

THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY

Vol.1 A-K

The World Book Dictionary

Volume one A-K

Edited by:

Clarence L. Barnhart

Robert K. Barnhart

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William H. Nault, Editorial Director

Robert O. Zeleny, Executive Editor

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The World Book Dictionary

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About this book

THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY provides information about the meaning, spelling, and pronunciation of the most important and most frequently used words and phrases in the English language. It records facts about the use of these words in both the spoken and written language. And it includes the origin, history, and development of thousands of words.

THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY was first published in 1963 under the supervision of the noted American lexicographer, Clarence L. Barnhart. Although this dictionary is more comprehensive than any of the Thorndike-Barnhart school dictionaries, it is based on the same principles that have been thoroughly tested and widely accepted by experts and the public. In the years following the first edition, revisions were made on a yearly basis, a policy that still continues. However, by 1976 a major revision became necessary to accommodate the great number of changes in the English language in the past decade.

The revision not only gave **THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY** an up-to-date vocabulary, but also provided the opportunity to give this dictionary a new, modern appearance. Editors and artists explored a variety of type faces, layouts, art styles, and types of paper. The new format is a conscious effort to make **THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY** not only as attractive as possible, but even more readable and easier to use than before.

A complete reference library

Just as **THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA** records the events and developments of our time through regular revisions, so **THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY** keeps a running record of the words that tell of these events and developments. These two reference books are the only encyclopedia and dictionary that are edited to supplement each other. Together, they form a reference library for the family as well as the classroom. As a service to owners of the dictionary, the publishers include a special dictionary supplement in each annual edition of **THE WORLD BOOK YEAR BOOK**. This section contains the most important new words and meanings of the year.

Many authorities consulted

THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY is the creation of a lexicographical staff with more than forty years experience in making dictionaries. The staff carried out the editorial policies established by an international committee of distinguished scholars, including renowned linguists, phoneticians, and scholars of English language and literature. The policies of **THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY** and their execution are critically reviewed by this advisory committee and by the editors of **THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA**. Special consultants

in more than seventy fields of knowledge supply comments and suggestions. Distinguished etymologists have served as consulting editors.

Policies and objectives

From its inception, THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY has aimed to be useful to all members of the family and to students of various ages. Their needs were studied by the editors and the members of the advisory committee and a series of editorial policies were formulated. The editors of THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY agreed on the importance of: (1) writing definitions so that they are clear, informative, and easy to understand; (2) defining in a simple manner those words likely to be used by younger readers so that they can readily understand the meanings; (3) listing definitions with the most commonly used meaning first instead of listing them in historical order as do many dictionaries; (4) presenting informative illustrative sentences that help to clarify meanings; (5) ensuring the accuracy of THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY by consulting with experts in special fields; (6) placing information so that it can be obtained easily and quickly by the reader; (7) correlating information in the dictionary with information in THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA.

For the 1976 revision, new members of the advisory committee reviewed the editorial policies of the dictionary. The committee considered including an improved system for labeling cross references; an extension of the use of illustrative sentences; the labeling of figurative definitions; and the reexamination and simplification of language used in graded definitions.

THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY is based on an extensive quotation file containing more than three million quotations collected by experienced readers over a period of twenty-five years. These are culled from a wide sampling of contemporary magazines, newspapers, scholarly and technical journals, and books. Through an extensive reading program, the dictionary staff of editors and researchers constantly accumulate information on words, meanings, and usages. Correspondents from Australia, Canada, Great Britain, South Africa, and other parts of the English-speaking world regularly furnish evidence of new regional usages. In addition, the staff carefully reviews THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA to uncover new words, meanings, and usages incorporated in that publication as part of its ongoing revision program.

The quotation file ensures that this dictionary presents a complete and up-to-date record of the working vocabulary of the English language. It is a principal source of editorial decisions. Without it, the editors would have to turn to secondary sources. Thus, this dictionary is a complete, up-to-date dictionary of modern word usage.

Content

THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY contains 225,000 terms in the working vocabulary of English—the vocabulary used by educated people to communicate with each other and needed by them to understand the world they live in and the world of the past. By concentrating on vocabulary in actual use, this dictionary is able to provide fuller definitions and more illustrative sentences than it could if it were to include all possible obsolete, archaic, or excessively technical terms. By limiting entries to the really useful ones, entries are easier to find and space is gained in which to explain them adequately.

Because this dictionary was designed especially for use with THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA, biographical and geographical information, which more properly belongs in an encyclopedia, is not included. But the names of plants and animals are included, even though the encyclopedia gives more extensive information for many of these, including the scientific names used in classifying plants and animals according to genus and species. Excluding such encyclopedic information from the dictionary means that more space can be given to word meanings, illustrative sentences, usage notes, word origins and histories, synonyms, and illustrations.

Ease of use

Several features make this dictionary especially easy to use. For example, thumb tabs marked with a letter or letters of the alphabet are located along the edges of each volume, and guide words at the tops of pages make finding words quick and easy. All entries (words, phrases, abbreviations, foreign words) are arranged in a single alphabetical listing rather than appearing in separate categories.

The typography of this dictionary has much to do with its ease of use. After testing various type faces, the editors and designers chose the sans-serif Spectra for the body of the dictionary and sans-serif Roma for the supplemental material. They were selected not only for their modern appearance, but also because they proved to be easy to read. At the same time, these type faces take up less space than other type faces of the same size, leaving additional space for information. Again, in the interests of readability, column edges were changed from flush left and flush right to flush left and ragged right. In the former design, spacing between words was uneven in order to conform to the flush right edge. Now, the spaces between words are even so that the eye travels smoothly across the column. The ragged right setting also reduces the need for hyphenation in the dictionary text, which also improves readability.

