WEBSTER'S New Collegiate Dictionary

A. Marriam-Webster

New Collegiate Dictionary

A Merriam-Webster®

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Preface

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary is a completely new volume in the Merriam-Webster series of dictionaries. It is a general dictionary edited for use in school or college, in the office, and in the home—in short, wherever information about English words is likely to be sought. The average user should rarely have occasion to look for information about the vocabulary of present-day English that is not available within these pages.

The first Merriam-Webster Collegiate appeared in 1898 and quickly won the esteem of student and general reader. A second edition was published in 1910, and subsequent editions came out in 1916, 1931, 1936, 1949, and 1963. This eighth in the series incorporates the best of the time-tested features of its predecessors and introduces new features designed to add to its usefulness. Its more than 1500 pages make it the most comprehensive Merriam-Webster Collegiate ever published.

The heart of Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary is the more than 1300 pages given over to the A-Z vocabulary. The information there set down derives not only from the 10,000,000 citations which were available to the editors of Webster's Third New International Dictionary and the 1963 Collegiate but also from the considerably more than 1,000,000 citations collected since the publication of these books. Thus each entry is based on a constantly updated file of actual English usage.

Those entries known to be trademarks or service marks are so labeled and are treated in accordance with a formula approved by the United States Trademark Association. No entry in this dictionary, however, should be regarded as affecting the validity of any trademark or service mark.

A noteworthy feature of the vocabulary section is the nearly 900 pictorial illustrations, many of which were drawn especially for this book. These illustrations were selected not simply for their decorative function but particularly for their value in clarifying definitions.

The front matter—those pages preceding the A-Z vocabulary—contains two important sections. The Explanatory Notes should be read by every user of the dictionary since a thorough understanding of the information contained in them will contribute markedly to the value of this book. And all users of the dictionary are urged to read the lucid essay on the English language which was written for this Collegiate by Professor W. Nelson Francis of Brown University.

The back matter—those pages following the A-Z vocabulary—contains several sections that dictionary users have long found helpful. These include more than five hundred Foreign Words and Phrases that occur frequently in English texts but that have not become part of the English vocabulary; several thousand proper names that are entered under the separate headings Biographical Names and Geographical Names; and a list of the Colleges and Universities of the United States and Canada. There is also a Handbook of Style in which various stylistic conventions (as of punctuation and capitalization) are concisely summarized.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary has been edited by the trained staff of the G. & C. Merriam Co. It is the result of a collaborative effort, and it would be invidious to single out particular editors for special mention. At the same time, it would be ungracious to observe the anonymity which is often the lot of the present-day lexicographer, and so a list of those who contributed substantially to the completion of this book is printed below.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary is the product of a company that has been publishing dictionaries for more than 125 years. It is offered to the user with the conviction that it will serve him well.

> Henry Bosley Woolf Editor in Chief

angle brackets PAGE 16a antonym PAGE 18a pachy-der-ma-tous pak-i-der-met-es adj [deriv. of Gk pachys + dermal-, derma skip] 1: of or relating to the pachyderms 2
a: THICK. THICKENED | Skip | b: CALLOUS. INSENSITIVE — pachy-der-ma-tous-ty miv | b: CALLOUS. INSENSITIVE — pam-per pam-per vt pam-pered; pam-per-ing \-p(2-)rin\ [ME pamperen. prob. of D origin; akin to Flem pamperen to pamper] | bestale: to cam with rich food: GLUT 2 a: to treat with extreme or excessive care and attention <- ed their guests> b: GRATIFY, HUMOS. canabled him to - his wanderlust — New Yorker> syn see INDDestant chasten — pam-per-er \-por-or\ n
pamaya \-po-'pi-o\ n [Sp. of American origin; akin to Otomac papai]: tropical American tree Carco papaya of the papaya family) with large oblong yellow edible fruit; also: its fruit binomial PAGE 18a boldface colon PAGE 17a boldface type PAGE 10a Fruit: also: its fruit

paper w pa-pered; pa-pering \ps-p(-)rin\ vt 1 archaic: to
put down or describe in writing
3: to cover or line with paper; ep: to apply wallpaper to 4:
to fill by giving out free passes <~ the theater for opening night>
to fill by giving out free passes <~ the theater for opening night>
to many vallpaper — pa-per-er \p-pa-per iger n: one that is outwardly powerful or dangerous but inwardly weak or ineffectual paper tiger — kaye Whiteman>

Paphian n 1: a native or inhabitant of Paphos soften not cap

Paper that happa-siornes and many that the paper tiger — the paper tiger not cap capitalization label PAGE 14a centered periods PAGE 10a past na pap-3-lõ-ma n. pl -mas or -ma-ta pat-a l : a benign tumor (as a wart) due to overgrowth of epithelial tissue on papillae of vascular connective tissue (as of the skin) 2: an epithelial tumor caused by a virus — pap-il-lo-ma-tous \-lō-matcognate cross-reference PAGE 18a par-a-lyae Brit var of PARALYZE

par-a-lyae Brit var of PARALYZE

par-am-e-ter-ize | par-tam-et-ize | par-am-e-trize | par-am-e-ter-ize | par-tam-e-trize | par-am-e-trize | par cutback inflected forms PAGE 13a definition PAGE 178 directional cross-reference PAGE 18a ped-diar or ped-lar 'ped-lar' n: one who peddles: as a: one who offers merchandise (as fresh produce) for sale along the street or from door to door b: one who deals in or promotes something intangible (as a personal asset or an idea) cinfluence ~ c> 'pe-des-tri-en' po-'des-tri-en' pedestri-pedes-tri-en' po-'des-tri-en' pedestri-pedestri-en' pedestri-en' equal variant PAGE 11a etymology PAGE 14a mail>
pen_level | peg|: an artificial leg; esp: one fitted at the knee
| pen_level | pen_l functional label PAGE 12a homographs PAGE 10a a confessor

per-cent-age \por-'sent-ij\ n 1: a part of a whole expressed in
hundredths 2: a shac of winnings or profits b: ADVANTAGE
PROFIT Kno ~ in going around kooking like an old sack of laundry

Wallace Steener> 3: an indeterminate part < PROPORTION 4

a: PROBABILITY b: favorable odds

per-jure ('por-jor') y/ per-jured; per-jure ('por-jor') y/ per-jured; per-jure ('por-jor') y/ per-jured; per-jure ('por-jor') / [MF
per-jure to Leprijurar, II. per to destruction, to the bad + jurare
to swear — more at PER. JURY 1 abs: to cause to commit per-jury
2: to make a per-jurer of (oneself)
pies prof M or of PE illustrative quotation PAGE 16a inflected forms PAGES 12a, 13a 2: to make a perjurer of (oneself)

pies prof mar of PE

sense wo pilear prime w 1: to lay or place in a pile: STACK 2:

10 heap in abundance: Load pilear potatoes on his plate > ~ w

11 to form a pile: ACCUMULATE 2: to move or press forward in

or as if in a mass: CROWD < piled into a car>

pile driver n 1: a machine for driving down piles with a pile

12: an operator of a pile driver

par or a steam or air hammed

2: an operator of a pile driver

par or mar in [ME, fr. OF peligrin, fr. L. pelegrinus, alter.

of 1 peregrinus foreigner, fr. peregrinus foreign, fr. pereger being

abroad, fr. per through + agr., ager land — more at FOR. ACRE

1: one who journeys in foreign lands: wayfarer 2: one who

travels to a shrine or holy place as a devotee 3 cap: one of the

pinch-beck 1 inch-bek n [Christopher Pinchbeck †1732 E

watchmaker] 1: an alloy of copper and zinc used esp. to imitate

gold in lewelry 2: something counterfeit or spurious — pinch
beok adj inflectional cross-reference PAGE 18a lightface type PAGE 10a lowercase PAGE 14a main entry PAGE 10a major stress PAGE 11a

