

THE UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

An original compilation giving all pronunciations in simplified and in more exact phonetic notations, extensive etymologies, definitions, the latest accepted words in scientific, technical, and general use, with copious illustrative phrases, and colloquialisms

Edited by

HENRY CECIL WYLD

B.Litt., M.A., Hon. Ph.D. Upsala; Honorary Member of the Linguistic Society, and of the Modern Language Association of America; Late Merton Professor of English Language and Literature in the University of Oxford

With an Appendix by

ERIC PARTRIDGE

Author of 'A Dictionary of Slang & Unconventional English'
'Usage and Abuse: A Guide to Good English'

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Preface

IT is not without some misgivings and searchings of heart that a man at the present time can put his name on the title-page of a new Dictionary as its Editor. There are so many good English dictionaries, varying in size and scope, from the great Oxford Dictionary—that wonder of the age—down to those cheap and humble volumes whose chief object seems to be to aid in the solution of cross-word puzzles. It is therefore reasonable to ask whether there is room for yet another English dictionary, whether there is still some void among works of this class which remains to be filled. The present writer confesses that had he been asked these questions seven or eight years ago, he would probably have said No to both. When one reflects that, apart from the unapproachable Oxford Dictionary, there are such medium-sized works as the new Webster, Funk and Wagnall, the Imperial Dictionary, and the smaller but most admirable Concise Oxford, besides Chambers, Annandale, and others, while in etymology pure and simple there are Skeat and Weekley, it may well seem that the field is handsomely covered for many years to come.

When, however, the Publishers determined to embark upon the publication of an English Dictionary, and did the present writer the honour of inviting him to compile and edit it, it became necessary to review the situation and inquire how far it might still be possible to produce a work that should be of service to the public in such a way as to justify the undertaking. The essential features of a dictionary are its size, its scope, and the manner in which the material it contains is presented. The approximate size of this work was determined by the Publisher. It was to be a book of moderate and medium size. It was to be distinctly smaller than Webster, but considerably larger than the Concise Oxford. From the latter work, it was agreed that the present dictionary should be distinguished, not so much by the inclusion of a larger number of words, as by a fuller and less condensed mode of treatment. More space was allowed for actual definitions, illustrative examples, etymologies, discussions of changes in meaning, and so on.

It fell to the Editor to devise in detail the plan of the book, its scope, and the method of arrangement. It was decided, with the consent and approval of the Publishers, that the book should be above all things a book of words, their derivations and their meanings, and not an encyclopaedia. We deal primarily with words and their uses, and not with things. But since a dictionary necessarily includes the names of thousands of material objects of all kinds, it is impossible to avoid descriptions of these. Similarly, in dealing with the name of a scientific, philosophical, or religious doctrine, it is necessary to give a certain amount of information of a kind which is normally to be sought in an encyclopaedia or a special treatise. In these and many other instances the distinction between a dictionary of words and an encyclopaedia becomes rather faint, and the 'word-book' encroaches upon the functions of works of quite a different kind. This encyclopaedic element is here reduced to the lowest minimum.

Passing to the positive features of this dictionary, the pronunciation of each word is recorded both in a simple and exact phonetic notation, and in a less exact and popular mode of spelling which the Publishers believe to be more generally intelligible. The pronunciations indicated are those

current in good society, and where more than one pronunciation of the same word are current, both are given, that preferred by the Editor being put first.

The etymologies are given with greater fullness than is usual in dictionaries of this size and scope. It will be noticed that when a word is a loan from another language, the usual practice in the smaller dictionaries of merely indicating that the word is derived from Latin, French, and so on, is extended, and the etymology of the Latin or French word in question is given as far as possible. In all cases the attempt has been made to indicate the relation or original identity of the word under immediate discussion with others in English, and full cross-references are given to related or cognate words. An attempt is also made as far as possible to trace the development of meaning from the most primitive starting-point down to the present-day usage in English.

It is hoped that those readers who, although unfamiliar with the methods of philological science, are sufficiently interested in etymology to take a little trouble will be able to follow the line of argument adopted in the discussions of the forms and meanings of words by reference to the introductory sections of the book. Unfortunately no means have yet been discovered whereby the results of a highly developed science such as that of etymology, with its own body of facts, and special modes of reasoning upon them, can be made available to readers previously ignorant of both facts and methods without the expenditure of some mental effort on the readers' part.

In selecting the words for inclusion in the dictionary, the net has been cast fairly widely. The greatest importance is naturally attached to words current in literary and colloquial use at the present day. At the same time, a large number of purely technical and scientific words and terms have been included, since many of these necessarily play a considerable part in the lives of important sections of the community. Many of these words have been deliberately concocted by men of science to meet the needs, and embody the theories and views, of the moment, and many will probably pass out of use with a change of scientific outlook.

The definitions have been thought out with a view to clearness and completeness. The various meanings and shades of meaning are carefully distinguished, and each is illustrated, when necessary, by a brief sentence, usually of a colloquial character. Special meanings or shades of meaning, especially when poetical, are occasionally exhibited in short quotations from the poets. It must be borne in mind that this dictionary is primarily designed to set forth contemporary usage; when necessary, words, or particular uses of words, are designated as *Archaic*, *Obsolescent*, *Obsolete*. When a word or usage is no longer current in colloquial speech, it is marked as *Poetical* or *Literary*. Similarly when a particular usage is purely Colloquial or Familiar, this is indicated. Special care has been directed to giving idiomatic usages and phrases. These are included under that particular meaning of a word from which the idiom sprang. The Editor has not hesitated to include words and idioms which belong to current slang. Such words must be regarded as very real elements of colloquial speech.

The main aim of the book is to give, in dictionary form, a picture of English usage at the present time, both literary and colloquial. The Editor is conscious of many short-

comings, and this is said neither from false modesty, nor as an attempt to disarm criticism, but as the expression of what is perhaps a natural feeling in one who has just completed a long and laborious piece of work. In spite of its defects, the book contains much that will probably interest, amuse, and instruct the general reader.

No claim is made to original research in the etymologies. The Editor's task has been mainly that of collecting, and selecting from, the materials supplied by such masters as Bradley, Skeat, Kluge, Meyer-Lübke, Walde, Boisacq, and others, and presenting their results so as to throw light upon particular problems. Here and there an original suggestion has been thrown out.

The work of defining and mapping out the meanings of each word was carried out, in the first instance, independently of other dictionaries, as will usually appear from the actual terms of the definitions, and from the general arrangement of divisions and subdivisions of meaning. Other dictionaries, notably the new large Webster, Funk and Wagnall, the Concise Oxford, and the great Oxford Dictionary were consulted after the treatment of a word had been roughed out, to ensure a reasonable completeness in the enumeration of the various meanings. The compiler of a dictionary, if he reads a definition given in another book *before* he has determined the form of his own, is apt to be so hypnotized by the former that he finds it difficult to get away from it, and tends to reproduce its phraseology. The Editor has tried, when revising this work, to eliminate the results of such suggestion so far as he could detect them. For purely technical and scientific terms recourse was had to encyclopaedias, or, when possible, to the advice of experts. The Editor then attempted to give in his own words a clear and intelligible account of the term's implication and submitted this to the expert for criticism.

The Editor has, in conclusion, the duty and pleasure of making certain acknowledgements.

First to Sir John Hammerton, who is in a real sense the 'only begetter' of the book, and has acted throughout as its Managing Editor. He has afforded the Editor every help in his power by providing skilled assistance, expert and clerical. His unfailing personal kindness and courtesy have been a great support.

To those who have assisted him in the actual compilation the Editor tenders his sincere gratitude. In especial he wishes to thank Miss Mary Serjeantson, M.A. (Liverpool), D.Phil. (Oxford), Reader in English in the University of London, who has taken part in the work from an early stage, and Mr. Cecil Weatherly, B.A. (Oxford), Barrister-at-Law, who was engaged on the dictionary from about the middle, and who, together with Miss Serjeantson, has taken an active part in the revision and correction of the proofs of practically the entire work. It is impossible to exaggerate the debt which the Editor owes to the untiring devotion and loyalty of Dr. Serjeantson and Mr. Weatherly, as well as to their expert knowledge in various fields.

Dr. A. B. Gough has rendered invaluable help, partly in compilation, but more especially by his keen-eyed reading of the final proofs. Much is owed to his judicious suggestions.

The Editor wishes to pay a special tribute to the most helpful collaboration of Miss G. M. Holland and her colleagues, whose unflagging interest and labours in the tedious task of incorporating corrections in the proofs and securing typographical exactitude have been of the greatest service. But whatever the various parts played by these ladies and gentlemen, the Editor must take responsibility for the work in its final form and for its shortcomings.

HENRY CECIL WYLD

OXFORD.

Introduction

I

General Remarks on English Etymology

By the EDITOR

WE all of us use words, in the ordinary affairs of life, in our business and in our everyday pleasures, as well as in our more solemn moments of exalted emotion, whether of joy or of sorrow, or, it may be, in the expression of still loftier aspirations associated with religion. For the normal man or woman life without that means of communication with our fellow-creatures which we call *language*, that is *words*, is unthinkable.

If we reflect upon the subject at all, we shall soon realize that even our own English language which we know so well, and use so readily, though familiar is yet mysterious. Many persons who have but little time for special studies, though they may read and think about many things outside their daily routine of cares and duties, so far as their leisure may permit, have been unable to devote much attention to the study of the words of their native tongue. They can speak it and read it and write it; they can say all, or nearly all, they want to say in it—and this is no mean accomplishment—and yet there are whole aspects of English of which, from the circumstances of their lives, they are totally unaware. English speech plays an enormous part in the lives of all of us, and yet when we come to think, we find that we know next to nothing about it.

What then, it may be asked, is there to know about this most familiar thing the English Language, beyond that it is (or ought to be) pronounced in a certain way, that its words have this or that meaning, and that certain grammatical constructions are said to be 'correct' while others are not?

First of all we might suggest a few rather large questions such as: Where did English come from? Why do we sometimes notice that English words resemble words with the same or similar meaning in other languages? Was English always as it is now; was it always pronounced as at present; did the words always bear the same meanings as they now do? How did English words come to mean just what they do? How is it that the same English word may have many different meanings and shades of meaning?

Now, concerning these, and many other questions of a similar kind, considerable curiosity exists fairly widely, even among those who are sometimes referred to as 'general readers'.

It may be possible, to some extent, to gratify such natural and praiseworthy curiosity where it exists, and perhaps even to stimulate it among some of those who have never felt it.

It may be asserted that to understand something of the ancient relationships of words, of the gradual changes of form that befall them through the centuries, and of the well-nigh incredible developments of meaning—now in the way of expansion, now by a process of restriction and specialization—to understand something of all this, I say, adds enormously to the interest with which we speak, hear, or read our native language. It is not extravagant to say

that such knowledge opens up new worlds of thought and speculation.

An Etymological Dictionary, rightly used, may guide on to the right path. In this Dictionary no little pains have been devoted to etymologies. In fact these are discussed here more fully than is usual in works of its size. A large number of words are cited from many languages, and changes of meaning are often discussed at some length. The justification for giving so large a collection of words from languages more or less remote from, but ultimately related to, English is that often only in this way is it possible to understand how a meaning has developed from another which at the first glance appears to have no connexion with it.

It is no doubt to be lamented, but it is a fact, that there is no royal road to Etymology, any more than to any other branch of knowledge. Etymology is not an easy science—the 'wayfaring man', even though he be not 'a fool', is very liable 'to err therein', unless he is willing to take a certain amount of trouble to understand what it is desired to do, and the means by which we attempt to accomplish this.

The Meaning of Etymology

The 'etymology' of a word means, briefly, an *account of the history of its form*, as far back as we can get it, and an account of the *chief developments of meaning* which it has undergone.