The arrangement of entries also contributes to ease of use. Entries and cross references are printed in boldface (heavy) type. This makes them easy to find. Different kinds of Spectra type are used to highlight the various kinds of information provided in each entry. For example: boldface roman is used for entries; lightface roman is used for definitions; and italic is used for illustrative sentences and phrases. Boldface type is also used to identify idioms, which are now provided in one alphabetical list at the end of the appropriate entry. A lightface bar between syllables of entry words replaces the standard convention of periods or centered dots which confused many children who considered them part of the spelling. All separate parts of speech relating to an entry are now placed in separate paragraphs, so that the reader can distinguish their meanings easily and quickly. Variant spellings and names are not defined, but the reader is referred by an equals sign to the preferred form where the definition is given. Thus: baryon number = mass number. Etymologies are in brackets following a definition or the several definitions of an entry. To make etymologies easier to understand, words are spelled out, thus excluding abbreviations, such as OF for Old French.

Simplified pronunciation key

The pronunciation key, an adaptation of the International Phonetic Alphabet, employs a minimum number of special symbols, thus enabling the user of this dictionary to find current English pronunciations easily. Pronunciations given are

those which the editors consider to be in current use among educated speakers of English in the United States, and in representative areas of Canada. Where variations of pronunciation are common, two or more pronunciations are indicated.

Illustrations

More than 3,000 illustrations were specially created for the 1976 edition to help extend and clarify definitions. All illustrations were carefully researched by the staff of THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA so that they are factually correct in every detail. The illustrations were drawn by artists especially commissioned to work on THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY. The decision to use line drawings instead of other illustration styles was made to ensure clarity of detail and compatibility with the type face used, and to give the dictionary a look of uniformity and cohesiveness.

Entries were singled out for illustration when it was thought the reader might have difficulty visualizing a concept, or in those instances where illustrations provided additional information as in charts, biological and geological drawings, tables, and chemical formulas. Each illustrated entry is indicated by an asterisk. Many illustrations include parts that are labeled. All labels, except those that are self-evident combinations of words, appear as entries in other parts of the dictionary. Such entries are cross-referred to the illustration containing them.

Special articles

Supplementing the dictionary proper are 124 pages of other interesting, educational material. The supplement includes a "Guide to the dictionary," which explains the various kinds of signs, symbols, abbreviations, and other types of "short-hand" used by the makers of this dictionary to conserve space. The guide also explains and gives directions for using this dictionary as efficiently as possible. Vocabulary inventories—researched, compiled, and tested for the needs of students in twelve grade levels and college—help students test their knowledge of words. Special articles on vocabulary development point up how important and valuable a good vocabulary is for effective communication.

"How to write effectively," one of the sections included in the supplement, illustrates the various steps to be followed in preparing school assignments, such as book reports, term papers, and other kinds of writing, such as letters of various kinds. In addition, the supplement includes easy to read articles on subjects such as slang and jargon, codes and ciphers, the new grammar, and a short history of the English language. It gives lists of the words most commonly misspelled and tells how to avoid spelling and writing traps.

The supplement gives important information on how to change measures into and out of metric units. It includes a list of weights and measures and their metric equivalents, and signs and symbols including those pertaining to astronomy, biology, business, commerce, engineering, electrical plans and equipment, plumbing, computer programming, mapping, and meteorology. Various types of important alphabets such as the International Phonetic Alphabet, the Initial Teaching Alphabet, Braille, Esperanto, and the hand alphabet are explained and illustrated.

Editorial resources of three organizations

THE WORLD BOOK DICTIONARY is the result of the combined efforts of three publishing organizations. In producing this

edition, policies of past revisions were reconsidered and new points of view were introduced to make a dictionary that meets the needs of today's users.

The editorial responsibility for the dictionary proper is that of Clarence L. Barnhart, Robert K. Barnhart, and the staff of Clarence L. Barnhart Inc., one of three permanent staffs in the United States engaged in commercial English lexicography.

The writing and editing of special articles was carried out by the staff of THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA, which was also responsible for reviewing the dictionary proper for its consistency with the encyclopedia and its appropriateness for users of THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA. All illustrations in the dictionary were researched, labeled, and captioned by the staff of the encyclopedia, and provided by artists especially commissioned by the encyclopedia.

The Director of Educational Research and Development, Doubleday & Co., Inc., coordinated the work of the editorial departments of the dictionary and the encyclopedia.

The J. G. Ferguson Publishing Company, the Reference Book Division of Doubleday & Co., Inc., was responsible for the pre-press and press production of the dictionary.

By sharing the responsibilities of authorship, the correlation of the dictionary and THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA, and the mechanical production of the dictionary, we have produced a modern dictionary for use in the home and the classroom.

The Editors

J. A. W. Bennett, Fellow of the British Academy, Fellow of Magdalen College, Cambridge, Professor of English and Renaissance English, Cambridge University, editor of *Journal of English Studies* and *Journal of English Literature*.

William M. Bryant, Professor Emeritus, English, The City University of New York, Brooklyn College and The Graduate Center, author of *Modern English and Its History*, *English in the New World*, *A Concise History of the English Language*, *Modern English*, *Modern English Grammar*, *Modern English Syntax*, *Modern English Vocabulary*, *Modern English*, *Modern English Usage*.

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Frederic G. Cassidy, Professor of English, Language and Literature, University of Wisconsin, Madison, author of *The Development of Modern English*, *Modern English*, *Modern English Grammar*, *Modern English Syntax*, *Modern English Vocabulary*, *Modern English Usage*.

Cesar E. Ceram, Professor of English, University of Illinois, Urbana, author of *The English Language in the New World*, *The English Language in the New World*, *The English Language in the New World*, *The English Language in the New World*, *The English Language in the New World*.

Frederic M. Corns, Professor of English, University of Illinois, Urbana, author of *The English Language in the New World*, *The English Language in the New World*, *The English Language in the New World*, *The English Language in the New World*, *The English Language in the New World*.

International editorial advisory committee

Harold B. Allen, Emeritus Professor of English and Linguistics, University of Minnesota; director and editor of *Linguistic Atlas of the Upper Midwest*; compiler and editor of *Readings in Applied Linguistics, Teaching English as a Second Language, Readings in American Dialectology, Focusing on Language, and Linguistics and English Linguistics: A Bibliography*.

Richard Allsopp, Professor of English, Cave Hill Campus, University of the West Indies, Barbados; coordinator, Caribbean Lexicography Project; author, "Some Problems in the Lexicography of Caribbean English," "Why a Dictionary of Caribbean English Usage?," "Critical Commentary on the Dictionary of Jamaican English," "The Question of Barbadian Culture," "What Dictionary Should West Indians Use?"