Explanatory Chart

F	
	minor stress
	PAGE 11a
pin-cush-ion \pin \pish-on n + a small cushion in which pins may	
he stuck ready for use	
2 pine n. Often attrib ME, se OE pin, fr. L. pinus; akin to Gk pitys pine, L. opinus sat — more at FAT. 1: any of a genus (Pinus of	often attrib
the family Pinaceae, the pine family) of coniferous evergreen trees	PAGE 14a
which have slender elongated needles and some of which are	
valuable timber trees or ornamentals 2: the straight-grained [
white or vellow usu, durable and resinous wood of a Dine varying	pronunciation
from extreme softness in the white pine to hardness in the longless.	PAGES 11a, 12a
pine 3: any of various Australian coniferous trees (as of the genera Callitris, Araucaria, or Cupressus) 4: PHNEAPPLE — piny	
or pin-ey \'pi-n\epsilon\ adj	
post-card \post: a card on which a message may be	regional label
written for mailing without an envelope and to which the sender	PAGE 16a
must affix a stamp 2: POSTAL CARD 1	
nost-free \'nos(t)-'fre\ adi. chiefly Brit POSIPAID	and an antire (undefined)
noet.mae.ter \.mas-tar\ n 1 1 One Who has charge of a post	run-on entry (undefined)
office 2: one who has charge of a station for the accommodation	PAGE 11a
of travelers or who supplies post-horses — post-mass-tereship	
2-ship\ n 2-private n 1 archaic: one not in public office 2 obs: PRIVACY	run on ontry (defined)
3 a: a person of low rank in various organizations (as a police or	run-on entry (defined)
fire department) b: an enlisted man of the lowest rank in the	PAGE 11a
marine corps or of one of the two lowest ranks in the army - In	
private: not openly or in public	econdary variant
pro-gram-mer also pro-gram-er Neso-gram-er, -gra-mar\ n : one	secondary variant
that programs: as a: one that prepares and tests programs for mechanisms b: a person or device that programs a mechanism	PAGE 11a
c: one that prepares educational programs	
nen ing tor \ nrg_ligh_tor\ m 1 one that plans a project; specif	sense divider
PROMOTER 2: one that projects: as a device for projecting a beam of light b: an optical instrument for projecting an image	
a beam of light b: an optical instrument for projecting an image	PAGE 17a
unon a surface c'a machine for projecting motion products on a	
screen 3: an imagined line from an object to a surface along	sense letter
which projection takes place	
ME nouriet (1) That esp: a draft of a proposed measure or	PAGE 17a
pro-jet \pro-yhā, 'pro-\ n, pl projets \-'zhā(z), -zhā(z)\ [F, fr. MF pourjet] (1). rt. esp : a draft of a proposed measure or treaty 2: a projected or proposed design	
pro-mote \pro-mot\ vt pro-mot-ed; pro-mot-ing (t-promotus, pp.	sense numeral
of promovere, lit., to move forward, fr. pro-forward + movere to	PAGE 17a
move] 1 a : to advance in station, rank, or honor : RAISE b	PAGE 178
: to change (a pawn) into a piece in chess by moving to the eight rank c: to advance (a student) from one grade to the next higher	
grade 2 a : to contribute to the growth or prosperity of : FUR-	small capitals
THER <~ international understanding> b : to help bring (as	PAGE 18a
an enterprise) into being: LAUNCH c: to present (merchandise)	FAGE 708
for public acceptance through advertising and publicity 3 slang	
to get possession of by doubtful means or by ingenuity syn see	stylistic label
prophet \'praf-at\ n [ME prophete, fr. OF, fr. L propheta, fr. Gk	PAGE 16a
neophätäs fr. neo for 4. nhanai to speak — more at FOR, BANI 1	///01 .01
one who utters divinely inspired revelations; specif. Often cap	
• the writer of one of the prophetic books of the Uld Icsiament	subject label
2: one gifted with more than ordinary spiritual and moral insight; esp: an inspired poet 3: one who foretells future events	1 PAGE 16a
• PREDICTOR <a <="" weather=""> 4: an effective or leading spokes.	7 7 8 2 7 3 3
man for a cause, doctrine, or group the is first the student and then the of power —Alfred Kazin> 5 Christian Science a : a	
the ~ of power —Alfred Kazin> 5 Christian Science a: a	swung dash (boldface)
spiritual seer b: disappearance of material sense before the	PAGE 12a
conscious facts of spiritual Truth — prophetees \	
pro-rate (')pro-rat vb pro-rated; pro-rating [pro-rate] vt: to divide, distribute, or assess proportionately vi: to make a pro	
rata distribution	swung dash (lightface)
pro-spec-tive \pra-'spek-tiv also 'prä-, prō-', prä-\ adj 1: likely	PAGE 16a
pro-spec-tive \pro-'spek-tiv also 'prä-, prō-', prā-\ adj-1: likely to come about: EXPECTED < the ~ benefits of this law > 2: likely to be or become <a> mother > — pro-spec-tive-ly adv	
to be or become <a> mother> — pro-spec-tive-ly adv	
pun-gent \-jont\ adj [L pungent-, pungens, prp. of pungere to prick, sting; akin to L pugnus fist, pugnare to fight, Gk pugnas fiet]	synonymous cross-reference
thering a stiff and sharp point (~ learner 1. sharply painful:	PAGES 18a, 19a
: having a stiff and sharp point (leaves 2: sharply painful; also : POIONANT 3 a : marked by a sharp incisive quality	<u> </u>
: CAUSTIC b : being to the point : highly	
expressive <~ prose> 4: causing a sharp or irritating sensation:	synonym list
exp : ACRID — pun-gent-ly adv	PAGE 19a
syn PUNGENT, PIQUANT, POIGNANT, RACY shared meaning element sharp and stimulating to the mind or senses ant bland	
pur-blind \par-shind\ adj [ME pur blind, fr. pur purely, wholly,	town and John!
fr. pur pure 1 doks: wholly brind b: partly blind 2: lacking	temporal label
in vision, insight, or understanding: OBTUSE — pur-blind-ly	- PAGES 15a, 16a
\¬blin-(d)lē\ adv — pur-blind-ness \¬blin(d)-nəs\ л	
pur-dah \'pord->\ n [Hindi parda, lit., screen, veil]: seclusion of women from public observation among Muslims and some Hindus	UDDOTO300
esp. in India	uppercase
Pyram.i.don \pa-'ram-a-dan\ trademark — used for aminopyring.	PAGE 14a
pyre \'pi(a)r\ n [L pyra, fr. Gk, fr. pyr fire — more at FIRE]: a	
pyra \pi(a)r\ n [L pyra, fr. Gk, fr. pyr fire — more at FIRE]: a combustible heap for burning a dead body as a funeral rite: broadly	Licego noto
: a pile of material to be burned 	usage note
	PAGES 16a, 17a
	verbal illustration
	PAGE 16e
	L PAGE /OF

Explanatory Notes

Entries

A boldface letter or a combination of such letters set flush with the left-hand margin of each column of type is a main entry. The main entry may consist of letters set solid, of letters joined by a hyphen, or of letters separated by one or more spaces:

> teach ... vb teach-in ... n teaching fellow n

The material in lightface type that follows each main entry on the same line and on succeeding indented lines explains and justifies its inclusion in the dictionary.

The main entries follow one another in alphabetical order letter by letter: book of account follows book-mobile. Those containing an Arabic numeral are alphabetized as if the numeral were spelled out: 3-D comes between three-color and three-decker. Those derived from proper names beginning with abbreviated forms of Mac- are alphabetized as if spelled mac-: McCoy comes after macaroon and before mace. Those that often begin with the abbreviation St. in common usage have the abbreviation spelled out: Saint Martin's summer.