To those unacquainted with the science of philology and its methods, and with the historical relationships of languages, the treatment of the etymologies of words displayed in this, or any other Dictionary which deals with the subject, is apt to be puzzling and confusing. The difficulty can unfortunately only be removed by a more or less thorough training in methods and studies which the 'general reader' cannot be assumed to possess. Nor is it possible in a short introduction such as this to supply an equivalent to such a training.

On the other hand it is necessary to make an attempt, by stating, as clearly as may be, certain elementary facts about English and its relation to other languages, to get rid of some of the worst misunderstandings to which our treatment of etymologies might give rise, and prevent this from completely misleading the uninitiated.

Ancestry of English

The oldest form of English which we find recorded in written documents is about 1200 years old. This is known as *Anglo-Saxon*, or more generally, among students of the subject, as *Old English*. But Old English does not suddenly appear as an isolated phenomenon in these islands. We know that this language was brought here in the 5th century

by various tribes from Northern Germany, known as Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. It turns out that there are several languages on the Continent, also preserved in ancient documents, which so closely resemble Old English (O.E.) in vocabulary, grammatical forms, and in the structure of the sentence, that we cannot escape the conviction that these tongues must have had a close affinity to O.E., in fact that all of them had a common ancestor. This group of related languages, O.E., Old Frisian, Old Saxon, Old High German, represented at the present time by Frisian, Dutch, and various other Low German dialects, and Modern German, is known as the West Germanic (W. Gmc.) group, and their immediate common ancestor, which survives only in its offspring, as West Germanic.

But this is not all. There are two other groups of languages the individuals of which are as closely related to each other as those of the W. Gmc. group, and which further have a remoter, though unmistakable resemblance to this.

One of these groups consists of the Scandinavian languages (Icelandic, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish), old forms of which are also preserved in written documents, going back, in some cases, well over 1000 years. This is called the North Germanic (N. Gmc.) group. Yet a third pair of old languages bearing marked resemblance to both W. and N. Gmc. existed. The more important is that of the Goths, preserved in fairly copious documents (a translation of the New Testament, and parts of the Old, and a commentary). This translation was made by the Gothic Bishop Wulfila in the 4th century. Another language of this type, that of the Vandals, is represented only in a number of personal names occurring in Latin and other manuscripts. We call the group to which Gothic and Vandalic belong the East Germanic (E. Gmc.) group. These three groups, the N. Gmc., the E. Gmc., and the W. Gmc., are all derived from a common ancestor which we call Primitive Germanic (Pr. Gmc.).

Now the first thing to decide about an English word is whether it is a pure *native word*, or whether it came into our language by borrowing from some other language, and is what is called a *loan-word*. If a word is not native, we endeavour to find out whence it came, when it passed into English, and all that is discoverable about it in the language from which we, or our ancestors, took it.

If, for instance, we look up the word *tooth*, we find that in O.E. it was written *tōþ* (*þ = th*), and that words closely resembling it are recorded in all the W. Gmc. languages, which shows that it was not only a native English word but also a common W. Gmc. word. But we shall find that other words with the same meaning and very similar forms are mentioned, from Old Norse and from Gothic. This shows that *tooth* goes back not merely to W. Gmc., but that it was part of the common stock of Pr. Gmc. words, since otherwise cognate forms could not occur in both E. and N. Gmc. groups which were differentiated from each other and from W. Gmc. centuries before the oldest records.

Even this is not the end of the story. In our account of the word *tooth*, a number of forms are included from several other languages, which all bear even to the layman's eye some faint resemblance to the English word in form, and which all have the same meaning. The words are Sanscrit *danta*, Greek *odont*, Latin *dent*, Welsh *dant*. One important difference between these and the oldest English form *tōþ* is that the latter lacks *n*, which the others all have. Yes, but it appears that Gothic, the most primitive type of Gmc. known to us, has *tunþus*, and O.H.G., like

English a W. Gmc. tongue, had *zand*. Now from what we know of the sound changes peculiar to O.E. and O.H.G. we are able to say with certainty that both these old forms are derived from a W. Gmc. **tanþ-*, which has had a different development in O.E. and O.H.G. respectively.

The Ancient Mother Tongue and its Descendants

What about the other words, in Greek, Latin, and so on? What have they to do with English and Gmc.? The answer is that Gmc. is derived from a still older language which we call Primitive Aryan, or simply Aryan, a fruitful mother of languages and families of languages. Just as N., E., and W. Gmc. were all descended from, or differentiated out of, Pr. Gmc., so was Pr. Gmc. itself sprung, together with other great families of speech, from Pr. Aryan.

This ancient Mother Tongue, spoken it may be in Northern or Eastern Europe, it may be in Asia, was, at some very remote period, split up into a number of dialects each of which in its turn (if it survived) became the ancestor of another family of speech, the speakers of which wandered farther and farther afield from the original 'home' or 'cradle', and carried Aryan speech in its various forms over the greater part of Europe into Persia, and into large parts of India. Of these forms Pr. Gmc. was one. The chief others were: (1) the Indian branch, i.e. Sanscrit, the ancient sacred language of India, and later Indian languages; (2) old and later Persian; (3) Balto-Slavic, which split into Baltic, represented by Lithuanian, Lettish, and Old Prussian on the one hand, and the Slavonic tongues on the other, represented by Old Slavonic, and the present Russian, Polish, Czech, and Serbian &c.; (4) the Hellenic branch, which includes the various Greek dialects; (5) Italic: Latin, and the other old dialects of Italy; (6) Celtic, including ancient Gaulish, and the ancient languages of Ireland, Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, the Isle of Man, and the modern descendants of these. Breton is an offshoot of Welsh. Cornish, of which some literary remains are preserved, died out, as a spoken language, about 200 years ago.

The gist of this statement may be put in the form of a rough genealogical tree which makes it easy to see at a glance the relation between English and the other chief languages of the Aryan family. This is attempted in the table on p. ix.

It has been noted that great differences often exist in the various families between forms of what we allege to be originally the same word, that is, one fully cognate, and derived from the same ancestral form in Pr. Aryan. These differences are due to tendencies which existed in each family to develop along different lines. This means that the speakers of the various primitive communities, who all started with the same language, as they drew further and further away from each other in their migrations, gradually came to pronounce the same original sounds, vowels and consonants, and otherwise alter their language, in different ways. These differences were accentuated with time and distance, until it is often very difficult at first to discern the original identity of a word under the very different forms it has assumed in widely separated families. It is the business of philologists to discover and formulate the laws of change as they affect every sound among the various groups of languages, so as to be able to recognize identity in spite of difference.

Regularity of Change in Speech Sounds

We soon learn to appreciate the truth of the great principle which guides all philological study, that a given sound is always changed, in one and the same dialect, in the same way, under the same conditions. Thus, for instance, in Gk. initial *s* becomes the aspirate *h*, and between vowels is lost altogether; in Celtic initial *p* is lost; in Sanscrit, Pers., and the Balto-Slav. families a sound which appears as *k* in Gk. and Lat. and as *h* in Gmc., develops into the sound of *sh* or *s*; Gmc. has changed old *p*, *t*, *k* into *f*, *þ*, *h* respectively, and so on. These changes take place everywhere, in all words containing these sounds, not in only isolated words here and there.

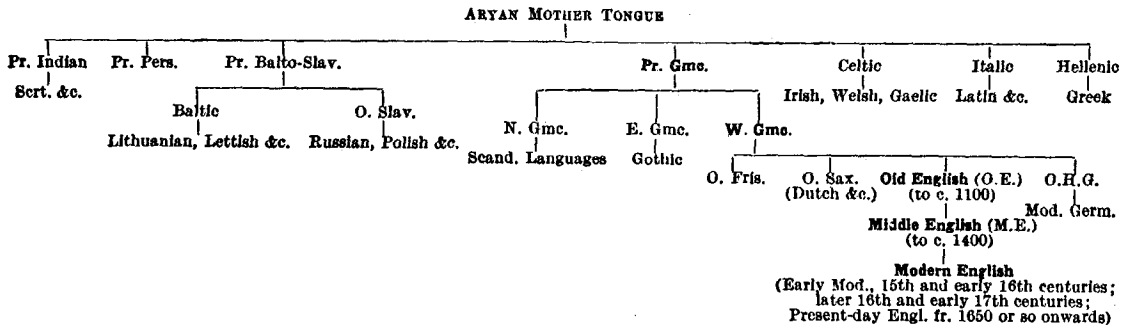
It often happens that in seeking for cognates of an English word outside Gmc. we are unable to find a word completely identical with it, but only a base, or as it used to be called, a 'root'. Thus *food*, O.E. *fōda*, a Gmc. word, has no complete cognate elsewhere, but part of the word (that corresponding to *fō* from Aryan *pā-*) is found, with various different formative elements, in Lat. *pā-bulum*, 'food', *pā-nis*, 'bread', *pā-scere*, 'to feed', drive to pasture, *pā-slor*, 'shepherd'—originally 'the feeder' (of sheep &c.)—

into English, and will be found under *rheum* in the Dictionary.

English Borrowings from Other Tongues

The beginner in etymology must be warned against the error of supposing that when a number of words are given from other Gmc. languages, to illustrate the history of a native English word, it is suggested that the English word is derived from any of these. They are quoted as sister forms, sprung from a common parent, and they enable us to reconstruct the parent in the light of the known laws of sound change, and further, sometimes to observe different shades of meaning developed in the several languages. Similarly, when remoter cognates are cited from Sert., Gk., Lat., or Slav., none of these is the ancestor of Gmc., but a sister form descended from a common mother. This should have become clear from the foregoing remarks and illustrations.

But it is time to turn to borrowings, or loan-words in English. Throughout her history our language has borrowed from many sources. The chief of these are Latin, the great culture language of the Mediaeval Western world,



pāstura, 'pasture', which words are further discussed in the Dictionary under their English forms *pabulum*, *pastor*, *pasture*, which have all been borrowed straight from Latin. Again, the word *stream*, O.E. *strēam*, a Gmc. word, is cognate with Gk. *hrēein*, 'to flow' (or, as it is sometimes spelt, *rhēein*), which in Aryan must have been **srew-ein*. We know that *sr-* becomes *hr-* in Gk. and also that in Gmc. it becomes *str-*. We know further that between vowels *w* disappears altogether in Gk., but becomes *u*, a vowel, when followed by another consonant. Hence we are able to assert that the Gk. word *hrēuma*, 'a flow, flux', is cognate with *hrēein*, and that its earlier form must have been **srew-ma*. Now this would become **streum* in Gmc. This is very much like the Pr. Gmc. form from which O.E. *strēam* is descended, but it is not quite the same, for the Gmc. ancestor of this was **straum*, and it is preserved unaltered in O.H.G. *straum*. Now this would be **sroum-* in Aryan, and we therefore have to assume two original Aryan types, this, and **sreum-* the ancestor of Gk. *hrēuma*. But it is known that in Aryan the diphthongs *eu* and *ou* interchanged in the same base, by virtue of a principle known as Gradation which we cannot discuss here. Further, a third possible form was *u* with loss of the first element of the diphthong, so that we might predict a third form of our base, **sru-* or, with the *-m* suffix, **sru-m*. The former is actually found in the Sanscrit *sru*, 'to flow'. This form also establishes the primitive *sr-* which became *str-* in Gmc., *hr-* in Gk., but remained unchanged in the Indian branch of the Aryan language. The Gk. word *hrēuma* was later borrowed in Latin as *rheuma*, whence it passed into French, and thence

Norse through the Scandinavian invaders of England, and French, partly in a special form through the Normans, partly by many later borrowings from Central French. Some Latin words came into English through popular speech in the Continental period, and are found in O.E. and the other old Gmc. languages (see *street* and *(tur-)nip* in the Dictionary). Others came in later from Celtic speakers of Latin in Britain (see *provost*), and yet more through the influence of the Roman Church in Anglo-Saxon England (see *Pope*, *Mass*, *rule*, *disciple* &c.).