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Arthur Delbridge, Professor of Linguistics, Macquarie University, N.S.W., Australia; coauthor of *The Pronunciation of English in Australia* (revised edition, 1965), *The Speech of Australian Adolescents*.

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Brian Foster, Doctorat de l'Université de Paris, Senior Lecturer in French, Southampton University, Southampton, England; editor of *Le roman de toute chevalerie* by Thomas of Kent and of *The Local Port Book of Southampton for 1435-36*; author of *The Changing English Language*.

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Thomas John Galvin, Dean and Professor, Graduate School of Library and Information Sciences, University of Pittsburgh; author of *Problems in Reference Service: Case Studies in Method and Policy*, and of numerous articles and reviews; editor of *Problem-Centered Approaches to Librarianship*.

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Shirô Hattori, Professor Emeritus, University of Tokyo, Japan; author of *Phonetics, Phonology and Orthography, The Affinity of Japanese, Methods in Linguistics, Studies in the Basic Vocabulary of English*; coeditor of *An Introduction to the Languages of the World*; editor of *An Ainu Dialect Dictionary*.

Samuel I. Hayakawa, President Emeritus, San Francisco State University; author of *Language in Action, Language in Thought and Action, Language, Meaning and Maturity, Our Language and Our World, Symbol, Status and Personality*; editor, *Modern Guide to Synonyms*.

Archibald A. Hill, Professor Emeritus of English, Linguistics, and Education, (1972-) University of Texas at Austin; editor, "Linguistics Today," *Forum, Voice of America, Basic Books*, 1967; author of *Introduction to Linguistic Structures, Oral Approach to English* (2 vols., 1965) Tokyo, English Language Education Committee.

Allan F. Hubbell, Professor of English, New York University; author of *The Pronunciation of English in New York City*.

Hans Kurath, Professor of English (Emeritus), University of Michigan; author of *A Word Geography of the Eastern United States* and *A Phonology and Prosody of Modern English*; coauthor of *Handbook of the Linguistic Geography of New England, Linguistic Atlas of New England, The Pronunciation of English in the Atlantic States*; editor of the *Middle English Dictionary*.

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Ernst Leisi, Professor of English Philology, Universität, Zurich, Switzerland; author of *Der Wortinhalt, Das Heutige Englisch, Praxis der englischen Semantik*; coauthor of *A Chronological English Dictionary*, 1970; editor of *Shakespeare: Measure for Measure. An old-spelling and old-meaning edition*.

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James B. McMillan, Professor of English, University of Alabama; author of *Writing and Thinking and Annotated Bibliography of Southern American English*.

Bertil Malmberg, Professor of Linguistics, University of Lund, Sweden; editor of *Studia Linguistica* and *IRAL*; author of *La Phonétique*, and *Phonetics, New Trends in Linguistics, Structural Linguistics and Human Communication, Estudios de fonética hispanica, Phonétique générale et romane, Linguistique générale et romane, and Manuel de phonétique générale*.

Albert H. Marckwardt, Professor Emeritus of English and Linguistics, Princeton University; author of *Introduction to the English Language, American English, Linguistics and the Teaching of English*.

David D. Murison, Senior Lecturer in Scottish Language, Universities of Aberdeen and St. Andrews, Scotland; editor of *The Scottish National Dictionary*.

Ralph G. Nichols, Professor Emeritus of Rhetoric, University of Minnesota; author of *Complete Course in Listening*; coauthor of *Are You Listening?, Listening and Speaking, Learn to Listen, Speak and Write, Introduction to the Field of Speech, Practical Speech Making*.

Ladislav Országh, General editor of *Angol-Magyar Szótár: Magyar-Angol Szótár* [English-Hungarian and Hungarian-English Dictionary]; formerly, Professor of English at the University of Debrecen, Hungary.

Robert C. Pooley, Emeritus Professor of English, University of Wisconsin; author of *Grammar and Usage in Textbooks in English, Teaching English Usage, Teaching English Grammar*.

Thomas Pyles, Emeritus Professor of English and Linguistics, Northwestern University; author of *Words and Ways of American English, The Origins and Development of the English Language, and The English Language: A Brief History*; coauthor of *English: An Introduction to Language*.

Randolph Quirk, Quain Professor of English, University College, University of London; director of the Survey of English Usage; author of *The Use of English, The English Language and Images of Matter, The Linguist and The English Language*; coauthor of *An Old English Grammar, Investigating Linguistic Acceptability, Elicitation Experiments in English, A Grammar of Contemporary English, A University Grammar of English, and Old English Literature—A Practical Introduction*.

Abgar Renault, Professor of English Literature, University of Minas Gerais, Brazil; author of *Structure and Psychology of the English Language, and The Termination -ing (An essay on the English gerund)*.

I. Willis Russell, Professor Emeritus, of English, University of Alabama; Chairman of the

Research Committee on New Words of the American Dialect Society; editor of "Among the New Words" department in *American Speech*.

M. H. Scargill, Professor of Linguistics and Department Head, University of Victoria, Canada; director of Lexicographical Center for Canadian English; coeditor of *Dictionary of Canadian English* series and *Dictionary of Canadianisms*; author of *An English Handbook* and *Modern Canadian English Usage*.

John Spencer, Director, The Institute of Modern English Language Studies, University of Leeds, Leeds, England; editor of *Language in Africa, Language in West Africa, Journal of West African Languages, and The West African Language Monograph Series*; coauthor of *Linguistics and Style, and Modern Poems of the Commonwealth*.

Robert P. Stockwell, Professor of Linguistics and former Chairman, Department of Linguistics, UCLA; coauthor of *Patterns of Spanish Pronunciation, Sounds of English and Spanish, Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish, The Major Syntactic Structure of English, Foundations of Syntactic Theory*; coeditor of *Linguistic Change and Generative Theory*.

J. L. M. Trim, Fellow of Selwyn College, Cambridge; University Lecturer and Head of Department of Linguistics, University of Cambridge; author of *English Pronunciation Illustrated*.

R. W. Zandvoort, Professor of English (Emeritus), University of Groningen, The Netherlands; founder and past editor of *English Studies, a Journal of English Letters and Philology*; author of *A Handbook of English Grammar*, 13th Edition (unilingual version 7th Edition).