A pair of guide words is printed at the top of each page. These indicate that the entries falling alphabetically between the words at the top of the outer column of each page are found on that page.

of each page are found on that page.

The guide words are the alphabetically first and usually the alphabetically last entries on the page:

aposelene appellation

Occasionally the last printed entry is not the alphabetically last entry. On page 124, for example, bold-faced is the last printed entry, but boldness, run on at bold, is the alphabetically last entry and is therefore the second guide word. The alphabetically last entry is not used, however, if it follows alphabetically the first guide word on the succeeding page. Thus on page 113 bitterness is not a guide word because it follows alphabetically the fourth homograph bitter which is the first guide word on page 114. Any boldface word—a main entry with definition, a variant, an inflected form, a defined or undefined run-on, or an entry in a list of self-explanatory words—may be used as a guide word.

When one main entry has exactly the same written form as another, the two are distinguished by super-script numerals preceding each word:

¹man ... n ¹quail ... n
²man vt ²quail vb

Sometimes such homographs are related: the two entries man are derived from the same root. Sometimes there is no relationship: the two entries quail are unrelated

beyond the accident of spelling. The order of homographs is usually historical: the one first used in English is entered first.

Words precede word elements made up of the same letters; solid compounds precede hyphened compounds; hyphened compounds precede open compounds; and lowercase entries precede those with an initial capital:

mini ... n
mini- comb form
work-up ... n
work-up ... n
work up ... v
ti-ta-nia ... n
Ti-ta-nia ... n

The centered periods within entry words indicate division points at which a hyphen may be put at the end of a line of print or writing. Thus the noun re-frig-er-a-tor may be ended on one line with:

rerefrigrefrigerefrigera-

and continued on the next with:

-frigerator -erator -ator -tor

Centered periods are not shown after a single initial letter or before a single terminal letter because printers seldom cut off a single letter:

aplemb ... n hoery ... adj idea ... n

Nor are they shown at the second and succeeding homographs of a word:

¹mes-ter ... n
²mester ... w
³mester adj

There are acceptable alternative end-of-line divisions just as there are acceptable variant spellings and pronunciations. It is, for example, all but impossible to produce a convincing argument that either of the divisions aus-ter-i-ty, au-ster-i-ty is better than the other. But space cannot be taken for entries like aus-ter-i-ty or au-ster-i-ty, and au-s-ter-i-ty would likely be confusing to many. No more than one division is, therefore, shown for any entry in this dictionary.

Many words have two or more common pronunciation variants, and the same end-of-line division is not always appropriate for each of them. The division pi-an-ist, for example, best fits the variant \pe-'an-ost\ whereas the division pi-a-nist best fits the variant \'pē-a-nast\. In instances like this, the division falling farthest to the left is used, regardless of the order of the pronunciations:

pi-a-niet \pē-'an-əst, 'pē-ə-nəst\

When a main entry is followed by the word or and another spelling, the two spellings are equal variants. Both are standard, and either one may be used according to personal inclination:

the ater or the atre

If two variants joined by or are out of alphabetical order, they remain equal variants. The one printed first is, however, slightly more common than the second:

coun-sel-or or coun-sel-lor

When another spelling is joined to the main entry by the word also, the spelling after also is a secondary variant and occurs less frequently than the first:

lov-able also love-able

Secondary variants belong to standard usage and may be used according to personal inclination. If there are two secondary variants, the second is joined to the first by or. Once the word also is used to signal a secondary variant, all following variants are joined by or:

Shake-spear-ean or Shake-spear-ian also Shak-sper-ean or Shak-sper-ian

Variants whose spelling places them alphabetically more than a column away from the main entry are entered at their own alphabetical places and usually not at the main entry:

hainuikah ... war of HANUKKAH

rime, rimer, rimester var of RHYME. RHYMER. RHYMESTER

Variants having a usage label appear only at their own alphabetical places:

fla-vour chiefly Brit war of FLAVOR

agin . . . dial war of AGAINST

To show all the stylings that are found for English compounds would require space that can be better used for other information. So this dictionary limits itself to a single styling for a compound:

week-end

red-eye

high school

When a compound is widely used and one styling predominates, that styling is shown. When a compound is uncommon or when the evidence indicates that two or three stylings are approximately equal in frequency, the styling shown is based on the analogy of paralle! compounds.

A main entry may be followed by one or more derivatives or by a homograph with a different functional label. These are run-on entries. Each is introduced by a lightface dash and each has a functional label. They are not defined, however, since their meanings are readily derivable from the meaning of the root word:

²question $v_1 \dots$ question er n

¹fun-ny ... adj ... — fun-ni-ly ... adv — fun-ni-ness ... n

mu-tant ... adj ... — mutant n

A main entry may be followed by one or more phrases containing the entry word or an inflected form of it.

These are also run-on entries. Each is introduced by a lightface dash but there is no functional label. They, are, however, defined since their meanings are more than the sum of the meanings of their elements:

> ¹call ... vb ... -- call one's bluff: ... 2mend n ... -- on the mend: ...

Defined phrases of this sort are run on at the entry constituting the first major element in the phrase. When there are variants, however, the run-on appears at the entry constituting the first major invariable element in the phrase:

'clock ... n ... - kill the clock or run out the clock: ... iseed ... n ... --- go to seed or run to seed: ...

Attention is called to the definition of vocabulary entry on page 1310. The term dictionary entry includes all vocabulary entries as well as all boldface entries in the separate sections of the back matter headed "Foreign Words and Phrases," "Biographical Names," "Geographical Names," and "Colleges and Universities."

Pronunciation

The matter between a pair of reversed virgules \ following the entry word indicates the pronunciation. The symbols used are explained in the chart printed inside the front and back covers of this dictionary and on page 32a. For a detailed discussion of these symbols and related matters, the serious student is referred to "A Guide to Pronunciation" in Webster's Third New International Dictionary.

A hyphen is used in the pronunciation to show syllabic division. These hyphens sometimes coincide with the centered periods in the entry word that indicate end-of-line division; sometimes they do not:

dis-cov-er \dis-kov-or\

1met-ric \me-trik\

A high-set mark ' indicates major (primary) stress or accent; a low-set mark, indicates minor (secondary) stress or accent:

rough-neck \'rof-nek\

The stress mark stands at the beginning of the syllable that receives the stress.

The presence of variant pronunciations indicates that not all educated speakers pronounce words the same way. A second-place variant is not to be regarded as less acceptable than the pronunciation that is given first. It may, in fact, be used by as many educated speakers as the first variant, but the requirements of the printed page are such that one must precede the other:

> apri-cot \'ap-ro-kät, 'ä-pro-\ for-eign \for-on, far-\

A variant that is appreciably less common than the preceding variant is preceded by the word also:

col·league \'käl-æg also -ig\

Sometimes a regional label precedes a variant:

'great \'grat, South also 'gre(a)t\

Symbols enclosed by parentheses represent elements that are present in the pronunciation of some speakers but are absent from the pronunciation of other speakers, elements that are present in some but absent from other utterances of the same speaker, or elements whose presence or absence is uncertain:

Explanatory Notes

hap-pen ... vi ...hap-pen-ing \hap-(>-)nin\
sat-is-fac-to-ry \sat->s-'fak-t(>-)rē\
re-sponse \ri-'spān(t)s\

Thus, the parentheses at happening mean that there are some who pronounce the \geqslant between $p\$ and $n\$ and others who do not pronounce it.

When a main entry has less than a full pronunciation, the missing part is to be supplied from a pronunciation in a preceding entry or within the same pair of reversed virgules:

cham-pi-on-ship \-ship\

Ma-dei-ra \mo-'dir-ə, -'der-\

The pronunciation of the first three syllables of *championship* is found at the main entry *champion*:

¹cham-pi-on *cham-pē-ən\

The hyphens before and after \'der\\ in the pronunciation of *Madeira* indicate that both the first and the last parts of the pronunciation are to be taken from the immediately preceding pronunciation.