Throughout the Middle Ages Latin continued to influence English, many words coming from the Latin Vulgate as well as from profane sources; Latin authors were read, and Latin was used as a living language among the learned in speaking and writing. How readily words direct from Latin become naturalized in English is shown by the hundreds, some commonly current, some purely the possession of the learned, with such endings as *-ate*, *-ation*, *-ion*, *-tude*, *-ance*, *-ence*, and so on, and by others, equally numerous, with the prefixes *ab-*, *ad-*, *al-* &c., *de-*, *con-* &c., *ex-*, *in-*, *pre-*, *pro-*. It is the words with these and other Latin prefixes and suffixes which contribute to make any English Dictionary that is at all complete so extremely bulky.

Latin and Romance Words in English

Latin words borrowed since the Anglo-Saxon period are almost entirely derived from literary sources. In this they differ from a large part of the French words in English, a

considerable portion of which, especially those borrowed from Norman French during the three centuries that followed the Conquest, were derived from direct contact with French speakers—Normans—in England. The Normans were originally Norsemen who had settled in Neustria, later Normandy, early in the 10th century, and had acquired French. It is perhaps desirable to say something of the origin of French and its nearest linguistic connexions. French belongs to what are known as the Romance or Neo-Latin languages. These are all derived from popular forms of Latin as it was spoken in the various provinces of the far-flung Empire of ancient Rome. The principal other members of this family are Italian—in many respects nearest to Latin—Spanish, Portuguese, Provençal. Most of these tongues have given words to English at one time or another, though none in such numbers as French.

In giving the etymology of a word from French or any other Romance language, we indicate the Latin word whence it comes, and discuss the etymology of the latter. It naturally often happens that the same Latin base appears both as the ancestor of a word of French origin occurring in English, and again in a word borrowed direct from Latin. Thus *faith* comes from a Norman-French form of Lat. *fides*, 'faith', and this word is also the basis of *fidelity* from Lat. *fidelitāt-*. Again *royal* is pure French in form, and comes from Lat. *regalis*, but this latter word is also found in English, almost unaltered, as *regal*. The full etymology of *royal* will therefore be found under *regal*.

Again it will often happen that a word occurs in three or even four different forms in English—e.g. *hospital* direct from Low Latin *hospitale*, 'a large building, a palace' (a by-form of this is *spital*); *hostel* from Old French, with the -s still preserved; *hotel* from Modern French.

A French word when traced to Latin may be found to have remoter cognates in the Gmc. languages, one of which cognates may occur in English. Thus *flower* in Middle English (Chaucer &c.) and O. French is *flour*, which is derived from Lat. *flōrem*, accusative form of *flōs*, 'a flower', and this is found again in *floral* derived straight from Lat. *floralis*. But the Lat. *flōs* is cognate with O.E. *blōstma*, which survives in English as *blossom*, and also with O.E. *blōwan*, 'to bloom, flourish', Mod. Engl. to *blow*. A further Gmc. cognate is O.N. *blóm*, 'a flower', not found in O.E., but borrowed later from Norse, and surviving as the common word *bloom*. As a rule, before we can establish the remote relations of a French word with a native English word, we must inquire into the ancestral Latin form of the former, and then discuss the Gmc. and English cognates with this Latin word.

Scandinavian Influence on English Vocabulary

Lastly, among the most copious sources of our borrowings, the Scandinavian languages must be mentioned. English speakers were brought into direct contact with Danes and Norsemen (who, as we saw, spoke a North Gmc. language) as a result of repeated raids carried out by these pirates, and the ultimate settlement by them of large tracts of England under King Alfred. Old Danish and Norse were in many ways very close to Old English, and a considerable part of the vocabulary was common to both peoples, although the pronunciation was different. The interpenetration of English with Norse words was tolerably thorough, and many words thus derived appear from the 12th century onwards to be firmly established, and to be

in process of gradually ousting the old native words. Only a very few out of several hundred can be mentioned here. How vital these words have become to us is shown by the following, all of which are indispensable in ordinary life: *dairy, egg, husband, skin, sky, ill, weak, die* (verb), *thrive, give, get, take, raise, split, though, they, them*. A curious case of Scandinavian influence is seen in *dream*, a pure English word so far as its form goes, derived from O.E. *drēam*, but its present meaning, 'vision', is pure Scandinavian. The Old Norse word is *draumr*, which had the same sense as the Modern English word. But the English word, in O.E. and early Middle English, meant 'noise, cheerful noise, revelry; happiness', and never by any chance had the sense of 'vision'. The word was gradually influenced in meaning by the Old Norse word—its exact cognate—and entirely lost its old senses. (See discussion of the development of meaning under *dream* in the Dictionary.)

Other Sources of the English Vocabulary

In addition to those, the most important elements in the English vocabulary, already referred to, there are large numbers of words, borrowed at different periods, and used with varying degrees of frequency, adopted from languages spoken in every continent. Many of these words come to us from literary sources, many others, especially philosophic, scientific, and medical terms, are taken straight, in modern times, to supply the needs of ever-extending knowledge and new philosophic conceptions, from the ancient tongues of Greece and Rome. Many others have been adopted as a result of direct contact between Englishmen and the inhabitants of every corner of the globe, to express objects, institutions, or customs familiar in the life of those far regions to which the adventurous spirit of our people has led them.

It is impossible, in a brief Introduction such as this, to go in detail into these varied elements of our vocabulary. It must suffice to specify as sources such historical facts as the long British occupation of India, and the existence of large classes of military and civil officers of British blood who, after service in India, return to their own country; the colonization of North America by the English in the 17th century, and the later contact between ourselves and the citizens of the American Republic; the colonization of Canada, of South Africa, of Australia.

Nothing is more remarkable in the history of language than the changes undergone in the meanings of words. One reason, in discussing etymologies, for collecting together a large number of cognates from various languages is that often by this means alone is it possible to discover the fundamental meaning which underlies them all, from which all the varied senses have sprung, and to trace the manner in which the meanings have branched out in innumerable directions. One has only to look through the various cognate words and their meanings brought together in this dictionary under the words *pax, pay, pacify, pale* (I.), *page* (II.), and *fair* (II.), and consider the well-established relationships between all these words, both in form and meaning, together with the various shades of meaning of *pay* and *fair* developed in English itself, in order to realize what is possible in the way of variation in sense. Here we start apparently with the material sense of 'joining; fitting together', and upon this theme the human mind has played, using the old words to express now a material, now a non-material conception; now extending, now narrowing the connotation, twisting and turning in every imaginable and unimaginable direction.

And yet, at the end of it all, we are able to recognize a unifying principle pervading the whole, so that the links in the chain of meaning are never entirely lost, or are at least recoverable.

One of the charms of etymology is that it reveals the

human mind at work, for ever striving to express new ideas and shades of meaning, adapting and readapting material which is as old as man himself, so that it shall reflect the modes of thought, the needs and hopes, the occupations and habits, of every age and of every manner of life.

II

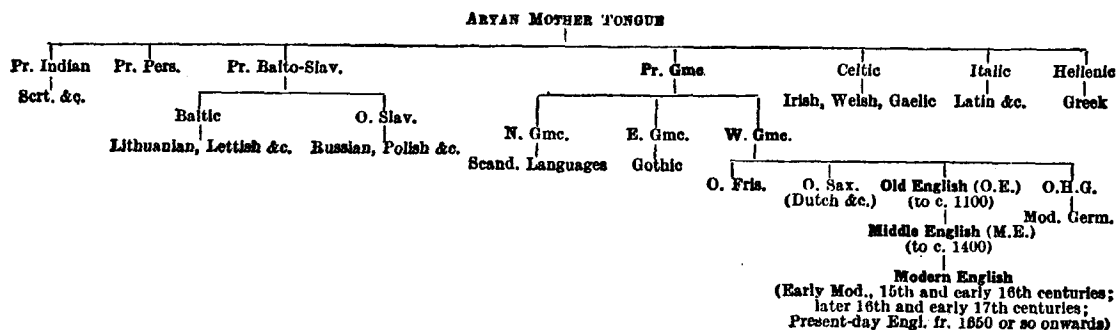
By M. S. SERJEANTSON

A—The Sounds of Primitive Aryan, and the Characteristic Treatment of these in the Several Chief Families of Aryan Languages

FROM the Primitive Aryan Mother Tongue there sprang, as was stated above, p. viii, several daughter languages, each of which became, by a natural process of differentiation, a fruitful mother of languages and dialects. Among the members of each of the communities into which the original Aryan community was broken up, there gradually arose different habits of pronunciation, and tendencies to change the primitive sounds in different ways. The table of the Aryan languages and their relationships is repeated here for convenience of reference.

Sound Changes which occur in the Derived Families of Languages

I. INDIAN GROUP. This includes (a) the Sanscrit of the ancient sacred writings (including the Vedas, the oldest part of which dates from the 10th or 11th century B.C.), and (b) Classical and Epic Sanscrit, of the later literature. Sanscrit developed into the two dialects of Prākṛit and Pāli; from the latter came many of the modern Indian dialects, including Hindustani and Bengali.



We then proceed to summarize the differences in the treatment of the original sounds which are most characteristic of the several families of languages.

The Sounds of Primitive Aryan

According to modern philologists, who have made a hypothetical reconstruction, the Aryan Mother Tongue had the following sounds:—consonants: stops, *b, d, g, gʷ, p, t, k, kʷ*; these with aspiration: *bh, gh, ph, kh* &c.; the trill *r*; the divided consonant *l*; the nasals *m, n, ŋ*; the open consonants *j, w, s*, and perhaps *ʃ*. The distinction between *g* and *gʷ*, and *k* and *kʷ*, lies in the fact that the latter of each pair (*g, k*) is pronounced with the tongue farther back in the mouth than the former (cp. the consonants of *go, cow* (*g, k*), with those of *give, key* (*gʷ, kʷ*)); *gʷ, kʷ* are pronounced like *g, k*, but with the lips protruded. The vowels were: *i, e, a, o, u, ə*; diphthongs: *ei, ai, oi*; *eu, au, ou*; the same with the first element long: *ēi, āi* &c.; *ai, au*. There were also syllabic *l, n, m, r*, usually written by philologists *l̥, n̥, m̥, r̥* (cp. the final syllables of *bottle, mutton* = [bɒtl̥, mʌtn̥]). These occurred only in unstressed syllables, and arose from the reduction or elimination of the full vowel which preceded *l, m* &c.

Sanscrit levelled Aryan *ā, ē, ī* under *ā*; *i* and *ū* remained; *ə* became *i* or *a*. Cp. Sert. *bhārati*, 'he bears' (fr. **bher-*, see *bear* (I)); Sert. *ādham*, 'I put' (fr. **dhēm-*, see *fact*); Sert. *aštāu*, 'eight', fr. **okt-*, see *eight*; Sert. *sthitāḥ*, 'standing', fr. **stō-*, see *state* (I). The diphthongs are monophthongized, *ei, ai, oi* becoming *ē, ēi*, and *eu, au, ou* becoming *ō*. Cp. Sert. *ēdhaḥ*, 'firewood', fr. **aidh-*, see *aedile*; *ēhi*, 'he goes', fr. **ei-*, see *itinerate*; Sert. *ōjaḥ*, 'strength', fr. **aug-*, see *auction*; *yōḥ*, 'safety', fr. **jou-*, see *jus*.