Special consultants

Alexander, A. E., B.Sc., Ph.D. Fellow, A.A.A.S. Pres., A. E. Alexander Research Company; Editor: *National Jeweler, The Swiss Watch and Jewelry Journal*; American editor: *International Diamond Annual*. (Gem; Jewelry)

Allon, John E., B.Sc. F.R.Ae.S., A.M.I.Mech.E., A.F.A.I.A.A., F.B.I.S. Head of the Aerodynamics, Projects and Assessment Dept., Weapons Division, A. V. Roe and Co., Ltd. (England); Author: *Aerodynamics: A Space Age Survey*; Coeditor: *Spaceflight Technology*. (Aviation and Aerodynamics)

Banton, Michael Parker, Ph.D., D.Sc. Prof., Sociology, U. of Bristol; Author: *White and Coloured; West African City; The Policeman in the Community; Roles; Race Relations; Racial Minorities*. (Sociology)

Barnes, Clive, B.A. Dance Critic, *The Spectator*. Assoc. Ed., *Dance and Dancers*; Author: *Ballet in Britain since the War: Frederick Ashton and his Ballets*. (Dancing)

Baur, John I. H., B.A., M.A. Director Emeritus, Whitney Museum of American Art; Author: *Revolution and Tradition in Modern American Art*. Coauthor: *American Art of Our Century*. (Fine Arts)

Black, Michael H., M.A. Chief Ed. and Education Secretary, Cambridge U. Press (England); Contributor: *New English Larousse, Cambridge History of the Bible*. (Literature; Poetry)

Blythe, David, Director, Nottingham Photo Centre, Nottingham (England). (Photography)

Bonavia, Michael Robert, M.A., Ph.D., F.C.I.T. Formerly Special Project Advisor, British Railways Board; Author: *The Economics of Transport* (Railroad)

Borth, Christy, Former Asst. Managing Director, AMA. Author: *Masters of Mass Production; True Steel; Pioneers of Plenty; Mankind on the Move; A History of Roads*. (Automobile)

Bray, Charles W., Ph.D. Fellow, A.A.A.S.; Special Research Director, Research Group in Psychology and the Social Sciences, Smithsonian Institution; Author: *Psychology and Military Proficiency*. (Psychology)

Bretz, J. Harlen, B.A., Ph.D. Fellow, A.A.A.S.; Emeritus Prof., Geology, U. of Chicago. (Geology)

Brewington, C. B., J.P., B.Sc. (Hons.), C. Eng., F.I.C.E., F.R.S.A., Deputy Director (Planning), Trent Polytechnic, Nottingham, England. (Building Trade; Civil Engineering)

Brobeck, Florence, B.Sc. Former Women's Editor, *New York Herald Tribune* and *American Weekly*; Former Assoc. Editor, *McCall's*; Author: *The Family Book of Home Entertaining; The New Cook It in a Casserole; Chafing Dish Cookery; Cooking With Curry*. (Cooking)

Buckingham, A. D., M.Sc., M.A., Ph.D., F.R.A.C.I., F.R.I.C., F.Inst.P., F.R.S., Prof., Chemistry, Cambridge U., Fellow, Pembroke College, Cambridge. (Chemistry)

Cain, A. J., M.A., D.Phil. F.L.S. Prof., Zoology, Dept. of Zoology, Liverpool U.; Author: *Animal Species and Their Evolution*; Editor: *Function and Taxonomic Importance*. (Zoology; Entomology; Animal Classification)

Cameron, Jessie C., Dom.Sc.Cert. (London), Cordon Bleu (Paris). Formerly Principal, Totley Hall Training College of Housecraft (England); Author: *Skill in Cookery*. (Homemaking)

Campbell, Victor E., A.B., B.S. Director, Clergy-Industry Relations, NAM; Editor: *Dateline*; Author: *Youth to Work!—In Your Community*. (Religion)

Carter, Will, Free lance designer, calligrapher and letter carver; Author: *Italic Handwriting*. (Handwriting)

Cleaton, Glen U., B.S., A.M. Fellow and Diplomate, American Psychological Assn.; Dean Emeritus, School of Printing Management, and Dean Emeritus, Div. of Humanities and Social Sciences, Carnegie-Mellon U.; Consulting editor, *Graphic Arts, McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology*. Author: *Making Work Human*; Coauthor: *General Printing; Executive Ability*. (Printing)

Clegg, Hugh A., M.A., M.D. F.R.C.P. Former editor: *British Medical Journal*; Editor: *Proceedings of First and Second World Conferences on Medical Education*. (Medicine)

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Using your language

Speaking and writing are your most important forms of communication. Yet, you may not always express your thoughts and ideas as clearly as you would like to. You may be unsure of which words to choose to convey exactly what you mean. Or you may have problems with spelling, grammar, or punctuation. *Using your language* provides information that will help you with these mechanical aspects of English.

If you know something about the history of English, you will have a better understanding of your language. "Where English comes from," pages 14-16, is an overview of how and why words become part of English; why the meaning or spelling of some words changes; why and how new words are invented; and why some words that were once popular are now old-fashioned or obsolete.

"Making words," pages 17-19, will help you understand the structure of words. This section explains roots, prefixes, suffixes, and combining forms. It explains how an understanding of these word parts can help you increase your vocabulary and avoid spelling errors. It lists some of the most commonly used prefixes, suffixes, and combining forms, gives their meanings, and illustrates how each is used.

"Learning to spell correctly," pages 20-21, will help you with spelling problems that may arise when a word is changed to show number, person, tense, or comparison. It lists spelling rules and exceptions to the rules.

"Common misspellings," page 22, lists words commonly misspelled because of confusing pronunciations or because they contain silent letters.

"Parts of speech" and "New views of English," pages 23-25, explain some of the approaches to grammar. The traditional approach is given in "Parts of speech." Here, the eight parts of speech are defined and the use of each is explained and illustrated. "New views of English" is a brief description of two new approaches to grammar—structural grammar and transformational grammar.

"Capitalization" and "Punctuation," pages 26-31, show how to use these aspects of language to make reading easier and meaning clearer.

If you want to avoid being a dull writer or conversationalist, read "Choosing the right word," page 32.