In general, no pronunciation is indicated for open compounds consisting of two or more English words that have own-place entry:

kangaroo court n

Only the first entry in a sequence of numbered homographs is given a pronunciation if their pronunciations are the same:

1re-ward \ri-two(a)rd\

²reward

Pronunciations are shown for obsolete words only if they occur in Shakespeare:

clois-tress \"klòi-strəs\ n, obs

The pronunciation of unpronounced derivatives and compounds run on at a main entry is a combination of the pronunciation at the main entry and the pronunciation of the suffix or final element as given at its alphabetical place in the vocabulary:

- oval-ness n

-over one's head

Thus, the pronunciation of ovalness is the sum of the pronunciations given at oval and -ness; that of over one's head, the sum of the pronunciation of the three elements that make up the phrase.

Partial pronunciations are usually shown when two or more variants have a part in common. When a variation of stress is involved, a partial pronunciation may be terminated at the stress mark which stands at the beginning of a syllable not shown:

di-verse \di-vers, de-', 'di-\

an-cho-vy \'an-,chō-vē, an-'\

In some cases the pronunciation of a word or compound shows no major (primary) stress. One such class of words includes those that occur in main entries only as elements of an open compound. The stress shown for these words is the usual stress in the compound and may be less than major (primary):

clum-ber spaniel \klam-bar-\

In other contexts the word may have major (primary) stress, as in "Is that spaniel a clumber?"

Functional Labels

An italic label indicating a part of speech or some other functional classification follows the pronunciation or, if no pronunciation is given, the main entry. The eight traditional parts of speech are indicated as follows:

de-cep-tive ... adj war-den ... n
hap-pi-ly ... adv of ... prep
be-cause ... conj they ... pron
hey ... interj re-lax ... vb

If a verb is both transitive and intransitive, the labels vt and vi introduce the subdivisions:

pen-e-trate ... vb ... vt ... ~ vi

A boldface swung dash \sim is used to stand for the main entry (as *penetrate*) and separate the subdivisions of the verb. If there is no subdivision, vt or vi takes the place of vb:

in-fect ... vt

2vacation vi

Labeling a verb as transitive, however, does not preclude occasional intransitive use (as in absolute constructions).

Other italicized labels used to indicate functional classifications that are not traditional parts of speech are:

alt ... abbr -ness ... n suffix

tele- or tel- comb form -ize ... vb suffix

-onym ... n comb form Fe symbol

-gen-ic ... adj comb form Fris-bee ... trademark

1-pro- prefix must ... verbal auxiliary

Air Express service mark gid-dap ... vb imper

1-ic ... adj suffix me-seems ... vb impersonal

Two functional labels are sometimes combined:

zilch ... adj or n
1le-ga-to ... adv or adj

Inflected Forms

NOUNS

The plurals of nouns are shown in this dictionary when suffixation brings about a change of final -y to -i-, when the noun ends in a consonant plus -o or in -ey, when the noun ends in -oo, when the noun has an irregular plural or a zero plural or a foreign plural, when the noun is a compound that pluralizes any element but the last, when the noun has variant plurals, and when it is believed that the dictionary user might have reasonable doubts about the spelling of the plural or when the plural is spelled in a way contrary to expectations:

2fly n, pl flies
to-ma-to ... n, pl -toes
val-ley ... n, pl valleys
2boo n, pl boos
1mouse ... n, pl mice
sheep ... n, pl sheep
alum-nus ... n, pl -ni

moth-er-in-law ... n, pl mothers-in-law

1seed ... n, pl seed or seeds

1pi ... n, pl pis

3dry n, pl drys

Cutback inflected forms are used when the noun has three or more syllables:

```
an-i-mos-i-ty ... n, pl -ties
```

The plurals of nouns are usually not shown when the base word is unchanged by suffixation, when the noun is a compound whose second element is readily recognizable as a regular free form entered at its own place, or when the noun is unlikely to occur in the plural:

1cat ... n
1church ... n
gad-fly ... n
al-che-my ... n

Nouns that are plural in form and that regularly occur in plural construction are labeled n pl:

en-vi-rons ... n pl

Nouns that are plural in form but that are not always construed as plurals are appropriately labeled:

genetics ... n pl but sing in constr forty winks n pl but sing or pl in constr

A noun that is singular in construction takes a singular verb when it is used as a subject; a noun that is plural in construction takes a plural verb when it is used as a subject.

VERBS

The principal parts of verbs are shown in this dictionary when suffixation brings about a doubling of a final consonant or an elision of a final -e or a change of final -y to -i-, when final -c changes to -ck in suffixation, when the verb ends in -ey, when the inflection is irregular, when there are variant inflected forms, and when it is believed that the dictionary user might have reasonable doubts about the spelling of an inflected form or when the inflected form is spelled in a way contrary to expectations:

3brag vb bragged; brag-ging

1blame ... vt blamed; blam-ing

1spy ... vb spied; spy-ing

2pic-nic ... vt pic-nicked; pic-nick-ing

2volley vb vol-leyed; vol-ley-ing

3ring vb rang ...; rung ...; ring-ing

4bias vt bi-ased or bi-assed; bi-as-ing or bi-as-sing

2visa vt vi-saed ...; vi-sa-ing

2chagrin vt cha-grined ...; cha-grin-ing

The principal parts of a regularly inflected verb are shown when it is desirable to indicate the pronunciation of one of the inflected forms:

3spell vb spelled \'speld, 'spell\'; spell-ing

2but-ton ... vb but-toned; but-ton-ing \bet-nin, -n-in\

Cutback inflected forms are often used when the verb has three or more syllables, when it is a disyllable that ends in -l and has variant spellings, and when it is a compound whose second element is readily recognized as an irregular verb:

de-i-fy ... vr -fied; -fy-ing

**carol vb -oled or -olled; -ol-ing or -ol-ling

with-draw vb -draw ...; -drawn ...; -draw-ing

The principal parts of verbs are usually not shown when the base word is unchanged by suffixation or when the verb is a compound whose second element is readily recognizable as a regular free form entered at its own place:

> 4halt ... vi dis-sat-is-fy ... vb

ADJECTIVES & ADVERBS

The comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs are shown in this dictionary when suffixation brings about a doubling of a final consonant or an elision of a final -e or a change of final -y to -i-, when the word ends in -ey, when the inflection is irregular, and when there are variant inflected forms:

1red ... adj red-der; red-dest
1bare ... adj bar-er; bar-est
1heavy ... adj heavi-er; -est
1ear-ly ... adv ear-li-er; -est
hom-ey also homy ... adj hom-i-er; -est
1good ... adj bet-ter ...; best
2ill ... adv worse; worst
1shy ... adj shi-er or shy-er ...; shi-est or shy-est

Adjectives and adverbs of two or more syllables are usually cut back:

come-ly ... adj come-li-er; -est ²easy adv eas-i-er; -est

The comparative and superlative forms of regularly inflected adjectives and adverbs are shown when it is desirable to indicate the pronunciation of the inflected forms:

'long \'lon\ adj lon-ger \'lon-ger\; lon-gest \'lon-gest\

The inclusion of inflected forms in -er and -est a adjective and adverb entries means nothing more about the use of more and most with these adjectives and adverbs than that their comparative and superlative degrees may be expressed in either way: lazier or more lazy; laziest or most lazy.

At a few adjective entries only the superlative form is shown:

mere ... adj mer-est

The absence of the comparative form indicates that there is no evidence of its use.

The comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs are not shown when the base word is unchanged by suffixation or when the word is a compound whose second element is readily recognizable as a regular free form entered at its own place:

¹full ... adj ûn-lucky ... adj

The comparative and superlative forms of adverbs are not shown when they are identical with the inflected forms of a preceding adjective homograph:

1hot ... adj hot-ter; hot-test 2hot adv

Inflected forms are not shown at undefined run-ons or at some entries bearing a limiting label:

Jac-o-bin ... n ...— jac-o-bin-ize ... w

Ilampoon vt ...— lam-poon-ery ... n

Inet ... n ...— net-ty ... adj

Coote ... vt ... obs : to pass by

Crouse ... adj ... chiefly Scot : BRISK LIVELY

Explanatory Notes

Capitalization

Most entries in this dictionary begin with a lowercase letter. A few of these have an italicized label often cap, which indicates that the word is as likely to be capitalized as not, that it is as acceptable with an uppercase initial as it is with one in lowercase. Some entries begin with an uppercase letter, which indicates that the word is usually capitalized. The absence of an initial capital or of an often cap label indicates that the word is not ordinarily capitalized:

mas-sive ... adj
an-gli-cize ... vt ... often cap

The capitalization of entries that are open or hyphened compounds is similarly indicated by the form of the entry or by an italicized label:

ice cream ... n

Ifrench fry vt. often cap 1st F

neo-im-pres-sion-ism ... n, often cap N&I

non-Com-mu-nist ... adj

Irish setter n

Memorial Day n

A word that is capitalized in some senses and lowercase in others shows variations from the form of the main entry by the use of italicized labels at the appropriate senses:

Gyp-sy ... n ... 3 not cap

Sal-va-tion-ist ... n ... 2 often not cap

1 mass ... n ... 1 cap

es-tab-lish-ment ... n ... 2 ... b often cap

Attributive Nouns

The italicized label often attrib placed after the functional label n indicates that the noun is often used as an adjective equivalent in attributive position before another noun:

ap-ple ... n, often attrib

Examples of the attributive use of these nouns are apple pie and dog license.

While any noun may occasionally be used attributively, the label often attrib is limited to those having broad attributive use. This label is not used when an adjective homograph (as iron or paper) is entered. And it is not used at open compounds (as X ray) that may be used attributively with an inserted hyphen (as in X-ray therapy).

Etymology

The matter in boldface square brackets preceding the definition is the etymology. Meanings given in roman type within these brackets are not definitions of the entry, but are meanings of the Middle English, Old English, or non-English words within the brackets.

The etymology traces a vocabulary entry as far back

The etymology traces a vocabulary entry as far back as possible in English (as to Old English), tells from

what language and in what form it came into English, and (except in the case of such words outside the general vocabulary of English as dacha and talipot) traces the pre-English source as far back as possible. These etyma are printed in italics.

The etymology usually gives the Middle English and the Old English forms of words in the following style:

```
'reed ... n [ME rede, fr. OE hrēod ...]

'hate ... n [ME, fr. OE hete ...]
```

An etymology in which a word is traced back to Middle English but not to Old English indicates that the word is found in Niddle English but not in those texts that have survived from the Old English period:

```
    lclog ... n [ME clogge short thick piece of wood]
    rub ... vb [ME rubben; akin to Icel rubba to scrape]
```

An etymology in which a word is traced back directly to Old English with no intervening mention of Middle English indicates that the word has not survived continuously from Old English times to the present. Rather, it died out after the Old English period and has been revived in modern times:

```
Gent ... n [OE Geat]
thegn ... n [OE ...]
```

The etymology gives the language from which words borrowed into English have come. It also gives the form or a transliteration of the word in that language if the form differs from that in English:

```
¹fes-ti-val ... adj [ME, fr. MF, fr. L festivus festive]
linn ... n [ScGael linne pool]
¹school ... n [ME scole, fr. OE scol, fr. L schola ...]
smor-gas-bord ... n [Sw smörgåsbord ...]
```

In a few cases the expression "deriv. of" replaces the more usual "fr." This expression indicates that one or more intermediate steps have been omitted in tracing the derivation of the form preceding the expression from the form following it:

```
gal·ley ... n [...OF galie, deriv. of MGk galea]
```

An etymology is not usually given for a word created in English by the combination of existing constituents or by functional shift. This indicates that the identity of the constituents is expected to be self-evident to the user:

```
like-ness ... n 1: the quality or state of being like
tone-deaf ... adj: relatively insensitive to differences in musical
pitch
tooth-paste ... n: a paste for cleaning the teeth
profit system n: FREE ENTERPRISE
```

```
2wheel vi 1: to turn on or as if on an axis ...
```

In the case of a family of words obviously related to a common English word but differing from it by containing various easily recognizable suffixes, an etymology is usually given only at the base word, even though some of the derivatives may have been formed in a language other than English:

```
'im-mor-tal ... adj [ME, fr. L immortalis ...] 1: exempt from death
```

```
im-mor-tal-i-ty ... n: the quality or state of being immortal
```

The word immortality was actually borrowed into Middle English (via Middle French) from Latin immortalitas.

Much of the technical vocabulary of the sciences and

other specialized studies consists of words or word elements that are current in two or more languages, with only such slight modifications as are necessary to adapt them to the structure of the individual language in each case. Many words and word elements of this kind have become sufficiently a part of the general vocabulary of English as to require entry in an abridged dictionary. Because of the vast extent of the relevant published material in many languages and in many scientific and other specialized fields, it is impracticable to ascertain the language of origin of every such term. Yet it would not be accurate to formulate a statement about the origin of any such term in a way that could be interpreted as implying that it was coined in English. Accordingly, whenever a term that is entered in this dictionary belongs recognizably to this class of inter-nationally current terms and whenever no positive evidence is at hand to show that it was coined in English, the etymology recognizes its international status and the possibility that it originated elsewhere than in English by use of the label ISV (for International Scientific Vocabulary):

```
mega-watt ... n [ISV]

phy-lo-ge-net-lc ... adj [ISV, fr. NL phylogenesis ...]

1-ol ... n suffix [ISV, fr. alcohol]
```

An etymology beginning with the name of a language (including ME or OE) and not giving the foreign (or Middle English or Old English) form indicates that this form is the same as that of the entry word:

```
'tan-go ... n ... [AmerSp]
'po-grom ... n [Yiddish, fr. Russ ...]
'gang ... n [ME, fr. OE ...]
```

An etymology beginning with the name of a language (including ME or OE) and not giving the foreign (or Middle English or Old English) meaning indicates that this meaning is the same as that expressed in the first definition in the entry:

```
vig-or-ous ... adj [ME, fr. MF, fr. OF, fr. vigor] 1: possessing vigor
```

When an entry word is derived from an earlier Modern English word that is not entered in this dictionary, the meaning of such a word is given in parentheses:

³press vb [alter. of obs. prest (to enlist by giving pay in advance)]

Small superscript figures following words or syllables in an etymology refer to the tone of the word or syllable which they follow. They are, accordingly, used only with forms cited from tone languages:

chow mein ... n [Chin (Pek) ch'ao3 mien4, fr. ch'ao3 to fry + mien4 dough]

'voe-doo ... n ... [LaF *woudou*, of African origin; akin to Ewe $wo^{\dagger}du^{\dagger}$ tutelary deity, demon]

When the source of a word appearing as a main entry is unknown, the expression "origin unknown" is usually used. Only in rare and exceptional circumstances (as with some ethnic names) does the absence of an etymology mean that it has not been possible to furnish any informative etymology. More often, it means that no etymology is believed to be necessary. This is the case, for instance, with most of the entries identified as variants and with many derivatives.