Sert. retains the Aryan lip and point stops, both aspirated and unaspirated. But if two aspirated consonants occur in the same word, the first loses its aspiration. This is known as Grassman's Law; a similar process occurs in Greek. Cp. Sert. *bandhati*, 'he binds', fr. **bhendh-*, see *bind* (I). The lip-modified back stops, *kʷ, gʷ, gʷh*, are levelled under the full back stops *k, g, gh*, becoming respectively *k* (*c*), *g* or *j*, *gh* or *h*; cp. Sert. *stighnati*, 'he climbs', fr. **stigh-*, see *sty* (I); Sert. *gharmāḥ*, 'glow', fr. **gʷh-*, see *warm*. But Aryan *kʷ, gʷ* become respectively *č, j* in Sert. before front vowels; e.g. Aryan **kʷetwar*, 'four', becomes in Sert. *čatur-* (cp. Lat. *quatuor*, where the initial consonant has undergone little change); see *four*. The Aryan back-advanced stops, *kʰ, gʰ*, undergo a characteristic change in Primitive Indian

(similar to that in Iranian and Balto-Slavonic), by which *k* becomes *ś* = [ʃ], *g* becomes *j* = [dʒ], *gʰ* becomes *h*; cp. Sert. *śatām*, Lat. *centum*, see **hundred**; Sert. *jānāmi*, 'I know', fr. **gʷnō*, see **know**. Aryan *j* and *w* remain in Sert. (transcribed as *y*, *v*), as in Sert. *yunākti*, 'harnesses', cp. Lat. *jungere*, see **join** (I.); *vēdaś*, 'I know', see **Veda**. Nasal consonants and *r* usually remain in Sert. Aryan *l* often appears as *r*. Thus Sert. *rōkāś*, 'bright', is cognate with Gk. *leukós*, 'white', and Lat. *lux*, 'light', see **leuco-**. Sert. *bhrāj-*, 'to shine', and Gk. *phlégein*, 'to burn', are both fr. an Aryan base **bhlē-* &c., 'to burn'; see **flagrant**.

2. **IRANIAN** developed into Old Bactrian (East Iranian) and Old Persian (West Iranian, extant in cuneiform inscriptions). The former is the language of the Zoroastrian sacred writings known as the Zend-Avesta; the latter is the ancestor of the modern Persian dialects, of Afghan &c.

The vowel-system of Iranian resembles that of Sanscrit, except that the Idg. diphthongs are not monophthongized. Iranian has *ai* for the *i*-diphthongs (Idg. *ai*, *oi*, *ei*), *au* for the *u*-diphthongs (Idg. *au*, *ou*, *eu*); these two, *ai* and *au*, remain in Persian, but become respectively *ae* or *oi*, *au* or *ou*, in Old Bactrian (thus Zend has *dvaētha*, 'menace', fr. Iranian **dwaī-*, fr. Aryan **dwei-*; cp. Gk. *dei-nós*, 'terrible', and see **dire**). Iranian eventually loses the Idg. aspirated stops, *bh*, *dh* becoming *b*, *d*. It has, however, *ś*, *s* for Idg. *k* (back-advanced) as in Sert., *z* for Idg. *g*, *gʰ* (see **quiet** (II.)).

3. The **BALTO-SLAVONIC** group includes (A) the Baltic dialects of Old Prussian (since the 17th century no longer spoken), Lithuanian, and Lettish; (B) the Slavonic dialects: (a) Russian and its varieties; (b) Polish and Czech; (c) Bulgarian, Serbian, and Slovenian. The oldest form of Bulgarian is that extant in a 9th-century translation of the Gospels; this form is sometimes called Old Church Slavonic. As regards the vowels of the Balto-Slavonic dialects, it should be noted that Idg. *ā* is rounded to *ō*, but *o* unrounded to *a* (cp. Lith. *dalis*, 'part', fr. Aryan **dol-*, see under **daedal**); *ō* is diphthongized to *uo* (written *ū*; e.g. Lith. *jūkas*, 'jest', fr. Aryan **jōk-*, cognate with Lat. *jocus*, 'joke', fr. **jōk-*, see **joke**); the symbol *~* over a vowel denotes length. The Idg. diphthongs are not monophthongized, *ei*, *ai*, *oi* appearing respectively as *ei*, *ai*, *oi*, or being levelled under *ē* (= [ie]); *eu*, *au*, *ou* become *au* (as in Lith. *ausra*, 'red of dawn', cognate with *aurora*, q.v.). In Slavonic, Idg. *a* and *o* both appear as *o*; *ō* is unrounded to *a*; *y* (= [ȳ]) represents Idg. *ū*; the symbol *ī* is used for a Slavonic raised *i*, *ū* for a raised *o*; the diphthongs are monophthongized, *ei*, *ai*, *oi* to *ē* (apparently [ē]), *eu*, *au*, *ou* to *u* (cp. O. Slav. *uši*, 'ears', fr. Aryan base **ōus-*, 'ear', see **ear**). Both the Baltic and Slavonic groups keep the Aryan lip and point stops, but these when aspirated lose their aspiration. Both branches develop *s* or *z* for the back-advanced stops (*k*, *g* &c.), resembling in this respect Sanscrit and Iranian (see **hound**, fr. Aryan **kʷm-*, and cognate with Lith. *szun-*, Russ. *su-ka*, 'bitch'). Baltic usually levels the full back stops (*k*, *g*, *gh*) and the lip-modified back stops (*kʷ*, *gʷ*, *gʷh*) under *k*, *g*, *g*, but Slavonic has in certain forms *č*, *ž* (*č*, *ž*) instead of *k*, *g*, *g*, for Idg. *k*, *g*, *gh*, and *kʷ*, *gʷ*, *gʷh*. (Thus O. Slav. *četyre*, 'four', represents Aryan **kʷetwōr*, see **four**; and O. Slav. *žltūti*, 'yellow', is fr. the Aryan base **gʰhel-*, **gʰhl-* &c., see **gold**.)

4. **HELLENIC** comprises three chief groups: (a) Ionic (including also Euboean and Attic); (b) Achaean (with Aeolian, Thessalian, and Boeotian; Arcadian, Cyprian, and Pamphylian); (c) Doric (including Laconian, Corinthian, and others, and the North-Western dialects of Epirus, Locris, Phocis, Achaia &c.). The history of Greek can be traced

from the 8th century B.C. By the end of the 4th century B.C., Attic had become in some degree a 'standard' language in all parts of Greece, and also in Asia Minor; it is the ancestor of the modern Greek dialects.

One of the chief features of Attic phonology, and one which is shared also by the rest of the Ionic group, is its change of Idg. *ā* to *ē* (as for instance in Gk. *mētēr*, 'mother', fr. Aryan **mā-*, see **mother**). Otherwise, most of the Aryan vowels remain in Greek; *ū*, however, becomes [ȳ] (written *u*) in the Ionic-Attic group. The diphthongs were preserved for a time, but later *ei* became [ē] and, perhaps by the 3rd century B.C., [i]; while *ou* by about the 5th century B.C. became *ū*.

Idg. *w*, written *Ϝ* (digamma) in early Gk., disappears before vowels (cp. Gk. *ēpos*, 'a word', earlier **wep-*, for **wekʷ-*, 'to speak', see **epos**; Gk. *aura*, earlier **awer-*, 'air', see **aura**), or becomes an aspirate (see **Hesperian**); before consonants it becomes the vowel *u*. Idg. *j* becomes an aspirate ('rough breathing') or *z* (see Gk. *hōra* for **jōra*, 'hour', under **hour**; see also **zeugma**); Idg. *s* becomes an aspirate which remains initially, but otherwise usually disappears before vowels, and before *j*, *w*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*. Idg. lip and point stops remain in Greek, the voiced aspirated stops are unvoiced, e.g. *bh* > *ph*, *dh* > *th*; for instance, Gk. *thūmós*, 'breath', is fr. Aryan **dhū-*; see **fume**. As in Sanscrit, an initial aspirated stop loses its aspiration if the next syllable begins with an aspirated stop (see **bind**). Back-advanced and full back stops are levelled in Greek: *k*, *kʰ* both become *k*; *g*, *gʰ* > *g*; *gh*, *gʰh* > *kh* (χ) with unvoicing as in the case of *bh*, *dh*. Cp. Gk. *khandánein*, 'to hold', fr. Aryan **ghe(n)d-* &c., see **get**. The Aryan lip-modified back stops, *kʷ*, *gʷ*, *gʷh*, (a) become respectively *p*, *b*, *ph*, before back vowels (other than *u*), *i* + vowel, or consonants (other than *j*); cp. Gk. *poindē*, fr. **kʷoin-*, see **penal**; (b) *kʷ* > *t*, *gʷ* > *d*, *gʷh* > *th* before front vowels (see Gk. *téttares* under **quadri-**); (c) *kʷ* > *k* before *j*, *u*; *gʷ* > *z* before *j*, *g* before *u*; cp. Gk. *zōis*, fr. **gʷjō-*, see **zoo-**. Idg. syllabic *m*, *n* become *a* in Greek before a consonant, so that the Aryan unstressed negative prefix *n̥* becomes Gk. *a-*, corresponding to Gmc. *un-* (see under **un-**).

5. **ITALIC**. This comprises two main branches: (a) Oscan, Umbrian, and Sabellian, the last including such dialects as Sabine, Volscian, and Faliscan; all these are known chiefly from inscriptions, and from forms quoted by Latin grammarians; (b) Latin, which developed on the one hand into the literary language of the classical period, and on the other into the popular, spoken dialect known as Low or Vulgar Latin, which was eventually carried by soldier and merchant over the whole of the Roman Empire. By the end of the 6th century A.D. Low Latin had split up into the so-called Romance dialects which now include French, Provençal, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Roumanian, Wallachian, and Rhaeto-Romanic.

The Aryan simple vowels are for the most part preserved in Latin, but *e* tends to become *i* before a nasal (see **imbricate**, fr. earlier **embh-*), and *e* becomes *o* before *w* (written *v*; see **novel**); the group **swe* becomes *suo-*, *so-* (see Lat. *soror* under **sister**), and **we* becomes *wo* (*vo*) before *l* or *m* followed by a back vowel (see *volo* under **volition**). The Idg. diphthongs remained at first in Italic, and later developed as follows: *ei* > *i* (see Lat. *dicere*, 'to tell', under **diction**), *ai* > *ae* (see *laevo-*, earlier **laiwo-*), *oi* > *oe* > *ū* (see **mural**), *vi* > *ai* > *ae* (see **secular**, fr. **soik-*), *eu* > *ou* > *ū* (see *dūcere*, 'to lead', under **duke**); *au* remained in classical Latin, but became *ō* in Low Latin (see under **cloisonné**), *ou* > *ū* (see *lucus*, Lat. *lūc-*, 'light', fr. earlier **louk-*). Idg. syllabic *m*, *n*, > *em*, *en* in Latin (as in *densus*, 'thick', fr. Aryan **dṇ-t-*, whence also Gk.

dasis, 'thick', see *dasy*). The non-aspirated stops, *p*, *t*, *k*, *b*, *d*, *g*, remain in Latin, and *k*, *g* become *k*, *g*. The aspirated voiced stops change considerably: *bh* > *ph* > *f* initially, *b* medially (see *future*, *nebula*); *dh* > *th* > *þ*, which develops further to (a) *f* initially (as for instance in the Aryan base **dhak*- &c., 'to place', Lat. *fac-ere*, 'to do', see *fact*), (b) *b* medially before and after *r*, and before *w* or *l* (see *verb*, earlier **werdh*-), (c) *d* under other conditions (see *media*). Oscan &c. had *f* for Idg. *dh* in all these positions. Idg. *g* *h* usually became *h* initially (as in Lat. *hortus*, 'garden', Aryan **g^hhort*-, see *hortus siccus*), but *f* before *u* (see *futile*); medially, *g* *h* usually became *h* (see *vehicle*). Idg. *gh* became *h* (see *host* (I.)); *g^{wh}* > *f* initially, *gu* after a nasal; otherwise, *v* medially (cp. Lat. *ninguit*, 'it snows', *niv-em*, 'snow', and see *snow*). It should also be noted that Idg. *s* became Italic *z* between vowels, and this became Latin *r* (see Lat. *soror*, under *sister*, and cp. also Lat. *altāria*, 'altar', fr. **alt-ara* for **alt-āsa*, see *altar*).