"Writing and spelling traps," pages 33-38, is a representative list of words that have different meanings, but may be misused because they sound alike or are similar in form.

The final section, "Vocabulary inventories," pages 39-63, explains why a good vocabulary is an asset, and gives you an opportunity to test your word power through graded vocabulary inventories and answers.

As the invading Anglo-Saxons and Celts moved into Britain, the Celtic languages gradually retreated. Since the Celtic people were forced to communicate with their rulers, the history of the English language begins with the take-over of Britain by the Germanic tribes. As a result, Celtic words only a small contribution to the English vocabulary with words such as day and eye. However, many place names were adopted from the Celtic. Among them are: Howa, Kent, London, Oxen, and Thames. Small groups of people living in Ireland, Wales, and the Scottish Highlands still speak varieties of Celtic. As such as Scottish Gaelic, Welsh, Breton, and recently revived Irish.

Old English

The Angles and Saxons occupied a large part of Britain. The name of one of the former tribes eventually became the name of the land they occupied, England. The Anglo-Saxon language, now usually called Old English, became firmly established in Britain in the period from the A.D. 500's to 1100's.

Even as this happened, changes were taking place in Latin-speaking Roman and Celtic missionaries under St. Augustine began converting Christianity in Britain. The introduction of Christianity exerted a great impact on the English language. Religion brought with it many new ideas and customs. And Christianity used Latin in their attempt to identify and deal with all these new ideas and customs, the Anglo-Saxons did not hesitate to borrow from Latin the special vocabulary needed for the new religious life. Among the words taken from Church Latin which still survive are:

Latin	Old English	Modern English
abbas	abbot	abbot
cathedra	ceðel	cathedral
altare	altor	altar
crucem	crice	crucifix
apostolus	apostol	apostle

However, most of Old English did not borrow as heavily from Latin and other languages as the period as they did later when there was greater communication with the Continent. Sometimes they changed the meaning of native words. The word for Easter (Easter) originally was the name for the spring festival honoring the goddess of dawn. Ceol (Yule), the name of the festival held to celebrate the passing of the shortest day of the year, came to denote Christmas.

Native ingenuity was shown in creating new words by combining two native words in much the same way as we now combine words such as snow and water to form snow-water. Old English words such as *weccan* (to teach), *craft* (meaning made art), and *handbook* (handbook, meaning manual) illustrate this practice.

The growth of the Old English vocabulary during the period of language history reflects the growth of English culture. The church's influence, Christianity, was encouraged and Britain began to rise as one of the intellectual leaders of Europe.

Where English comes from

The English language has existed for hundreds of years. Many words came into English from various European languages. For example, St. Augustine and other Latin-speaking missionaries to England used such words as *bishop* and *priest*. Latin was the language of scholarship and religion. Wherever Latin scholars, missionaries, and government officials exerted important influence, Latin words became known. When the Scandinavians invaded and settled in Britain, some words beginning with *sk-* were adopted into English. For example, *skill*, *skirt*, and *sky*. The Scandinavians also contributed important pronouns such as *their*, *them*, and *they*. Words of French origin include *army*, *blue*, *chair*, *dinner*, *government*, *jolly*, *mayor*, *paper*, and *towel*. *Balcony*, *piano*, and *pizza* come from Italy; *fiesta* and *siesta*, from Spain; *orchestra*, from Greece; *boomerang*, from Australia; *vodka*, from Russia; and *igloo*, from the Eskimos.

English is always growing and changing. Words constantly are being added and falling into disuse. Many words that you hear, speak, and read today were not part of the language your grandparents used. Look in a dictionary published at that time and you will not find such words as *astronaut*, *culture shock*, *miniskirt*, *rolamite*, and *microfiche*. Every time new inventions, scientific discoveries, art forms, or fashions appear that do not have names to identify them, new words must be invented or old words given new applications, or taken from other languages.

When words are not used, they become obsolete. Obsolete words are included in the dictionary because they are part of our history and our culture. You will want to know what they mean when you read them in old books or hear them used in plays written a long time ago. Before the automobile was a common form of transportation, people traveled in *buggies* drawn by horses. Now when you hear or see the word *buggy* you are inclined to think of something old-fashioned or insect-ridden.

Many words have changed their meanings. For example, *sly* and *crafty* people were once described as "pretty." At one time, when people wanted to picture someone as *stupid* and *ignorant* they referred to that person as "nice." Today, if someone tells us we are "nice" and "pretty," we feel flattered, not insulted.

These are only a few of the ways in which language changes and grows. By knowing how words become part of a language, you discover important clues to social, political, and cultural changes that take place in the history of a country using that language.

The story of how English originated is a fascinating one.

How English began

English comes from a common ancestral language believed to have existed a very long time ago. It has been called *Indo-European*. About 4,500 years ago, the people who spoke varying forms of this language split into groups that drifted into Europe and parts of Asia. Different speech communities developed within these widespread groups eventually giving rise to several languages including Latin, from which many of the languages spoken in Europe today developed. One group of Indo-European languages is known as Germanic, and this is the primary parent language of English and German.

Warrior-adventurers, who spoke Germanic, invaded what is now Great Britain about A.D. 450. The invaders—called

Angles, Saxons, and Jutes—all spoke similar dialects. The people they conquered, known as Britons, spoke Celtic. The Celtic language included Latin words because conquering Roman troops occupied Britain from A.D. 43 until the 400's. The troops had to return home to defend Rome against invading armies. The Germanic tribes conquered Britain after the Romans left.

As the invading tribes took over and settled in Britain, the Celtic languages gradually retreated. Since the Celtic people were forced to communicate with their rulers, the history of the English language begins with the take-over of Britain by the Germanic tribes. As a result, Celtic made only a small contribution to the English vocabulary with words such as *crag* and *bin*. However, many place names were adopted from the Celtic. Among them are *Avon*, *Kent*, *London*, *Ouse*, and *Thames*. Small groups of people living in Ireland, Wales, and the Scottish Highlands still speak varieties of Celtic such as Scottish Gaelic, Welsh, Breton, and recently revived Irish.

Old English

The Angles and Saxons occupied a large part of Britain. The name of one of the former tribes eventually became the name of the land they occupied, *England*. The Anglo-Saxon language, now usually called Old English, became firmly established in Britain in the period from the A.D. 500's to 1066.

