

# Oxford Student's Dictionary of AMERICAN English

A. S. Hornby

American Editors

Dolores Harris

William A. Stewart

Oxford New York
Oxford University Press
1983

Oxford University Press

Walton Street, Oxford OX2 6DP, England 200 Madison Avenue, New York, NY10016 USA

NY10016 USA

Oxford London Glasgow New York
Toronto Melbourne Wellington Cape Town
Nairobi Dar es Salaam Kuala Lumpur
Singapore Hong Kong Tokyo Delhi Bombay
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First Published 1983

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Printed in Hong Kong

## Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

Main entry under title:

Oxford student's dictionary of American English.

Adaptation of: Oxford student's dictionary of current English. 1978.

1. English language—Dictionaries. I. Hornby, Albert Sydney. II. Harris, Dolores. III. Stewart, William A. (William Alexander), 1930- . IV. Oxford student's dictionary of current English. PE1628.095 1983 423 83-2242

ISBN 0 19 431140 6 (hardback edition) ISBN 0 19 431142 2 (paperback edition)

## **Acknowledgments**

This dictionary is adapted from the Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English and changes made during the rewriting do not reflect the opinions of contributors to this volume.

I wish to thank the members of the English Language Teaching department of Oxford University Press, New York, who worked with the American editors from the beginning of the project to Americanize the Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English to the final editing: Marilyn Rosenthal, Laurie Likoff, Vicky Bijur, Catherine Clements, and Kathy Kutz, who researched the American photographs. I would like also to thank Norman MacAfee for his proofreading services during the last stage of the Dictionary.

N.Y.C.

1983

W.A.S.

Illustrations by:

arrangement.

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#### Preface

This Dictionary is an American adaptation of the Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English, with some inclusion of advanced level material from the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, somewhat expanded to serve learners of American English through the Intermediate level. It lists the more usual words, compounds, and idiomatic expressions that the learner is likely to hear in everyday conversation among educated Americans or to see written in letters, newspapers, and documents of the kind that one might be expected to encounter when beginning to work or study in the United States. This Dictionary also contains most of the words used in modern American books and periodicals of all but the most technical or literary kind. For listed words there is information on spelling, pronunciation, grammatical use, and meaning. In addition, there are often example sentences or phrases to illustrate details of usage, and special guidance is given on difficult points of spelling, pronunciation, and meaning.

The exclusive use of American spelling conventions should pose no problem to learners accustomed to British usage if a few general correspondences are kept in mind. These, however, have many exceptions and cannot be taken as a sure guide for converting from British to American spelling, or vice versa.

- American -er for British -re in some words; center:centre, theater: theatre (but both American and British neuter, acre).
- American -ize for the more frequently used -ise of British English; organize:organise (but both American and British recognize, advise).
- American (-)e- for British (-)ae-/(-)æ- or (-)oe-/(-)æ-; etiology:aetiology/ætiology, fetus:foetus/fætus.
- American -or for British -our in many words; color:colour, honor:honour, labor:labour (but both American and British glamour).
- American -l- for British -ll- when certain verbs ending in -l are inflected with -ing/-ed/-er; leveling:levelling, reveled:revelled, traveler:traveller.
- Different American and British spellings of individual words;
   American jail for British gaol, American check for British cheque.
- American use of the period (.) after certain kinds of abbreviations which may be without it in British usage; Mr./Dr.:Mr/Dr.

As with the spelling, the pronunciation indicated in this Dictionary is fully American. The tradition established in the Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English and the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English of using the phonetic symbols of the International Phonetic Association is continued here, but the shift in focus from British to American pronunciation has prompted some changes in the use of specific symbols as well as in the indication of stress and length. Teachers and learners who may take up the use of this Dictionary after having familiarized themselves with its British counterparts should keep the following changes in mind:

- The symbol /y/ is used instead of /j/ for the beginning sound of yes. This is the only true departure from the International Phonetic Association alphabet, but it is a change in line with current American linguistic and pedagogical practice.
- The symbol /ə/ is used for both the unstressed and stressed vowels in above /ə'bəv/ (transcribed as /ə'bəv/ in the British system), the /ə/-/n/ phonetic distinction of British pronunciation being much less evident in the United States, and in any case a function of the degree of stress.
- The symbol /:/, used after a vowel in British transcription to indicate the lengthening of that vowel, is here discarded because of the predictability of vowel length in American pronunciation from the following consonant.
- The symbol /i/ is used instead of /t/ for the final element of the diphthongs /ai, ei, οi/ as well as for the final unstressed vowel in, e.g., alley |'æli/, funny |'foni/ as being a more accurate representation of distinctively American usage. For the same reason, the symbol /u/ is used instead of /υ/ for the final element in the diphthongs /au, ou/.
- The symbol /o/ is used instead of /ə/ to represent the first element in the diphthong in *note* /nout/, *road* /roud/, etc., as being more representative of American pronunciation.
- Secondary stress, indicated by the symbol /<sub>1</sub>/ placed before the syllable which it affects, is both frequent and prominent in American English, and is consistently marked throughout this Dictionary.