When a word has been traced back to the earliest language in which it is attested, and if this is an Indo-European language, selected cognates in other Indo-European languages, (especially Old High German, Latin, and Greek) are usually given:

tone ... add [ME on. fr. OE the shin to OHG. one, L unus (OL oince), Sky ske]

equine ... adj [L equinus, fr. equus horse; akin to OE eoh horse, Gk hippos]

Sometimes, however, to avoid space-consuming repetition, the expression "more at" directs the user to another entry where the cognates are given:

2thought n [ME, fr. OE theht; akin to GE thencan to think --- more at THINK]

Besides the use of "akin to" to denote an ordinary cognate relationship, some etymologies make special use of "akin to" as part of a longer formula "of—origin; akin to—." This formula indicates that a word was borrowed from some language belonging to a group of languages whose name is inserted in the blank before the word origin, that it is impossible to say that the word in question is a borrowing of a particular attested word in a particular language of the source group, and that the form cited in the blank after the expression akin to is a cognate of the word in question as attested within the source group:

Ca-noe ... n [F, fr. NL canos. fr. Sp. fr. Arawakan, of Cariban origin; akin to Galibi canaoua]

*cant a [ME, prob. fr. MD or ONF; MD, edge, corner, fr. ONF, fr. L canthus, cantus iron tire, perh. of Celt origin; akin to W cant rim; akin to Gk kanthos corner of the eye]

This last example shows the two contrasting uses of "akin to." The word cited immediately after "of Celt origin; akin to" is a Celtic cognate of the presumed Celtic source word from which the Latin word was borrowed. The word cited after the second "akin to" is a further cognate from another Indo-European language.

When the origin of a word is traced to the name of a person or place not further identified, additional information may be found in the Biographical Names or Geographical Names section in the back matter:

```
new-ton ... n [Sir Isaac Newton] cali-co ... n ... [Calicut. India]
```

Usage

Three types of status labels are used in this dictionary—temporal, regional, and stylistic—to signal that a word or a sense of a word is not part of the standard vocabulary of English.

The temporal label obs for "obsolete" means that there is no evidence of use since 1755:

```
egal ... adj ... obs
har-di-ment ... n ... 2 obs
```

The label obs is a comment on the word being defined. When a thing, as distinguished from the word used to designate it, is obsolete, appropriate orientation is usually given in the definition:

*cat-a-pult ... n ... 1: an asscient military device for hurling missiles

2ruff n ... 1: a wheel-shaped stiff collar worn by men and weemen of the late 16th and early 17th conturies

The temporal label archale means that a word or sense once in common use is found today only sporadically or in special contexts:

```
eft soons . pdv . . archaic 2 tonder . . vi . . 2 archaic
```

A word or sense limited in use to a specific region of the U.S. has a label that corresponds loosely to one of the areas defined in Hans Kurath's Word Geography of the Eastern United States. The adverb chiefly precedes a label when the word has some currency outside the specified region, and a double label is used to indicate considerable currency in each of two specific regions:

ban-nock n 2 NewEng

ban-quette n 1 b South

cal-cu-late vt 3 chiefly North

can-ti-na n 1 Southwest

em-bar-ca-de-ro n West

goo-ber n South & Midland

jolt-wag-on n, Midland

1pot-latch n 2 Northwest

Words current in all regions of the U.S. have no label.

A word or sense limited in use to one of the other countries of the English-speaking world has an appropriate regional label:

bairn ... n ... chiefly Scot
be-gor-ra ... interj ... Irish
bil-la-bong ... n ... 1 Austral
com-man-do ... n ... 1 So Afr
corn flour n, Brit
foot-ball ... n 1 ... e Canad
3gang vi ... Scot
gar-ron ... n ... Scot & Irish

The label dial for "dialect" indicates that the pattern of use of a word or sense is too complex for summary labeling: it usually includes several regional varieties of American English or of American and British English:

crit-ter ... n ... dial

The label dial Brit indicates currency in several dialects of the British Commonwealth; dial Engindicates currency in one or more provincial dialects of England:

**lair ... n ... 1 dial Brit few-trils ... n ... dial Eng

The stylistic label slang is used with words or senses that are especially appropriate in contexts of extreme informality, that usually have a currency not limited to a particular region or area of interest, and that are composed typically of shortened forms or extravagant or facetious figures of speech:

clip joint n 1 slang: a place of public entertainment (as a nightclub) that makes a practice of defrauding patrons (as by overcharging)

horn-swog-gle ... vt ... slang : BAMBOOZLE HOAX

1prof ... n. slang: PROFESSOR

There is no satisfactory objective test for slang, especially with reference to a word out of context. No word, in fact, is invariably slang, and many standard words can be given slang applications.

The stylistic label nonstand for "nonstandard" is used for a few words or senses that are disapproved by many but that have some currency in reputable contexts:

ir-re-gard-less . . . adv . . . nonstand

lay ... vi ... 2 nonstand

The stylistic label substand for "substandard" is used for those words or senses that conform to a widespread pattern of usage that differs in choice of word or form from that of the prestige group of the community:

ain't ... 2 substand

learn ... vt ... 2 a substand

A subject label or guide phrase is sometimes used to indicate the specific application of a word or sense:

ape-ri-od-ic ... adj ... 3 cryptology hemi-he-dral ... adj ... of a crystal lose ... vi ... 3 of a timepiece

In general, however, subject orientation is given in the definition:

Gun-ther ... n ...: a Burgundian king and husband of Brunhild in Germanic legend

blitz ... n ... 2 b: a rush of the passer by the defensive linebackers in football

Definitions are sometimes followed by verbal illustrations that show a typical use of the word in context. These illustrations are enclosed in angle brackets, and the word being illustrated is usually replaced by a lightface swung dash. The swung dash stands for the boldface entry word, and it may be followed by an italicized suffix:

large-print ... adj ... <~ books>

3low adj ... 11 ... <had a ~ opinion of him>

2mess ... vi ... 4 c ... <~ ing in other people's affairs>
proud ... adj ... 2 b ... est moment in her life>

The swung dash is not used when the form of the boldface entry word is changed in suffixation, and it is not used for open compounds:

dare ... vt ... 1 a ... < dared him to jump>

upper hand $n ext{ ... } < was determined not to let his opponent get the upper hand>$

Illustrative quotations are also used to show words in typical contexts:

% with in ... adv 2 ... < search \sim for a creative impulse — Kingman Brewster, Jr.>

Omissions in quotations are indicated by suspension points:

¹jog ... v_i ... 1; ... < his ... holster jogging against his hip —Thomas Williams>

Definitions are sometimes followed by usage notes that give supplementary information about such matters as idiom, syntax, semantic relationship, and status. A usage note is introduced by a lightface dash:

1stead ... n ... 2: ...— used chiefly in the phrase to stand one in good stead

3zero vi ... 2 a: ... — usu, used with in
ad-e-noid ... n ...: ... — usu, used in pl.
1guide ... n ... 3: ... — used esp. in commands

¹pi-a-nis-si-mo ... ' adv or adj ... : ... — used as a direction in music

dick ... n ... 2: ...— usu. considered vulgar

Po-lack ... n ... 2: ... usu. used disparagingly

Two or more usage notes are separated by a semicolon:

²cat ... vi ... -- often used with around; often considered vulgar

Sometimes a usage note is used in place of a definition. Some function words (as conjunctions and prepositions) have little or no semantic content; most interjections express feelings but are otherwise untranslatable into meaning; and some other words (as oaths and honorific titles) are more amenable to comment than to definition:

if ... conj ... 3 — used as a function word to introduce an exclamation expressing a wish

1for ... prep ... 9 — used as a function word to indicate duration of time or extent of space

2ouch interj ... -- used esp. to express sudden pain

3gad interj ... - used as a mild oath

*lord ... n ... 4 --- used as a British title

Sense Division

. .