6. CELTIC has three main divisions: (A) Gaulish, which was supplanted in ancient Gaul by Low Latin at the beginning of the present era, surviving only in inscriptions, and in personal names and loan-words in Latin writings (see, for instance, *palfrey*); (B) Brythonic, including Welsh, Cornish, and Breton; (C) Gaelic, including Scotch and Irish Gaelic, and Manx.

The Celtic phonological developments are too complicated to summarize briefly. Some of the changes of Primitive Celtic will be seen in the Tables. It may be mentioned, however, (a) that Idg. *ē* becomes *i* (see Celtic *rig*-, 'king', under *rich*); (b) that Idg. initial *w* appears as *f* in Old Irish (see O. Ir. *fol*, 'length', under *vast*), *v* in Gaulish, *gw* in Brythonic; (c) that Idg. *k^w* becomes *k* (c) in Gaelic (as in O. Ir. *celhir*, 'four', Aryan **k^wetwor*, q.v. under *four*) but *p* in Brythonic and Gaulish; (d) that Idg. *g^w* becomes *b* (see O. Ir. *biad*, 'means of life', fr. **g^wī*, under *vital*); (e) that Idg. *p* disappears initially and between vowels (cp. O. Ir. *iasc*, 'fish', with Lat. *piscis*, q.v. under *fish*).

7. GERMANIC. The Primitive Germanic language became differentiated into three branches, called, from the relative positions of the areas in which they were spoken, East, North, and West Germanic.

East Germanic included the dialects of the Goths, Vandals, Heruli, and Gepidae, all now dead languages, and mostly surviving only in Place and Personal Names in Greek and Latin writings. Gothic, however, is represented by a translation of parts of the Bible, made in the 4th century by the West Gothic bishop Wulfila, and by part of a commentary on the Gospel of St. John. These are now extant only in 6th-century manuscripts, but they constitute (except for some Scandinavian runic inscriptions) the earliest recorded form of any of the Germanic dialects. An East Gothic dialect, Crimean Gothic, survived for some centuries, but all we know of it is a list of some sixty or seventy words taken down in the 16th century by a certain Flemish envoy of the Emperor, O. G. von Busbecq.

North Germanic in its oldest recorded form is known as Old Norse, represented by runic inscriptions of which the oldest are of the 3rd and 4th centuries (from Denmark and Schleswig). By the end of the Viking period (c. 700-1050), the language had begun to be differentiated into East Scandinavian, including Swedish and Danish, and West Scandinavian, comprising Norwegian and Icelandic.

West Germanic includes: (a) Old English, the earliest records of which are of the late 7th century; (b) Old Frisian, from the 14th century; (c) Old Saxon, formerly spoken in the area from the Harz Mountains to the North Sea between the Elbe and Zuider Zee, known from the 9th century; (d) Old Low Franconian, from which Modern Dutch and Flemish are mainly derived; (e) Old High German, the speech of Central and Southern Germany and parts of Switzerland and Austria, and the ancestor of the Modern German dialects; (f) the language of the Lombards, which is known chiefly from proper names, and which has long been extinct.

Primitive Germanic was distinguished from the Aryan mother-tongue, and from its sister languages, Celtic, Italic, Hellenic &c., partly by vowel changes and partly by a series of striking consonantal changes, affecting first the aspirated and non-aspirated stops, and known as *the First Sound-shifting*. The developments involved must have been spread over several centuries, and were for the most part complete probably a century or more before the beginning of this era. The Primitive Germanic vowel changes were somewhat later. Gothic resembles Primitive Germanic more closely than any other dialect, and forms quoted from Gothic illustrate the first developments from Indo-Germanic more clearly than do forms from Old English, Old High German, Old Norse &c., obscured as these are by many subsequent changes. (It will be seen, however, from the Tables that Gothic does in certain respects differ strikingly from Primitive Germanic.) The most characteristic Pr. Gmc. vowel changes are: (a) Idg. *o* > *a* (e.g. Goth. *days*, fr. Aryan **ahag^wh*-, see *day*; see also the Gmc. words under *host* (I., eight)); (b) Idg. *a* > *ō* (see O.E. *mōdor*, Aryan **māt*-, under *mother*); (c) Idg. *ei* > *i* (see O.E. *drifan*, 'to drive', Aryan **dhreibh*-, under *drive*); (d) Idg. *oi* > *ai* (e.g. Goth. *ains*, Aryan **oi-*, see *one*); (e) Idg. *ou* > *au* (see *red*). Further, Idg. *h*, *q*, *g*, *r* become Gmc. *ul*, *um*, *un*, *ur* (see *corn* (I.), *hundred*, *tush* (II.), *wolf*). The consonant changes are more far-reaching. The chief are: (1) Idg. *p*, *t*, *k*, and *ph*, *th*, *kh*, become respectively *f*, *þ*, *χ* (*k* and *k^h* are levelled under *k* and *kh*); see *father*, *thumb*, *horn*. (2) Idg. *bh*, *dh*, *gh* (*g^h*) become *þ*, *d*, *z*, later *b*, *d*, *g*; see *hear*, *do*, *goose* (I.). (3) Gmc. *s*, *f*, *þ*, *χ* (see (1) above) are voiced to *z*, *ð*, *d*, *z* medially when the chief accent of the word did not precede them; for instance, O.E. *fæder*, 'father', represents Gmc. **fader*, fr. earlier Gmc. **fapér*; see *father*. This change is referred to as *Verner's Law*. (4) Idg. *b*, *d*, *g* became *p*, *t*, *k*; see *pool* (I.), *tree*, *crane*. These changes are sometimes referred to as *the First (Germanic) Sound-shift*.

In the Germanic dialects *þ*, *d*, *z* appear as *b*, *d*, *g* initially and after nasals. A special feature of North and West Germanic is the development of medial *z* (see (3) above) to *r*; see *hoard*, O.E. *hord*, 'treasure', which is cognate with Goth. (E. Gmc.) *huzd*; final *z* is, however, lost in West Germanic. The Old High German dialects are distinguished from the other West Germanic dialects by a further series of consonantal changes (*the Second Sound-shift*). This took place during the 6th and 7th centuries, and included, among other changes, the development of *t* to *z* [*ʒ*] or *ss* (see O.H.G. *stt*, 'time', under *tide*, and Germ. *hass*, 'hatred', Gmc. **hat*-, under *hate*); of *k* to *ch* [*χ*] (see *acre*, O.H.G. *acchar*); of *p* to *pf* or *f* (see O.H.G. *helfan*, Gmc. **help*-, under *help*).

B—The History of English in England

During the 5th century, Britain was invaded and settled by Germanic-speaking tribes from Western Europe, Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. At the time of the settlement there was probably little differentiation between their common tongue and the other dialects which eventually developed from West Germanic. Probably most of the changes which characterize English took place actually in this country, though a few may have begun on the Continent. Since the 5th century, the story of English is one of continual change and of the rise of innumerable dialects. Before the Conquest, one dialect had risen to the importance of a written standard language—that of Wessex, the kingdom of the West Saxons—and a very large proportion of the Old English literature is extant in this dialect. At the beginning of the Middle English period the supremacy of West Saxon as a literary language had diminished, and dialects from all parts of the country contributed to the literature of the period. It was not until the late 14th century that a South-East Midland dialect came into prominence—again as a *written*, not a *spoken*, standard. This was the dialect of London, influenced to some degree by that of neighbouring areas, and its gradual rise in importance was due to the city's authority as a centre of trade and of government. During the Elizabethan period a certain standard of *speech* became recognized, at first among men of the Court and of the Universities, and afterwards over a wider area; this, like the written standard, was based on London English—or rather on the speech of a certain class of speakers in London and its environs. (There were already variants arising among the other classes of speakers in London, from which the modern London dialects are derived.) This spoken standard developed into what is now known as Received Standard English, which is definitely not a local dialect but a class dialect, and may be heard in any part of the country without a tinge of regional peculiarities. The written language has followed the spoken standard in such matters as style and vocabulary, though always slightly more archaic; it is the *pronunciation* of Received Standard English which is its chief characteristic.

Modern English spelling, conventionalized by the 15th-century printers on a basis of late 14th-century spelling, fails to reflect any of the important changes in pronunciation which took place during the late 14th and early 15th century and afterwards, when almost every vowel in the English language changed in quality.

In the following notes on the characteristic development of Old and Middle English, only such changes are dealt with as left a permanent impression on the language (or are necessary to explain the form of O. and M.E. words), and owing to the exigencies of space only the most important of these are included.

1. Changes distinguishing Old English from West Germanic

(a) Isolative:

(i.) W. Gmc. *a* > *æ* (except before a nasal), see O.E. *cræft*, W. Gmc. **kraft*, under *craft*; O.E. *æcer*, *acre*, W. Gmc. **akr*. (ii.) W. Gmc. *ā* > *ē* (except before a nasal), see *deed* which is fr. O.E. *dǣd*, W. Gmc. **dād*. (iii.) W. Gmc. *ai* > *ē*; thus W. Gmc. **hair*-, **hail*-, become O.E. *hār*, *hāl*, see *hoar*, *holy*. (iv.) W. Gmc. *au* > *ēu*, as in O.E. *drēam*,

W. Gmc. **draum*, see *dream*. (v.) W. Gmc. *eu* > *eo*, e.g. W. Gmc. **deur*, O.E. *dēor*, see *deer*.

(b) Combinative:

(i.) W. Gmc. *a*, *i*, *u* + nasal + *f*, *s*, or *þ*, became nasalized and lengthened, the nasal being lost; then the vowel was denasalized, *ā* becoming *ō*, *ī* > *ē*, *ū* > *ū*; e.g. W. Gmc. **munþ* becomes O.E. *mūþ*, see *mouth*; W. Gmc. **gans* becomes O.E. *gōs*, see *goose*.

(ii.) W. Gmc. *ā* became *ō* before a nasal; see O.E. *spōn*, W. Gmc. **spān*, under *spoon*.

(iii.) Early O.E. *i*, *e*, *æ* (W. Gmc. *i*, *e*, *a*) tended to become diphthongized (to *io*, *eo*, *ea*) before *h*, *r* or *l* + another consonant; e.g. O.E. *heard*, fr. **hærd*, W. Gmc. **hard*, see *hard*; O.E. *heall*, W. Gmc. **hall*, see *hall*; O.E. *feoh*, W. Gmc. **feχ*, see *fee*. This change is commonly known as Fracture. (*æ* was diphthongized before *l* + cons. in the South, but not in the Midlands or North.)

(iv.) Prim. O.E. back vowels were fronted when followed in the next syllable by *i* or *j* (both these usually disappeared subsequently); thus *ū* > *ȳ*; *ā* > *æ*; *ō* > [*ø*], later *ē*. Similarly, *æ* (fr. W. Gmc. *a*) > *e*; *ea* > *ē* (*ie* in West Saxon). This process is called *i*-mutation. For instance, W. Gmc. **tūkjan*, 'to show', appears in O.E. as *tēcan*, 'to point out, teach', cp. the unmutated *tācn*, 'a sign', see *token* and *teach*; W. Gmc. **mūsi*-, pl. of **mūs*, 'mouse', see *mouse*, is in O.E. *mȳs*, whence Mod. Engl. *mice*; W. Gmc. **fōdjan*, 'to feed', > in O.E. *fēdan*, see *feed*, cp. the unmutated noun *fōda*, *food*.

