyphenated; so for TO *unnecessary*, *cleanliness*, *penknife* we find CS *un(-n)ecessary*, *clean(-n)ess*, *pen(-n)ife*.

A few words retain some phonographically redundant letters which would normally be cut. CS makes exceptions in these cases in order to prevent confusing ambiguity with other, differently pronounced word forms; for instance, by the normal cutting rules TO *choral*, *corral* would both be cut to *coral*, a quite different word, and *comma* to *coma*; similarly, the normal rules would cut both *croquette/croquet* to *croquet*. To indicate that the CS rules have not been fully applied in those cases, the Dictionary gives their CS forms with a following asterisk as *choral*, *corral*, *comma*, *croquet*.

### 5 Foreign words and proper nouns

It may be felt that the spelling of foreign words should not be cut, whether because we are not entitled to change the spelling of words from other languages, or because it is important to preserve internationally valid roman forms. However, some other languages systematically adapt their spelling of borrowed words (Swedish *bureaucracy, restaurant* as *byråkrati, restorång* for instance), and since so many English words have at one stage or another been borrowed, it is not clear which words, if any, should be exempt from cutting on these grounds. Th Dictionary gives cut forms for many common loan-words, mainly derived from French and Italian, chiefly by way of illustration, so that the implications may be considered. Writers should use their discretion whether or not to use such radically cut forms as CS *restran, baujlaï* for TO *restaurant, Beaujolais*.

Similarly, even if CS were adopted for the spelling of ordinary words, it does not necessarily follow that it should or could be adopted for proper nouns, i.e., the names of
peple and places. As with th foren words, this Dictionry includes CS forms for a ranje of persnl and place names, to ilustrate th efect. Clearly, ther ar th same advantajs in aplyng th CS principls to th spelng and pronunciation of propr nouns as to othr words: considr for instnce both th econmy and improved sound-symbl corespondnce of CS Lestr, Chomly compared with TO Leicester, Cholmondely. In practis, tho, it wud no dout hav to be left to th comunitis and individuls concernd to decide wethr to make such chanjes, just as in th past peple decided for themselvs wethr they wishd to spel ther names Shakespeare or Shaxper, Browne or Brown. Users of this Dictionry can howevr observ how th spelng of certn names wud chanje in CS.