A boldface colon is used in this dictionary to introduce a definition:

debutante ... n ...: a young woman making her formal entrance into society

It is also used to separate two or more definitions of a single sense:

²imitation adj: resembling something else that is usu. genuine and of better quality: not real

Boldface Arabic numerals separate the senses of a word that has more than one sense:

²quiz vt ... 1: to make fun of: MOCK 2: to look at inquisitively 3: to question closely

Boldface lowercase letters separate the subsenses of a word:

¹pack ... n ... 2 a: the contents of a bundle b: a large amount or number: HEAP c: a full set of playing cards

Lightface numerals in parentheses indicate a further division of subsenses:

*re-treat ... n ... 1 a (1): an act or process of withdrawing ... (2): the process of receding ... b (1): the usu. forced withdrawal of troops ... (2): a signal for retreating ...

A lightface colon following a definition and immediately preceding two or more subsenses indicates that the subsenses are subsumed by the preceding definition:

huge ... adj ...: very large or extensive: as **a:** of great size or area **b:** great in scale or degree ... **c:** great in scope or character

*pe-cu-liar ... adj ... 3: different from the usual or normal: a: SPECIAL PARTICULAR b: CURIOUS c: ECCENTRIC QUEER

The word as may or may not follow the lightface colon. Its presence (as at huge) indicates that the following subsenses are typical or significant examples. Its absence (as at peculiar) indicates that the subsenses which follow are exhaustive.

The system of separating the various senses of a word by numerals and letters is a lexical convenience. It reflects something of their semantic relationship, but it does not evaluate senses or set up a hierarchy of importance among them.

Sometimes a particular semantic relationship between senses is suggested by the use of one of four italic sense dividers: esp, specif, also, or broadly.

The sense divider esp (for especially) is used to introduce the most common meaning subsumed in the more general preceding definition:

```
chick ... n 1 a: CHICKEN: esp: one newly hatched
```

The sense divider *specif* (for *specifically*) is used to introduce a common but highly restricted meaning subsumed in the more general preceding definition:

2pitcher n: one that pitches; *specif*: the player that pitches in a game of baseball

The sense divider also is used to introduce a meaning that is closely related to but may be considered less important than the preceding sense:

Mosalle ... n ... a white table wine made in the valley of the Moselle; also: a similar wine made elsewhere

The sense divider *broadly* is used to introduce an extended or wider meaning of the preceding definition:

buil's-eye ... n ... 3 b: a shot that hits the buil's-eye; broadly : something that precisely attains a desired end

The order of senses is historical: the sense known to have been first used in English is entered first. This is not to be taken to mean, however, that each sense of a multisense word developed from the immediately preceding sense. It is altogether possible that sense 1 of a word has given rise to sense 2 and sense 2 to sense 3, but frequently sense 2 and sense 3 may have arisen independently of one another from sense 1.

Information coming between the entry word and the first definition of a multisense word applies to all senses and subsenses. Information applicable only to some senses or subsenses is given between the appropriate boldface numeral or letter and the symbolic colon:

```
      ole-in ... n ... 2 also ole-ine \-on, -sen\

      cru-ci-fix-ion ... n ... 1 a ... b cap

      ¹tile ... n ... 1 pl tiles or tile a: ...

      ²palm n ... 3 [L palmus, fr. palma]
```

When an italicized label or guide phrase follows a boldface numeral, the label or phrase applies only to that specific numbered sense and its subsenses. It does not apply to any other boldface numbered senses:

```
ro-ta ... n ... 1 chiefly Brit : ... 2 cap ...
ro-man-ti-cism ... n 1 : ... 2 often cap a (1) : ... (2) : ... b : ...
```

At rota, the chiefly Brit label applies to sense 1 but not to sense 2. The cap label applies to sense 2 but not to sense 1.

At romanticism, the often cap label applies to all the subsenses of sense 2 but not to sense 1.

When an italicized label or guide phrase follows a boldface letter, the label or phrase applies only to that specific lettered sense and its subsenses. It does not apply to any other boldface lettered senses:

```
¹hearse ... n ... 2 a archaic : ... b obs
```

The archaic label applies to sense 2a but not to sense 2b. The obs label applies to sense 2b but not to sense 2a

When an italicized label or guide phrase follows a parenthesized numeral, the label or phrase applies only to that specific numbered sense:

```
1matter ... n ... 1 ... h (1) obs : REASON. CAUSE
```

The obs label applies to sense 1h (1) and to no other subsenses of the word.

Names of Plants & Animals

An entry that defines the name of a plant or animal (as peach or lion) is a taxonomic entry. Such entries employ in part a formal codified vocabulary of New Latin names—taxa—that has been developed and used by biologists in accordance with international codes of botanical and of zoological nomenclature for the purpose of identifying and indicating the relationships of plants and animals. Names of taxa higher than the genus (as class, order, and family) are capitalized plural nouns which are often used with singular verbs and which are not abbreviated in normal use.

The genus is the fundamental taxon. It names a group of closely related kinds of plants (as Prunus, which includes the wild and cultivated cherries, apricots, peaches, and almonds) or animals (as Felis, which includes domestic and wild cats, lions, tigers, and

cougars). It is a capitalized singular noun.

Each organism has one—and only one—correct name under these codes. The name for a species—the binomial or species name—consists of a singular capitalized genus name combined with an uncapitalized specific epithet. For a variety or subspecies—a trinomial, variety name, or subspecies name—the name adds a similar varietal or subspecific epithet. Thus the cultivated cabbage (Brassica oleracea capitata), the cauliflower (Brassica oleracea botrytis), and the brussels sprout (Brassica oleracea gemmifera) belong to the same species (Brassica oleracea) of cole.

Taxa in this dictionary are enclosed in parentheses and usually come immediately after the primary orienting noun. Genus names as well as binomials and trinomials are italicized, but names of taxa above the

genus are not italicized:

ba-sid-io-my-cete ... n ...: any of a large class (Basidio-my-cetes) of higher fungi having septate hyphae, bearing spores on a basidium, and including rusts, smuts, mushrooms, and puffballs

n 1 a: a small European thrush (Erithacus rubecola) resembling a warbler and having a brownish olive back and yellowish red throat and breast b: any of various Old World songbirds that are related to or resemble the European robin 2: a large No. American thrush (Turdus migratorius) with olivaceous gray upperparts, blackish head and tail, black and whitish streaked throat, and chiefly dull reddish breast and underparts

Taxa are used in this dictionary to provide precise technical identifications through which defined terms may be pursued in technical writing. Because of their specialized nature, however, taxa do not have separate entries.

Taxonomic entries are usually oriented indirectly to higher taxa by other vernaculars (as by alga at seaweed or thrush at robin) or by technical adjectives (as by composite at daisy, leguminous at pea, or teleost at perch). Among the higher plants, except the composites and legumes and a few obscure tropical groups, such orientation is by a vernacular family name that is linked at the corresponding taxonomic entry to its technical equivalent:

beech n: any of a genus (Fagus of the family Fagaceae, the beech family) of hardwood trees with smooth gray bark and small edible nuts: also: its wood

bak ... n ... 1 a : a tree or shrub (genera Quercus or Lithocarpus) of the beech family that produces a rounded one seeded thin-shelled nut surrounded at the base by an indurated cup

A genus name may be abbreviated to its initial letter when it is used more than once in senses not separated by a boldface number:

nas-tur-tium n: any of a genus (*Tropaeolum* of the family Tropaeolaceae, the nasturtium family) of herbs with showy spurred flowers and pungent seeds; esp: either of two widely cultivated ornamentals (T. majus and T. minus) nas tur tium

Cross-Reference

Four different kinds of cross-references are used in this dictionary: directional, synonymous, cognate, and inflectional. In each instance the cross-reference is readily recognized by the lightface small capitals in which it is printed.