Even as this happened, changes were taking place. Latin-speaking Roman and Celtic missionaries under St. Augustine, began spreading Christianity in Britain. The introduction of Christianity exerted a great impact on the English language. Religion brought with it many new ideas and customs. And Christianity used Latin. In their attempt to identify and deal with all these new ideas and customs, the Anglo-Saxons did not hesitate to borrow from Latin the special vocabulary needed for the new religious life. Among the words taken from Church Latin which still survive are:

Latin	Old English	Modern English
abbātis	abbod	abbot
candēla	candel	candle
altāre	altar	altar
āmēn	amen	amen
apostolus	apostol	apostle

However, users of Old English did not borrow as heavily from Latin and other languages in this period as they did later when there was greater communication with the Continent. Sometimes they changed the meanings of native words. The word for Easter (*eastron*) originally was the name for the spring festival honoring the goddess of dawn. *Geol* (Yule), the name of the festival held to celebrate the passing of the shortest day of the year, came to denote Christmas.

Native ingenuity was shown in creating new words by combining two native words in much the same way as we now combine words such as *space* and *worthy* to form *spaceworthy*. Old English words such as *læcecraft* (leechcraft), meaning medicine, and *handbōc* (handbook), meaning manual, illustrate this practice.

The growth of the Old English vocabulary during this period of language history reflects the growth of English culture. Because of the Church's influence, scholarship was encouraged and Britain began its rise as one of the intellectual leaders of Europe.

Toward the end of the 700's, hardy Vikings from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden began invading and settling in many parts of Britain. By the 1000's, a Danish king ruled Britain. As a result of the invasions from the Danish peninsula, many Scandinavian words became part of English. These did not identify new ideas and objects. They were everyday words for which the English already had terms and expressions.

Why did the Scandinavian words exist side by side with English words instead of replacing them? The Scandinavian invaders were Germanic people like the Anglo-Saxons. Their cultures were similar and their languages enough alike so that they understood one another. Many words were exactly alike, such as *father*, *husband*, *house*, *life*, *man*, *mother*, *summer*, *wife*, and *winter*. Other words were so much alike they were used interchangeably.

Although the Scandinavians and the English fought each other, many Scandinavians settled peacefully in Britain, married English women, and raised families. Often both languages were spoken in the same household. Where different words existed for the same thing, the Old English word usually won out, but there were some exceptions. The results of this absorption of language through close contact is seen in the histories of such words from Scandinavia as *skirt*, *skill*, *window*, *leg*, *gasp*, *birth*, *glitter*, *they*, *their*, *them*, *egg*.

Scholars believe that at least 900 words of Scandinavian origin have survived in modern Standard English. Many more are still in use in Great Britain. They are found in dialects spoken in regions heavily settled by the Swedes, Danes, and Norse in those early days.

Middle English

Old English began to undergo a great change when the Normans invaded England from France in 1066. Until then, in spite of the Latin brought in by the introduction of Christianity, the influence on English was overwhelmingly Germanic. The Normans began a process that brought many French words into the English language. They replaced the English as rulers, chief landholders, and church officials and Norman-French became the language of the ruling class. However, the common people continued to speak English.

Norman-French and Old English existed side by side until political and social changes began to favor the use of English by all classes. The Normans lost control of their territory in France in the early 1200's. Confined to Britain, the Normans began to learn English. Eventually, it replaced French as the language of the ruling class, the schools, and the courts. By the end of what is known as the Middle English period (1100-1500), English again had established itself as the major language in Britain.

During this period, English continued to borrow words from French and from Latin. In the English we now speak, more than half of the words in common use come from these two sources. Many words from Old English and Anglo-French that are roughly synonymous exist side by side today. For example, *dress* and *clothes*, *aid* and *help*, *royal* and *kingly*. In addition, trade between Britain and the Low Countries, especially Holland, accounts for the inclusion of perhaps as many as 2,500 words of Dutch origin in the English language. Some examples are: *boom* (at the bottom of a sail), *deck*, *easel*, *etch*, *freight*, *furlough*, and *stoop* (porch or entrance).

Before the Norman invasion, a great change in English was beginning to shift grammatical and pronunciation pat-

terns. However, the coming of the Normans accelerated these changes. Everyday use, growth of dialects, and contact with foreign languages caused inflections (word endings) to lose their distinctive meanings and their usefulness. Instead of depending on word endings to give exact meaning to a sentence, as had been the case in Old English, word order became the important indicator.

In Old English, for example, *To his þeowum se fæder cwæð*, meaning "The father said to his servants" or "To his servants the father said," would have the same meaning no matter how the words were placed in the sentence. The *-um* ending on *þeow(um)* would always indicate who was being spoken to. In modern English, if we shift word order to make the sentence read "His servants said to the father," the meaning would be quite different.

English still retains some inflections, including plurals and the verb endings. But Middle English had far fewer inflections than Old English.

Modern English

The Modern English period, starting about 1500, has been concerned for the most part with regulating and standardizing the language. But attempts to fix English into a permanent form failed. The way a language is used gives it life, and usage produces change.

However, fixing a language and freezing its usages into a form that tolerates no change is different from trying to standardize its spelling so that communication between inhabitants of various regions of the country is easy and effective.

Several factors contributed to establishing Standard English spelling and some forms of usage and many of the traits that exist in modern English. These factors included the introduction of the printing press into England in 1477 by William Caxton, the revival of interest in literature, and the growth of popular education.

The need for standardization was recognized as early as the mid-1300's. From that time, the London dialect (East Midland) was gradually adopted from the four main dialects in existence (Northern, East and West Midland, and Southern) as the basis for Standard English. The choice was made because the London dialect was the language of contracts and commerce and the speech of the ruling court. All official documents originating there were written in the London dialect. Furthermore, the translation of the Book of Common Prayer and the King James version of the Bible became tremendous forces for elevated English.

Before Caxton, literary works were written for the most part in the dialect of the author. Spoken dialects continued for a long time and, indeed, still exist. But, by the end of the 1400's, the London dialect was becoming accepted literary usage.