(v.) Of the consonant changes in O.E., the most striking are the developments of W. Gmc. *k*, *ǵ*. The former is fronted to [*t̪*] (voiceless front stop), later [*tʃ*], initially before a front vowel, and also medially and finally after *ī*; see *chin*, *chaff*, *pitch*, where the O.E. fronted cons. is printed *ċ* = *ċin*, *ċeaf* &c., W. Gmc. **kinn*, **kuf*. W. Gmc. *sk* always becomes [*ʃ*], written *sc*; see *shall*, W. Gmc. **skal*, O.E. *sceal*.

W. Gmc. *ǵ* is fronted to [*j*] (voiced front open cons.) initially before front vowels (as in O.E. *ǵeldan*, 'to pay', (where the dotted *ǵ* indicates its front quality), see *yield*), and also medially and finally after front vowels (see *day*); but *ǵ* becomes [*g*] before back vowels (see *good*, *go*), and remains [*ʒ*] (voiced back open) between back vowels (see *saw* (I)). O.E. spelling does not distinguish between [*k*] and [*tʃ*], or between [*j*], [*ʒ*], and [*g*], but the changes can still be traced in the modern pronunciation.

W. Gmc. *gg* > O.E. [*dd*], later [*dʒ*], written *cg*, before *j* (as in O.E. *bryċġ* [brydʒ], fr. W. Gmc. **bruggj*, see *bridge*).

2. Changes distinguishing M.E. from Old English

During the 11th and 12th centuries there were a considerable number of changes in English pronunciation, which were gradually reflected in the spelling of the written language. Diphthongs were monophthongized, and subsequently new diphthongs arose from various sources. There were several important isolative changes in the quality of single vowels, while the chief combinative changes are changes in quantity. Further, the vowels of unstressed syllables began to lose their distinct character and to become levelled under one sound.

(a) Isolative changes:

(i.) O.E. *æ* > *a*; see O.E. *fæder*, M.E. *fader*, under *father*.
 (ii.) O.E. *ā* > *ō* [ō], slack: O.E. *hām* > M.E. *hōm*; see *home*.
 (iii.) O.E. *ǣ* > *e*: O.E. *hǣlan*, 'to heal', > M.E. *hēlen*, see *heal*.
 (iv.) O.E. *ȝ* > *j*, *ġ* or *ū*, *ū* [j]; see *hill*, *bride*; *knell*, *left* (I.); *thrush*.
 (v.) O.E. *ea* > [ē], written *e*, *ee*: O.E. *dream* > M.E. *drēm*, see *dream*.
 (vi.) O.E. *eo* > [ē]: O.E. *deop* > M.E. *dēp*, see *deep*.
 (vii.) O.E. *ȝ* (between back vowels) > *w*; see *saw* (I.), *law*, M.E. *sawe*, *lawe*, O.E. *sagu*, *lagu*.

(b) Combinative:

The chief are quantitative changes: (i.) The short vowels *a*, *e*, *o* are lengthened in open syllables to *ā*, *ē* [ē], *ō*; cp. L.O.E. *tacan*, M.E. *taken*, *take*; O.E. *mete*, M.E. *mēte*, *meat*. (ii.) Long vowels are shortened before groups of two or more consonants; cp. L.O.E. *dēppe*, M.E. *dēppe*, *depth*; and cp. M.E. *kēpen*, 'to keep' (see *keep*), Pret. *kēpte*, 'kept', O.E. *cēpan*, *cēpte*.

(c) Orthographical:

It must not be forgotten that there was considerable French influence on the spelling in the Post-Conquest period. Among the important innovations of French scribes were the following: (i.) The use of *ch* for the sound [tʃ], cp. *child*; (ii.) *sh* for O.E. *sc* [ʃ], see *shall*; (iii.) *th* for O.E. *þ*, *ð*, cp. *thorn*, *this*; (iv.) *v* for O.E. *f* when the latter stood for [v], cp. *love*; (v.) *ou* for [ū], see *mouth*; (vi.) *o* for [u] in the neighbourhood of *n*, *m*, see *son*, *monk*; (*u* and *n*, *m* were easily confused in writing); (vii.) *y* is now used for the sound [i]; (viii.) the sound [j], expressed in O.E. by *y*, is now written *u*.

3. Changes distinguishing Modern English from Middle English

Modern English changes in pronunciation are not reflected in the modern spelling, which remains, as has been already said, based on the conventional spelling of Late Middle English. Many, if not all, of the changes characteristic of Early Modern English had, however, begun before 1400, and from the beginning of the 15th century, and in some cases earlier, we find spellings indicating clearly the writer's realization that the old spelling does not fit the sound. For instance, when a 15th century letter-writer has *dipe* for 'deep', or *came* for 'came', we must believe that he no longer pronounced [dēp, kām] as in Middle English, but something nearly approaching the modern sounds. Such 'phonetic' spellings, which are numerous enough to supply satisfactory evidence for the date of most of the modern changes, occur for the most part in letters, diaries &c. which did not get into the hands of the early printers, and so did not have their spelling conventionalized. Similar 'occasional spellings', as they are called, are found in letters &c. right down to the 18th century. When Queen Elizabeth, for example, writes *often* for 'often', and *stauke* for 'stalk', we can hardly be in doubt as to how she pronounced them. These unconventional forms are one of our best sources of information in the modern period.

We may give a few of the most striking developments of the vowels in Early Modern English.

(i.) M.E. *a* > [e], cp. *take*, M.E. *taken*; (ii.) M.E. *ai*, *ei* > [e], cp. *day*, M.E. [dai]; (iii.) M.E. *i* > [ai], cp. *life*, M.E. *lif*; (iv.) M.E. [ō] > [ou], cp. *home*; (v.) M.E. [ō] > [ū, u, a], cp. *food*, *foot*, *flood*, M.E. *fōde*, *fōt*, *flood*; (vi.) M.E. *ē*, *ē*

have both as a rule become [i], cp. *deep*, M.E. [dēp]; *meat*, M.E. [mēt]; (vii.) M.E. *u* > [a, u], cp. *but*, *love*, *full*; (viii.) M.E. *er* > *ar*, which remains in many words, cp. *far*, M.E. *fer*; (ix.) M.E. *ū* > [au], cp. *house*, M.E. *hūs*; (x.) M.E. *au*, *ou* > [ō], cp. *pause*, M.E. *pause*, fr. Fr. Among combinative changes we may note the change of *al* to *aul* (later [āl]), cp. *all*; the rounding of *wa* to *wo*, except before a back consonant, cp. *what*, *wash*, contrasted with *wag*; the raising of *e* to *i* before *ng*, cp. *England*, *linger* (M.E. *lengen*).

Changes in quantity are also important. One of the commonest is the lengthening of short vowels before *r*, the latter being lost subsequently; cp. *hard*, *are*, *earth* &c. The vowel *a*, and often *o*, is lengthened also before *f*, *s*, *þ*; cp. *pass*, *after*, *path*; *soft*, *cross*. On the other hand, shortening has often taken place, especially before point consonants; cp. *dead*, *hot*, *flood*, *breath*.

Consonant changes which occur regularly are: (i.) the loss of *r* finally and before another consonant; (ii.) the loss of M.E. [χ], written *h* or *gh*, finally or before *t*, or the development of the same consonant to *f*, cp. *bough*, *night*, *enough*, *laughter*; (iii.) the loss of *l* before certain consonants, cp. *talk*, *half*; (iv.) the change of [sj] to [ʃ], cp. *assure*, *tissue*; (v.) the change of [tj] to [tʃ], cp. *nature*, *fortune*. There were, however, many other consonantal changes which took place during the Early Modern period, some of which have been swept away by a regrettable tendency among some speakers, especially noticeable during the past century, to attempt to fit the sound to the spelling; this tendency, for instance, has 'restored' the *w* in such a word as *forward* (*w* having been lost in this position in the 13th century or earlier), for which [fōwəd] is now the usual pronunciation even in Received Standard English, in place of the normally developed Early Modern Standard [fōəd].

The vowels of unstressed syllables began a process of reduction and shortening in Middle English and even earlier, and these 'obscured' forms usually remain as the normal types. The general tendency is to reduce all unstressed vowels to [ə] or to [i], long vowels being shortened, diphthongs monophthongized, and round vowels unrounded. The modern spelling often indicates the original quality of the vowel. Cp. *private* [praɪvɪt]; *nature* [néitʃə]; *pigeon* [pɪdʒɪn]; *biscuit* [bɪskɪt]; *tortoise* [tɔtəs].

Present-day English

By the side of the widespread central type which is recognized as a standard, English speech at the present time exhibits many varieties or dialects. Some of these have grown up, and are spoken in particular parts of the country, and we speak of the dialect of Norfolk, of Kent, of Oxfordshire, and so on. These are called *Regional Dialects*. Other types of English, again, are not primarily of local or regional origin, but are current among certain sections or classes of the population, and owe such peculiarities as distinguish them from other dialects to differences of social status and occupation. These factors tend, on the one hand, to separate groups of speakers from others belonging to a different social grade, and, on the other, to bring those of the same social grade into closer association with each other than they enjoy with speakers of other grades who follow callings of a different kind. We call those varieties or dialects which have grown up within particular sections or social divisions *Class Dialects*.

Regional Dialect has generally an ancient independent development of its own. The features of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary which distinguish severally the

speech of the different geographical areas are established by continuous tradition, and however much they may depart from the usage of literature or of the upper reaches of society, these dialects are nevertheless perfectly 'correct' within the particular regions where they are spoken. The ultimate test of 'correctness' is usage. A pronunciation or a grammatical form which is current throughout a region is *ipso facto* 'correct' in that dialect. When purely regional peculiarities are used by speakers who are attempting to use standard English, they are out of place, and we call them *provincialisms*. The various Class Dialects are on rather a different footing. These are usually not independently developed as are the pure Regional Dialects, but are mere modifications of standard English, whose divergences from this are due partly to class isolation, partly to the influence of the nearest Regional Dialect. We generally regard these results of class and Regional Dialect as *vulgarisms*.

Of the two general types of English just considered, pure Regional Dialects are limited to particular parts of the country, while the Class Dialects vary from class to class, and also from district to district. None of these types is, or ever could be, regarded as a suitable vehicle for the highest expression of the national mind and culture. Like most peoples who have an ancient civilization, and an elaborate social and political system, the English have developed a common dialect or *koinê* which is used in writing by all Englishmen, no matter what Regional or Class Dialect they may speak; it has long been the form in which literature is embodied, and it is used in the ordinary affairs of life by large sections of the community, as well as in the transaction of public business.

This dialect is that which is now often called *Received Standard English*. It was regional in origin, and is now quite definitely, a Class Dialect. It developed during the 14th century from one of the contemporary variants of London English—that spoken primarily in court circles and among men of rank generally, and it has remained, during the whole period of its evolution, as the dialect of the upper classes. It has been influenced in some measure at various stages by other Class Dialects, and, to a less extent, by Regional Dialects. It has been variously called *Good English*, *Upper Class English*, or *Public School English*, but *Received Standard*, the name now often applied to it, is perhaps the least ambiguous. Perhaps it should be pointed out again that, as Received Standard is not a Regional Dialect, it is not confined to any one area, but may be heard with but slight variations in any part of the country. This dialect has throughout the Modern English period been the chief vehicle of our literature. Those whose normal dialect it is speak it entirely without hesitation, affectation, or self-consciousness; in fact, most of them think about it very

little, but simply accept it as a purely natural thing, which indeed it is. The variations occasionally heard in Received Standard are comparatively few, and the majority of them are such differences as naturally occur between older and younger generations of speakers.