A cross-reference following a lightface dash and beginning with see or compare is a directional crossreference. It directs the dictionary user to look elsewhere for further information. A compare crossreference is regularly appended to a definition; a see cross-reference may stand alone:

plea ... n ... 2 ... m ... — compare DEMURRER

¹scru-ple ... n ... 1 —see WEIGHT table

A cross-reference immediately following a boldface colon is a synonymous cross-reference. It may stand alone as the only definitional matter for an entry or for a sense or subsense of an entry; it may follow an analytical definition; it may be one of two synonymous cross-references separated by a comma:

mul-ti-syl-lab-ic . . . adj : POLYSYLLABIC

drain-age ... n ... 2: a device for draining: DRAIN

drip-py ... adj ... 1: RAINY, DRIZZLY

A synonymous cross-reference indicates that a definition at the entry cross-referred to can be substituted as a definition for the entry or the sense or subsense in which the cross-reference appears.

A cross-reference following an italic var of is a cognate cross-reference:

fiord var of FJORD

Sometimes a cognate cross-reference has a limiting label preceding var of as a specific indication that the variant is not standard English:

mair ... chiefly Scot var of MORE

quare ... dial var of 'QUEER

sher-ris ... archaic war of SHERRY

A cross-reference following an italic label that identifies an entry as an inflected form of a noun, of an adjective or adverb, or of a verb is an inflectional cross-reference. Inflectional cross-references appear only when the inflected form falls at least a column away from the entry cross-referred to:

> mice pl of MOUSE sang past of SING

Synonyms & Antonyms

Synonymous words believed to be of interest to the dictionary user are listed in groups following the entry of one of the words in the group. (See, for example, talkative on page 1189.) They are signaled by an indented boldface italic syn. They are followed by a brief statement of their common denotation which is called the "shared meaning element" and by a list of antonyms which is identified by a prefixed boldface italic ant and is specific to the first member of the group.

Synonymous words believed to present special problems to the dictionary user are similarly listed and are, further, clearly discriminated and illustrated in an accompanying paragraph. (See, for example, 'gaudy

on page 475.)

When a word is included in a synonym list, the main entry of that word is followed by a run-on syn see—which refers to the entry where the synonym list may be found. Where appropriate, the run-on is followed by ant and any antonyms specific to the word. (See, for example, facetious on page 410.)

Combining Forms, Prefixes & Suffixes

An entry that begins or ends with a hyphen is a word element that forms part of an English compound:

self- comb form
-lo-gy ... n comb form ... <phraseology>
-lyze ... vb comb form ... <electrolyze>
pre- prefix ... prehistoric>
1-er ... adj suffix or adv suffix ... <hotter> <drier>
-ism ... n suffix ... <barbarian ism>
-fy ... vb suffix ... <citify>

Combining forms, prefixes, and suffixes are entered in this dictionary for three reasons: to make easier the writing of etymologies of words in which these word elements occur over and over again; to make understandable the meaning of many undefined run-ons which for reasons of space would be omitted if they had to be given etymologies and definitions; and to make recognizable the meaningful elements of new words that are not well enough established in the language to warrant dictionary entry.

Lists. of Undefined Words

Lists of undefined words occur after the entries of the prefixes non-, re-, and un-. These words are not defined because they are self-explanatory: their meanings are simply the sum of a meaning of the prefix combined with a meaning of the root word.

Abbreviations & Symbols

Abbreviations and symbols for chemical elements are included as main entries in the vocabulary:

acct abbr

Au symbol

Abbreviations have been normalized to one form. In practice, however, there is considerable variation in the use of periods and in capitalization (as mph, m.p.h., Mph, and MPH), and stylings other than those given in this dictionary are often acceptable.

Abbreviations regularly used in this dictionary are

listed separately on page 31a.

Symbols that are not capable of being alphabetized are included in a separate section of the back matter headed "Signs and Symbols."

The English Language and Its History

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English is undoubtedly the most important of the world's languages at the present time. In number of speakers it ranks second,1 with approximately 275 million native speakers, compared with 610 million native speakers of Mandarin Chinese. Spanish comes next, with 210 million, followed by Russian with 140 million and Hindi-Urdu and Arabic with 130 million each. Importance is not measured only by numbers, however. The uses to which a language is put and the extent of its international exposure are at least as important as the sheer bulk of native speakers. The worldwide use of English in diplomacy, commerce, and science is evidence of its importance in this regard, and serves to explain why many millions around the world find it desirable and sometimes necessary to learn it as a second language.

It is not the intrinsic superiority of English over other languages that has made it the premier world language. If it is richer in vocabulary, more flexible in grammar, and more expressive than other languages (and some would question at least the last two of these claims), these qualities are the results, not the causes, of its importance in the world. Simply stated, what makes a language important is the importance of the people who use it and the uses to which they put it. Since the eighteenth century, speakers of English—at first from the British Isles and later from America and the dominions—have played a dominant role in colonial expansion, industrial and technological development, and world politics. The position of English in the world is the direct result of the history of those who speak it.

What is modern English, this great world language, like? Before we can answer that question at all meaningfully, we must deal with the broader questions What is a language like? and What qualities, if any, are shared by all languages, regardless of their relative prominence or obscurity? These are questions which are central to the study called linguistics. They cannot be completely answered by linguistics in its present state; probably they will never be completely answered. But linguistics has progressed sufficiently so that partial answers, dealing with the larger aspects of the questions, can be tentatively suggested. Like the answers put forward by most sciences, these are subject to revision in the future as new insights and new techniques are brought to bear and new minds take up the old problems from new angles. All we can say is that this is what we know, or think we know, now.

In the first place, language is a uniquely human possession, at least in that little corner of the universe that we know about. All races, tribes, and families of men have language; no animals do. Some people might question the second of these statements,

1 According to figures compiled by the Center for Applied Linguistics, Arlington, Va., in 1976.

since we know that animals communicate with one another by sounds. But when we identify the particular qualities of genuine language, we discover that animal communication systems are different in several fundamental ways. Why this is so, when we share so much of our anatomy, physiology, and psychology with the animals, especially the apes and monkeys, science cannot yet clearly explain. It seems to be largely due to the structure of our brains, though other physical differences, especially in the anatomy of the throat and mouth, may have something to do with it. Much research is going on now in the attempt to answer this question. Meanwhile it is certainly a deeply ingrained part of our human nature to consider language as belonging to man alone. There is something a bit eerie about those animals, mostly birds, which can be taught to mimic the sounds of language. All the stories, whether fables, fairy tales, or fantasies, that endow animals with speech also give them other human qualities as well, so that they cease to be animals and become humans in disguise. On the other hand, we find it hard to imagine a human society lacking language. None has ever been found. If there still are tribes unknown to us living in isolation in Amazonian jungles, we are confident that they have language.

It is paradoxical that in spite of this universality of language among humans it still must be learned afresh by each individual person. There is considerable debate among linguists and psychologists as to how much of our linguistic ability we inherit and how much we have to learn from others. A conservative position would be that we inherit a remarkable aptitude for learning language, or at least one language, together with a very strong motivation to learn it early in life. Some linguists go much farther, as far as to maintain that we inherit not only an aptitude and a desire to learn, but actually a good part of the underlying system that is much the same in all languages. In any case, three conditions meet together to allow us to learn a language rapidly and successfully while we are still very young children: aptitude, strong motivation, and exposure to older people actually using language as they go about their lives. All normal children seem to have the first two of these; the third supplies the input which decides what particular language, or sometimes languages, we learn. It is thus a factor of our heredity that we are able and eager to learn a language, and an accident of our environment that the language we learn is English or French or some other of the three thousand or so living languages. The normal cir-cumstance is to learn the language surrounding us in early childhood and to speak it the rest of our lives; it is our NATIVE SPEECH OF MOTHER TONGUE. Occasionally the environment is such that the child learns two mother tongues at the same time and is thus a native bilingual. Even more rarely, the child