By the early part of the 1600's, more than 20,000 different words were printed in England alone. Books were available to all who could read and afford them. The printed word helped to make spelling more uniform. Up until that time spelling usually varied from region to region.

From the 1500's through the 1700's, many writers experimented with words. Over 10,000 new words entered the English language. Many of these were taken from Latin and Greek by scholars who wanted to replace the forms earlier adopted from French. Translators and writers believed the language was rough, unpolished, and incapable of doing what Latin and Greek had done, and what Italian could do.

They set about enlarging the vocabulary, chiefly by translating words from Greek and Latin. More than twenty-five per cent of modern English words come almost directly from classical languages. Very often we have two words that go back to the same Latin original—one brought in by the Normans, and one taken in directly. For example, words such as *paint* and *picture*, *certainly* and *certitude*. The adoption of Greek and Latin forms became so abundant and so outrageous that many of these borrowings were dubbed "inkhorn terms" because of their bookishness. However, some of these terms were useful and necessary and they have survived to this day. Among them are *conduct*, *dexterity*, *extinguish*, *scientific*, and *spurious*.

American and British English

After the British colonized America, the English language used by Americans began to change from that in the old country. The biggest factor in this change involved the need to create or adopt words to identify unfamiliar objects. Animals, trees, food, and the physical features of the land were different. The Americans took words from the Indians to identify a raccoon, a tomahawk, a papoose, and a wigwam. When there were no appropriate words, they did what their ancestors had done. They combined words and gave them new meanings. The combination of *garter* and *snake* produced a word to describe a crawling creature they had never seen before. They named the sweet, edible root of a vine belonging to the morning-glory family, *sweet potato*. They adapted from the Narraganset Indians the name for the fruit of a plant of the gourd family, the *squash*.

The growth of American nationalism led to a desire for cultural as well as political independence from the mother country. This, too, influenced American English, as in conscious attempts to reform spelling so that in time, *musick* became *music*, and *labour* became *labor*. New ideas in the arts and sciences and the coming to America of people from many different countries had a powerful effect on American English.

Changes have not been so extensive that we speak a new language. Many Americans may not know that when an Englishman says *fitment* he means an *alteration*, and that the British *goods wagon* is the American *freight car*. But, for the most part, Americans and Britons communicate easily because grammatical and phonetic patterns have not changed, though many words or lexical content are different.

The gap between American and British English has become smaller in recent times, especially with the great increases in the ease of transportation and communication. Neither the Americans nor the British have any qualms about appropriating words from other languages when they express concepts better than native words can. The British have taken American words such as *telephone*, *jazz*, and *typewriter*. Americans take words from many languages.

English has also changed in other countries where it is used. Canadians, Australians, New Zealanders, and others have adapted English to fit their own needs. Although all English-speaking people can generally understand each other, each English-speaking country has developed distinctive ways of using the language. For example, New Zealanders refer to a *section* (a building lot in a city), Australians to a *mob* (a group of animals), and Canadians to a *chesterfield* (an overstuffed sofa).

As long as travel and trade exist between nations, as long

as large groups of people continue to settle in countries other than their native lands, and as long as the sciences and the arts progress, new ideas, new words, and new usages of words will continue to keep language changing and growing.

Making words

You can often learn the spelling and meaning of words more easily when you know how they are put together. Three parts or elements go into the making of many words: *roots*, *affixes*, and *combining forms*.

A root gives a word its basic or etymological meaning. It may be a word in itself or a word part. *View*, meaning "sight" or "to look at," is a root word. *Port*, which is a Latin form, means "to carry." It is a root that is also a word part in Latin. It is found in Anglicized Latin borrowings as in the words *portable*, *porter*, and *import*.

Affixes are added before or after words or word parts to modify the meaning of a root. *Re-* is added before *view* to make the word *review*, meaning "to look at again." The affix *-er* can be added to *view*, to make a word meaning "a person who looks at," or to *review*, to make a word meaning "a person who looks at again." An affix placed at the beginning of a word or word part is called a prefix. An affix at the end is a suffix. Prefixes and suffixes may be a syllable, syllables, or a word.

The root word *fold* means "to bend or double over." Add the prefix *un-*, meaning "the opposite," and you have *unfold*, which means "to open up what has been doubled over." Add the suffix *-er*, meaning "performer of an act," and you have *folder*, "something or someone that folds."

A list of prefixes and suffixes commonly used in word building follows on page 18. *Attachable*, *attaching*, *reattach*, and *unattached* have the same root. Can you identify the root, prefixes, and suffixes? Look up the prefixes and suffixes in the lists that follow and see how they modify the meaning of the root.

Suffixes often change a word's part of speech. (For a full discussion of parts of speech, see pages 23 through 24.) The adjective *sad* is made into a noun by adding *-ness*, which means "the state of being." The noun *courage* is changed into an adjective by adding the suffix *-ous*, meaning "full of." Writers commonly use the suffix *-ly* to make adverbs: *glad*, *gladly*; *correct*, *correctly*.

Suffixes also are used with adjectives and adverbs to indicate increasing degree. The suffix *-er* forms the comparative, and *-est* forms the superlative for many words: *greater*, *greatest*; *faster*, *fastest*; *prettier*, *prettiest*.

Another element used in building words is called a combining form. This is a special form of a word joined with another word or word part to make a combined word. *Tele-*, meaning "having to do with or operating over a long distance" (from the Greek *têle*, meaning "far off") and *-phone*, meaning "sound" (from the Greek *phōnē*, meaning "sound") combine to make *telephone*. *Bio-*, meaning "life or living things" (from the Greek *bíos*, meaning "life") and *-logy*, meaning "science of" (from the Greek *lógos*, meaning "deal with or discuss") combine to form *biology*. *Cosmology*, *geology*, and *hydrology* are made the same way. Another example is the combining form *auto*, which can be used with other combining forms and words such as *biography*, *graph*, and *mobile*. Many combining forms are well-established in English, but are borrowed from Latin or Greek words, or may originate from other languages, such as French and German.

A list of combining forms that can be used with other word elements to create thousands of words follows on page 19.