Received Standard English is, however, rather elusive, and not always easily acquired by those who do not speak it from childhood, and there have grown up recently a number of dialects approximating to Received Standard, but not perfectly uniform with it in all points of pronunciation, idiom, and vocabulary. These dialects may be called Modified Standard English. Some people do not realize, or refuse to recognize, that there is a distinction between this and Received Standard, and many are content to label *any* form of Modified Standard 'correct English', 'the King's English', 'the standard language', and so on. Various forms of Modified Standard are spoken by thousands or even millions of educated people all over the country. These 'modified' forms of English, however, are not identical with Received Standard. In point of fact, many highly educated people speak very distinct forms of English, variously 'modified' by regional or by different class dialects. Little difference between Received and Modified Standard English can be traced in the written language, for the two are more or less uniform in grammar and syntax; it is in pronunciation and colloquial idiom that the distinction emerges.

Among the classes of words the pronunciation of which is most difficult to establish are those recently concocted or introduced from foreign sources. These include many 'learned' words, most of which are scientific terms with a Greek or Latin basis. As these have no 'history' in English, they have no traditional pronunciation, except such as are based on earlier established models. Words of this kind come to be habitually pronounced in a certain way among those who commonly use them, and this convention is eventually recognized as 'correct'.

A completely uniform dialect will probably never be spoken all over England, let alone in other English-speaking countries. It is quite possible that Received Standard English will remain the speech of a comparatively small proportion of the population. Whether this is to be regretted or not need not be discussed here. But so long as people turn to Received Standard English as a model, it must be remembered that the best, often unconscious, authorities on this dialect are those who speak it naturally; that the traditional pronunciation of a word for the last several centuries determines its present-day pronunciation, and is therefore of great importance in deciding between variants; that over-carefulness is not 'correctness', and that slovenliness is to be avoided, no less than the fantastic 'rules' of purists and the introduction of new pronunciations merely in order to approximate to the spelling.

I. The Consonants of the Aryan Languages

Primitive Aryan.	Sanscrit.	Iranian.	Baltic.	Slavonic.	Hellenic.	Italic.	Celtic.	Germanic.
p	p	p	p	p	p	p	—	f (b)
ph	ph	p, f	p	p	ph	f		f
b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	p
bh	bh	b	b	b	ph	f, b	b	b
t	t	t, þ	t	t	t	t	t	þ
th	th	þ	t	t	th	t	t	þ (ð)
d	d	d	d	d	d	d	d	t
dh	dh	d	d	d	th	f, b, d	d	ð

I. The Consonants of the Aryan Languages—*continued*

Primitive Aryan.	Sanskrit.	Iranian.	Baltic.	Slavonic.	Hellenic.	Italic.	Celtic.	Germanic.
k	k, c	k, χ	k	k, č	k	c	c	χ (3)
kh	kh	k, χ			kh	h		χ (3)
k ^h	ś	s	sz	s	k	c	c	χ (3)
k ^w	č, k	k, χ	k	k, č	p, t, k	qu, c	c/p	χ ^w , χ, f
g	g, j	g	g	g, ž, z	g	g	g	k
gh	gh, h	g	g	g, ž, z	kh	h, g	g	ž
g ^h	j	z, d	z	z	g	g	g	k
g ^h	h	z, d	z	z	kh	h, g	g	ž
g ^w	g, j	g	g	g, ž, z	b, d, g, z	gu, v, g	b	kw, k, p
g ^w h	gh, h	g	g	g, ž, z	ph, th, kh	f, gu, v, g	g	3w, ž, b
n	n	n	n	n	n	n	n	n
m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
ŋ	ŋ	ŋ	ŋ	ŋ	ŋ	ŋ	ŋ	ŋ
l	r, l	l	l	l	l	l	l	l
r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r	r
s	s	s	s	s	h, s	s, r	s	s (z)
j	y	y	j	j	h, z	j	j, —	j
w	v	v	v	v	ś, h	v	f, v, gw	w

II. The Vowels of the Aryan Languages

Primitive Aryan.	Sanskrit.	Iranian.	Baltic.	Slavonic.	Hellenic.	Italic.	Celtic.	Germanic.
a	a	a	a	o, e	a	a	a	a
ā	ā	ā	ō	a	ē, ā	ā	ā	ō
e	a	a	e	e, i	e	e	e, i	e, i
ē	ā	ā	ē	č, a	ē	ē	i	ē
i	i	i	i	ī	i	i	i, e	i
ī	ī	ī	ī	i	ī	ī	ī	ī
o	a	a	a	o, e	o	o	o	a
ō	ā	ā	ō, ū	a	ō	ō	ā	ō
u	u	u	u	ū	u	u	u, o	u
ū	ū	ū	ū	y	ū	ū	ū	ū
e	i, a	i, a	a	o, e	a	a	a	a
ei	ē	aē, ōi	ei, ē	ě	ei	ei, ī	ē, ia	ī
ai	ē	aē, ōi	ai, ē	ě	ai	ai, ae	ae	ai
oi	ē	aē, ōi	ai, ē	ě	oi	oi, ū	oe	ai
eu	ō	ao, ēu	au	u	eu	ou, ū	ō, ua	eu, iu
au	ō	ao, ēu	au	u	au	au	ō, ua	au
ou	ō	ao, ēu	au	u	ou	ou, ū	ō, ua	au

III. The Vowels of West, East, and North Germanic

Primitive Germanic.	West Germanic.	East Germanic.	North Germanic.
a	a	a	a
æ	ā	ē	ā
e	e	i, e (ai)	e
i	i	i	i
ī	ī	ī (ei)	ī
ō	ō	ō	ō
u	u, o	u, o (au)	u, o
ū	ū	ū	ū
ai	ai	ái	ei
au	au	áu	au
eu	eu	iu	jō
iu	iu	iu	jū

Rules for Pronunciation

- (1) Key to the Popular Phonetic Spelling for the use of the General Reader
- (2) The System of Phonetic Notation summarized for Advanced Students

THE accepted spelling of English is by no means always a reliable guide to pronunciation. Owing to various historical circumstances English spelling has come to be considerably divorced from the pronunciation. It is *inconsistent*—the same letter does not always stand for the same sound; it is *redundant*—the spelling of many words contains letters which represent no sound at all; it is *incomplete*—some words contain sounds of which the spelling takes no account and for which no letter is written. The important element of accentuation is entirely disregarded.

Under these circumstances, if we wish to indicate the actual pronunciation of English words, we must employ what is called a *phonetic notation*. This is a means of remedying the defects of ordinary spelling. The general characteristics of a phonetic system of spelling are (1) that it is consistent—the same letter, or combination of letters, always stands for the same sound; (2) letters are not written where

no sound is pronounced (e.g. *gh* are not wanted in *right*); (3) differences of quantity, or length are distinguished; (4) accented syllables are marked; the acute accent ' implies the chief or strongest stress, or accent, the grave accent ` implies secondary or weaker accent; unstressed syllables are unmarked.

Throughout this Dictionary two systems of phonetic notation are employed, numbered respectively 1. and 2., these phonetic spellings being enclosed in square brackets []. The following are examples of their use:

advocacy, n. [1. ádvokasi; 2. ədvakəsi].
afford, vb. trans. [1. afórd; 2. əfórd].
affranchise, vb. trans. [1. əfránchiz; 2. əfráen-tʃaiz].
agitation, n. [1. ájitáshun; 2. ədʒítetʃən].

System No. 1 may be preferred by the general reader because it contains no unfamiliar letters or symbols. By this system a very fairly accurate idea of the pronunciation can be conveyed.

System No. 2 is more precise, and distinguishes more minutely the various sounds and shades of sound which occur in English speech. It contains, however, a number of letters or symbols which are unfamiliar to the general reader, and on this account he may prefer to disregard it, and to trust to system No. 1. This more elaborate system (No. 2) is, however, in accordance with the principles demanded by exact notation, and such systems are commonly employed by philologists today in scientific descriptions of pronunciation, and in the discussion of linguistic facts.

The keys provided below should make clear the phonetic values of the symbols of both systems.

It must be borne in mind that no system of this kind, whether popular in character or of a more exact kind, can be self-explanatory, but demands that the reader should make himself familiar, by constant reference to the key, with the sound values attached to the various symbols.

Key to System No. 1

a as in hat	e as in bell	i as in bit	ō as in note	tīr as in lure	th as in think
ah as in father	ē as in be	ī as in bite	ōr as in more	oo as in put	dh as in there
ā as in hate	ēr as in deer	īr as in fire	u as in but	ōō as in boon	gh as in lock
ār as in have	ē as in herd, bird	o as in not	ū as in tune	ou as in now, out	zh as in pleasure

Key to System No. 2

SIMPLE VOWELS					
(Symbols)	(Phonetic Values)	(Symbols)	(Phonetic Values)	(Symbols)	(Phonetic Values)
ā	as in ha father, hard.	o	as in Fr. beau.	d	as in dark.
æ	as in Standard Southern English hat, strap.	ā	as in Fr. an, ange, penser.	t	as in take, danced, mint.
a	as in but, rust, blood, Monday.	ō	as in Fr. son.	ð	as in this, bother.
e	as in hen get.	æ	as in Fr. vin, singe.	p	as in think, breath.
i	as in pin, hid, private.	ō	as in Fr. un.	l	as in look.
ī	as in seat, heed, machine.	(i.e. combinations of two vowel sounds of which only the first is accented and syllabic)		ʃ	as in Fr. soufflé.
o	as in hot, want.			j	as in yacht, gear, few [fjū].
ō	as in awe, caught, torn, hall.	au	as in house, cow, plough.	ʒ	as in Fr. jour; Engl. pleasure [pleʒə], bridge [bridʒ].
ā	as in bird, turn, learn, word.	ou	as in stone, grow.	ʃ	as in ship, wish, cheap [tʃip], nation [neɪʃən].
ə	only in unstressed or unaccented syllables, as butter, together, the dog, perhaps.	ai	as in white, night, I, fly.	z	as in lazy, cause, dogs, is.
ū	as in hoot, brood, rude, rue.	oi	as in toy, boil.	s	as in sip, cats, piece.
u	as in put, pull, foot, could.	ea	as in air, bare, their.	g	as in good, beg.
In French words, &c.		ei	as in made, take, again, vein.	k	as in kite, cat, lock.
a	as in Fr. patte.	io	as in hear, queer, bier, imperial.	n	as in no, know, gnaw.
y	as in Fr. pure.	io	as in field, kneel, sealed.	m	as in mill, limb, hymn.
e	as in Fr. dé.	uo	as in one pronunciation of sure, poor.	ŋ	as in sing, long, think [piŋk].
é	as in Ital. credere.	CONSONANTS		r	as in ring, write, very.
i	as in Fr. si.	b	as in bat.	ʁ	as in Fr. rencontre.
ø	as in Fr. peu.	p	as in pot.	h	as in home.
		v	as in vain, of.	w	as in will, dwell, queen.
		f	as in fat, enough.	ʒ	as in Germ. tag.
				x	as in Scots loch.
				j	as in Germ. Reich.

Principles of Strict Phonetic Notation Explained

By using a phonetic notation we attempt to convey, as accurately as this can be done by graphic symbols, some of the actual facts concerning pronunciation. In order to accomplish this, it is necessary (a) that there should be a separate symbol for every sound which occurs

in the language, and (b) that every time a given sound occurs it should be represented by the same symbol. The first two essentials, then, are completeness in the set of symbols employed, and consistency in using them.

A third condition which must be observed is

that no symbol be written uselessly, that is, a letter is not written where no sound is pronounced. Thus there is no sound corresponding to *l* in *talk*; it has long since disappeared from English pronunciation. Therefore when this or similar words are expressed by phonetic notation,

no symbol is written between the vowel and the final consonant. We think of the word simply as it appeals to the ear, as a combination of sounds, every one of which must be expressed by a symbol. Where no sound is heard, no symbol is written.

Quantity. Long vowels are marked by placing the ordinary mark of length over them, as [ā, ī] &c. Short vowels are left unmarked [æ, ɪ] &c.