Word parts and spelling

Understanding the building of words helps you to spell. Those who realize that *tele-* is a combining form meaning "operating over long distances" are unlikely to make the errors of spelling *telephone* or *telemeter* as *telaphone* or *tela-meter*. Often, the addition of a suffix does not change the spelling of a root word: *heiress*, *greenish*, *brighten*, *joyful*. In some cases, however, the suffix requires a variation in the spelling of the root word: *desirable*, *victorious*, *truly*. At times, the prefix calls for insertion of a hyphen before the rest of the word: *co-conspirator*, *anti-imperialist*. Guidelines for spelling words made by adding affixes appear in the spelling section on pages 20-21, and the rules for using a hyphen on page 28.

Understanding unfamiliar words

Understanding something about the function of roots, affixes, and combining forms will often help you recognize many new or unfamiliar words. If you know the meanings of such combining forms as *photo-* (meaning "light" and "photographic"); *-meter* (meaning "device for measuring"); *chrono-* (meaning "time"); and *-graph* (meaning "something written, drawn or pictured" and "an instrument that writes, draws or pictures, or records"), you can construct and determine the meaning of many words, such as the following:

photochemistry
photocopy
photometer
photograph
photochronograph
chronometer
chronophotograph
chronograph

Once you know that words are made up of elements in predictable positions, you can break down a word into its parts. You may know the meanings of these parts, or you can easily look them up. The lists of prefixes, suffixes, and combining forms help you do this.

Many English words are made up of roots and affixes that are derived from Latin and Greek. For example, consider the word *interplanetary*. It is composed of the prefix, *inter-* (from the Latin *inter*, meaning "among; between"); the root word, *planet* (from the Greek *planētēs* [ástērēs], meaning "wandering stars"); and the suffix, *-ary* (from the Latin *-ārius*, meaning "place for; belonging to"). Thus, the definition of the word *interplanetary* is "situated between the planets; in the region of the planets." Sometimes, two combining forms are joined to make a word. For example, *Anglo-* (from the Latin *Anglī*, meaning "English") and *-phile* (from the Greek *phīlos*, meaning "lover of") are two combining forms joined to make the word *Anglophile* which is defined as "a friend or admirer of England and the English."

You see how knowing word organization can enrich your vocabulary. Once you understand unfamiliar words, you are able to use them in speaking and writing. The more words that you can use, the better you can make your ideas and opinions understood by others. Thus, you have learned to communicate more effectively.

Following are lists of selected prefixes, suffixes, and combining forms. Any element listed may change its form when being used to make a word. For example, the combining form *auto* sometimes drops the final *o* when added to word parts beginning with vowels: *autism*, *autarchy*.

Prefixes	Meaning	Example	Suffixes	Meaning	Example
a-	form of ab- (used before <i>m</i> , <i>p</i> , and <i>v</i>)	amentia, aperture, avert	-able, -ible	that can be	obtainable, perfectible
ab-	away, from	abdicate	-al	of, like, having the nature of	ornamental
ac-, ad-	to, toward	accede, adjacent	-an	having to do with; a native of	Shakespearean, European
ana-	back, again	anachronism	-ance	act of	disturbance
ante-	before	antebellum	-ant	one who	assistant
anti-	against	antiaircraft	-ate	of or having to do with	collegiate
apo-	from, away	apogee	-cle, -cule	small	particle, molecule
arch-, archi-	first, chief	archbishop, archipelago	-cy	state of being	bankruptcy
bi-	two	bicycle	-ed	having	honeyed
cata-	down	cataclysm	-en	characteristics of	
circum-	around	circumvent	-ence	cause to be or have	heighten, lighten
cis-	on this side	cislunar	-ent	state of being	indifference
co-, com-, con-	with	cooperate, compress, confer	-er	one who	president
contra-, counter-	against	contradict, counterclockwise	-er, -or	more	warmer, smarter
de-	do the opposite of	decentralize	-ese	a person or thing performing an act	reporter, conveyor
di-	twice	dioxide	-ess	of or having to do with	Chinese
dia-	through, across	diagonal	-est	female	heiress
di-, dis-	apart, away	digress, dissolve	-ful	most	warmest, smartest
dis-	not	discontent	-fy	full of	playful
dys-	bad	dysfunction	-hood	make, cause to be	electrify, horrify
en-	make	enable	-ic	state of being	childhood
epi-	on	epidermis	-ier, -yer	having to do with	Icelandic
eu-	good	euphemism	-ine	a person concerned with	cashier, lawyer
ex-, e-	out of, from	exit, emit	-ing	like	canine
extra-	beyond	extraordinary	-ion	present participle ending	running
fore-	front	forehead	-ish	act or process of	admission
hyper-	beyond, over	hyperthyroid	-ist	like, tending toward	greenish, smallish
hypo-	under, less	hypodermic	-ite	a person who	biologist
im-, in-	in	impart, income	-itis	a native of; a person associated with	Denverite, socialite
inter-	among, between	intersect	-ive	inflammation of	appendicitis
intra-	within	intramural	-ize	of or having to do with	sportive
intro-	inside	introduce	-less	cause to become or resemble	Americanize
met-, meta-	change, among	metonymy, metacarpus	-let	without	smokeless, meatless
mis-	wrong	misadvice, mislead	-ly	little	booklet
non-	not, the opposite of	nonintervention	-ment	in a manner	cheerfully
ob-	against	object	-most	act of or state of	bewilderment
par-, para-	beside	parenthesis, parallel	-ness	most	uppermost
per-	throughout, thoroughly	perennial, perceive	-oid	state or quality of being	darkness
peri-	around	perimeter	-osis	like	spheroid
post-	after	postoperative	-ous	disease of	neurosis
pre-	before	preview	-sect	full of	joyous
pro-	forward	project	-ship	to cut	bisect
quasi-	seemingly	quasi-military	-some	office, status, or rank of	professorship
re-	again, back	redecorate, recall	-tion	tending to	meddlesome
retro-	backward	retrogress	-tude	act, process, or state of	action
semi-	half	semiannual	-ule	quality, state of	altitude, solitude
sub-	under	submarine	-ure	small	globule
super-, sur-	above, over	superintendent, surpass	-ward	act or process of tending or leading to	closure, failure
syl-, sym-, syn-	together, with	syllogism, symposium, syndicate			homeward
trans-	across, over	transfer			
ultra-	beyond	ultraviolet			
un-	not; the opposite of	unfastened			
up-	up	upgrade			