Some vowels popularly called 'long' are in reality diphthongs, that is, they consist of two distinct vowel sounds; they are therefore written with two symbols. Thus 'long i' as in *white* consists of the two short vowels [a] as in *German man*, and [ɪ] as in *Engl. bit*. This diphthong is therefore written [ai]. The vowels in *take* and *stone* are often referred to respectively as 'long a' and 'long o'. In reality, in educated English speech, they also are diphthongs, and are therefore written [ei, ou].

Stress or Accent. The stressed or accented syllable of a word is indicated by placing an acute accent over the vowel, thus [fādə]. If a word, such as certain compounds, has a strong stress on two syllables, both are marked, as [háihéndid] 'high-handed'.

Where a word of several syllables has, in

addition to the chief stress and the unstressed or weak syllables, also one which has a secondary or weaker stress than that of the syllable which has the chief or strongest stress, this secondary stress is marked by placing the grave accent over it, as [ɪndífátigəbl] 'indefatigable.'

It must be remembered that what a phonetic notation as used in a dictionary can accomplish is to show in which words and syllables certain sounds are used. It cannot, without entering into long discussions which would be almost useless to those who had not received a special training in Phonetics, inform the reader what is the precise nature and character of the sounds themselves. Thus the vowel sound in *hand* may be pronounced in a dozen different ways in different English dialects; that is to say, that all over England perhaps a dozen different vowel sounds may be heard in this word. When therefore, in this Dictionary, the pronunciation of *hand* is indicated as [hænd] the reader is not informed which of the exact varieties is intended. All he can discover is that the writer of the Dictionary states that the same vowel is pronounced here as in all other words in which the symbol [æ] is written.

When it is said, then, that a Dictionary tells us how to pronounce, the claim as a rule is, in reality, too wide. All it does is to show the *distribution of sounds*, to indicate in which words the same sounds occur. It also tells us where the accent is placed, and whether the vowels are short or long. But it does not give what a phonetician would call an exact analysis of the sounds themselves. Key words are given as a guide to what is called 'the values' of the symbols, but since different people may have different pronunciations of the words given, none can be certain that his sound in a given word is exactly that intended by the person who drew up the tables. All that can be said is that the sounds which the writer of this Dictionary had in mind are those in use among the majority of persons who speak Southern *Standard*, or better, *Received Standard English*. If this description is considered too vague, it must suffice here to say that *Received Standard* is that type of English which is spoken by those who have been educated at one of the older Public Schools. It is by no means the exclusive property of these, but from them at any rate we may be pretty sure of hearing it.

Note on Method of Arrangement

AS the plan of this Dictionary differs in some details from that of others of its size, a short exposition of this is given here.

Each entry appears in black type, followed immediately by the part of speech, noun, verb, preposition etc. Homonyms, i.e. words having the same form but different sense (e.g. *bear*, the verb, and *bear*, the animal), are given separate entries, followed by Roman figures enclosed in brackets: *bear* (I.), vb.; *bear* (II.), n. This plan is also usually followed for words used as two or more different parts of speech: *account* (I.), n.; *account* (II.), vb.

Next comes the pronunciation in the two forms of phonetic notation, enclosed in square brackets.

Following the pronunciation, and preceding the definition of the word, its origin is indicated. This may consist merely in a reference to another entry (e.g. See *prec.*; See next word &c.) or in a

reference in black type to one or more other entries (e.g. under *aeroplane*, See *aero- & plane*) where the various parts of the word are fully dealt with. Under the main etymology is given the history of the word as far as it can be traced, working back, for example, from the modern form to Old English, Germanic, and finally to the most primitive Aryan form, or through Middle English to French, Latin, and possibly Greek. The relation of the word to words in other languages is indicated, and references are given in black type to other entries in the Dictionary which should be looked up in order to trace the interesting connexion which often exists between words apparently unrelated. See under *abstruse*, *affray*, *agglomerate*, *air* (I.).

It may happen occasionally that the etymology of a simple word is so long and interesting as completely to overshadow the short definition

which appears at the end of the entry. An instance of this occurs under *albatross*.

After the history of the word comes its use in present-day English. For greater clarity this is usually subdivided. In the case of a verb which is used transitively and intransitively, the main divisions are headed, e.g. **A.** trans., **B.** intrans. (see *act* (II.)). Each of these divisions is divided into minor divisions, numbered 1, 2, 3, and so on, and each of these subdivisions may be further divided into a, b, c &c. Occasionally one of these small subdivisions is again divided into (i.), (ii.), (iii.).

In addition to defining the meaning of a word in all its developments and applications, short sentences illustrating its various uses are given in *italics*. Special idiomatic uses, including colloquialisms and slang expressions, are given, preceded by *Phr.*, e.g. *Phr. that cock won't fight*, q.v. under *cock* (I.).

Abbreviations used in this Dictionary

abbr.	abbreviated	corrupt.	corruption	illit.	illiterate	Nthn.	northern	R.C.	Roman Catholic
abl.	ablation	cp.	compare	imit.	imitative	numis.	numismatics	redupl.	reduplicated
absol.	absolute	crystal.	crystallography	imperf.	imperative			ref.	reference
acc.	accusative			imper.	imperfect	O.	Old	reflex.	reflexive
A.D.	Anno Domini	Dan.	Danish	impers.	impersonal	obs.	obsolete	reg.	regular
ad.	adapted	dat.	dative	indef.	indefinite	obolesc.	obsolescent	rel.	relative
adj.	adjective	def.	definite	indic.	indicative	O.D.	Old Dutch	relig.	religious
adv.	adverb	demon.	demonstrative	infin.	infinitive	O.E.	Old English	rhet.	rhetorical
advbl.	adverbial	dial.	dialect	intens.	intensive	O. Fr.	Old French	Rom.	Roman
aeron.	aeronautics	dimin.	diminutive	interj.	interjection	O. Fris.	Old Frisian	Russ.	Russian
A.-Fr.	Anglo-French	dist.	distinguished	internat.	international	O.H.G.	Old High German	R.V.	Revised Version
Afr.	African	Du.	Dutch	interrog.	interrogative	O.L.G.	Old Low German		
agric.	agriculture	E.	East	intrans.	intransitive	O.N.	Old Norse	S.	South
alchem.	alchemy	eccles.	ecclesiastical	Ir.	Irish	opt.	optics	sc.	scilicet (namely)
alg.	algebra	econ.	economics	iron.	ironical (ly)	orig.	original (ly)	Scand.	Scandinavian
Am.	American	educ.	education	irreg.	irregular	ornith.	ornithology	Scr.	Sanscrit
anal.	analogy	e.g.	exempli gratia (for example)	Ital.	Italian	O.S.	Old Saxon	sculp.	sculpture
anat.	anatomy			Jap.	Japanese	O.T.	Old Testament	shd.	should
ant.	ancient	Egyptol.	Egyptology	Jav.	Javanese	paint.	painting	sing.	singular
anthropol.	anthropology	elect.	electricity	L.	Late	palaeont.	palaeontology	Slav.	Slavonic
antiqu.	antiquities	engin.	engineering	Lat.	Latin	parl.	parliamentary	Span.	Spanish
Arab.	Arabic	Engl.	English	Lett.	Lettish	pass.	passive	specif.	specifically
archaeol.	archaeology	entom.	entomology	L.G.	Low German	pathol.	pathology	spirit.	spiritualism
archit.	architecture	equiv.	equivalent	Lit.	Lithuanian	per.	perfect	Sthn.	southern
arith.	arithmetic	esp.	especially	liter.	literature, literary	perh.	perhaps	subj.	subjunctive
art.	article	ethnol.	ethnology	Lith.	Lithuanian	Pers.	Persian	suff.	suffix
astrol.	astrology	etymol.	etymology	log.	logic	pers.	person	superl.	superlative
astron.	astronomy			mach.	machinery	Peruv.	Peruvian	surg.	surgery
attrib.	attributive (ly)	facet.	facetious	Malay.	Malayan	pharm.	pharmacology	surv.	surveying
auxil.	auxiliary	fem.	feminine	manuf.	manufacturing	philol.	philology	Swed.	Swedish
A.V.	Authorized Version	feud.	feudal (ism)	manuf.	manufacturing	philos.	philosophy	ayil.	syllable
		fig.	figurative	manuf.	manufacturing	phon.	phonetic(s)	techn.	technical, technol-
bacter.	bacteriology	Finn.	Finnish	math.	mathematics	photog.	photography		ogy
Balto-Slav.	Balto-Slavic	Flem.	Flemish	M. Du.	Middle Dutch	Phr.	phrase	teleg.	telegraphy
B.C.	Before Christ	fol.	following	M.E.	Middle English	phren.	phrenology	teleph.	telephony
Bib.	Biblical	fort.	fortification	mechan.	mechanics	phys.	physics	theatr.	theatrical
bibliog.	bibliography	Fr.	French	Med.	Medieval	physiol.	physiology	theol.	theology
biog.	biography	fr.	from	med.	medical, medicine	pl.	plural	theos.	theosophy
biol.	biology	freq.	frequentative	metal.	metallurgy	Pl.-N.	Place-Name	trans.	transitive
bot.	botany	Fris.	Frisian	metaph.	metaphysics	poet.	poetry, poetical	transf.	transference,
Brazil.	Brazilian	fut.	future	meteor.	meteorology	Pol.	Polish		transferred
Bret.	Breton	Gael.	Gaelic	M. Fr.	Middle French	polit.	political	transl.	translated,
B.V.M.	Blessed Virgin Mary	Gaul.	Gaulish	M.H.G.	Middle High Ger-	possess.	possessive	trig.	trigonometry
		gen.	general	mil.	military	P.P.	past participle	Turk.	Turkish
c.	circa (about)	genealog.	genealogy	min.	mining	Pr.	Primitive	typog.	typography
cap.	capital	genit.	genitive	mineral.	mineralogy	prec.	preceding		
Carib.	Caribbean	geog.	geography	M.L.G.	Middle Low Ger-	pred.	predicate, predica-	univ.	university
ed.	could	geom.	geometry	man	man		tively	U.S.A.	United States of
Celt.	Celtic	Germ.	German (modern)	Mod.	Modern	pref.	prefix		America
cent.	century	Gk.	Greek	mus.	music	prep.	preposition	usu.	usually
Ch.	church	Gmc.	Germanic	mythol.	mythology	Pres. Part.	present participle		
chem.	chemistry	Goth.	Gothic			pret.	preterite	vb.	verb
Chin.	Chinese	gram.	grammar	N.	North	print.	printing	vbl. n.	verbal noun
class.	classical	Heb.	Hebrew	n.	noun	priv.	privative	veter.	veterinary
cogn.	cognate	her.	heraldry	nat. hist.	natural history	prob.	probably	vulg.	vulgar
coll.	collective (ly)	Hind.	Hindustani, Hindi	nat. sc.	natural science	pron.	pronoun		
colloq.	colloquial	hist.	history	naut.	nautical	Prot.	Protestant	W.	Welsh
commerc.	commercial	horol.	horology	nav.	naval	Provenç.	Provençal	w.	with
compar.	comparative	hort.	horticulture	neg.	negative	provinc.	provincial	wd.	would
conj.	conjunction			neut.	neuter	psychol.	psychology	W. Gmc.	West Germanic
conn.	connected			nom.	nominative	punct.	punctuation	wh.	which
Copt.	Coptic	Ibid.	Ibidem (the same)	Norm.	Norman			wk.	weak
Corn.	Cornish	Icel.	Icelandic	Norw.	Norwegian	q.v.	quod vide (which see)	W.S.	West Saxon
correl.	correlative	i.e.	id est (that is)	N.T.	New Testament			zool.	zoology

An asterisk (*) preceding a word indicates a form of which there is no actual record, but which is reconstructed in accordance with known rules of development.

Bibliographical Note

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