Learners who wish to pursue on their own the study of American pronunciation, and in particular the interesting details of regional and social variation, should consult one or more of the books available on the subject. Among these, the following are considered standard works:

Arthur J. Bronstein, *The Pronunciation of American English*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960.

Laurie Bauer, John M. Dienhart, Hans H. Hartvigson, and Leif Kvistgaard Jakobsen, *American English Pronunciation*. Copenhagen: Gyldendal, 1980.

John S. Kenyon, *American Pronunciation*. 6th edition. Ann Arbor, Mich.: George Wahr, 1935.

Charles K. Thomas, An Introduction to the Phonetics of American English. New York: Ronald Press, 1947.

All of these works use the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association, though they differ in some details of its use both among each other and from this Dictionary.

Certain current and more or less permanent slang words have been included in the Dictionary, but there has been no attempt to include the considerable body of slang, which varies from place to place and is always changing. Those interested in a more complete reference can consult the *Dictionary of American Slang* by Harold Wentworth and Stuart Berg Flexner. 2nd supplemental ed. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1975.

## **Using the Dictionary**

#### Finding words and meanings

#### Headwords and entries

The words to be explained in the Dictionary are arranged in alphabetical order and printed in bold type. Each of these is called a headword. A single headword together with the information explaining its meanings and uses is called an entry. Sometimes two or more headwords have the same spelling, in which case they are numbered, for example, die1, die2. Numbered headwords either have different meanings or they are different parts of speech. Necessary or helpful information on inflection (to be discussed under inflected forms, below) is given in the entry for the uninflected headword, so that inflected forms (the plural of nouns, the past tense of verbs, etc.) are usually not listed as separate headwords. For example, the comparative (faster) and superlative (fastest) of an adjective (fast) are to be looked up in the Dictionary under the uninflected headword (fast). To help the learner, an exception to this is made in the case of irregular past tense or past participle forms of verbs, which are listed alphabetically like headwords (though without pronunciation) followed by a reference to the full entries for the verbs:

sprang pt of spring<sup>3</sup> sprung pp of spring<sup>3</sup>

A further exception is made in the case of very irregular plural forms of nouns (e.g., **brethren**), which are given entries of their own.

#### Derivatives and compounds

A derivative is a word formed by adding an ending (called a suffix) to a word (usually to an uninflected form of the kind entered as headwords in this Dictionary, but sometimes also to an inflected word or one which already has another suffix). For example, acceptable is a derivative of accept, formed by means of the suffix -able. A compound is a word or expression formed out of two separate words. It is usually written as one word (strongbox), though sometimes with a hyphen (strong-arm) or even as separate words (strong room). (In all cases, compounds have a characteristic stress pattern of primary stress on the first element and secondary stress or no stress at all on the second element, e.g., 'strong box "a strongly built box (specifically) for keeping valuables," in contrast to the uncompounded strong box, "a box (which just happens to be) built strongly." For many such compounds, there is a lack of agreement among users of English as to whether they should be written together. with a hyphen, or separated, and the form each compound takes in this Dictionary is the one judged to be most common in current American usage. Most derivatives and compounds are printed in bold type of a slightly smaller size than for headwords, and are listed alphabetically after an entry, with compounds listed before derivatives. Sometimes, however, a derivative or compound has its own separate entry. For derivatives, this may be because the spelling is very different. Compare adhere with its derivative adhesion. Or, for both derivatives and compounds, it may be because there is no clear

carry-over of the original meaning. For example, the derivative scarcely has a very different meaning from that of its parent word scarce, and the meaning of horseradish is not easily connected to that of horse.

## Idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs

An *idiom* or *idiomatic expression* is a phrase or sentence of two or more words that has a special meaning of its own. Idioms are printed in **bold italic** type, and are listed alphabetically at the end of the entry, but before both compounds and derivatives. In the longer entries, they are placed at the end of the numbered definitions to which they are most closely related. To look up an idiom in the Dictionary, turn to the entry for the most important word in the phrase or sentence (usually a noun, verb, or adjective). For example, **pick holes in** is found in the entry for **hole**.

English contains many phrases made up of a verb and a preposition or adverb, e.g., go back, run away, take (something) down, take after (somebody). Many of these phrases are idiomatic, and are printed and listed in the same way as other idioms. However, in the entries for the very common verbs like go, make, put, take, these verbal phrases are all gathered together in alphabetical order at the end of the entry under the heading "Special uses with adverbial particles and prepositions."

#### Numbered definitions

Many entries are divided into sections numbered in bold type: 1, 2, 3, 4, etc. These numbers show the different meanings or usages that the headword has. Definitions are listed in order of meanings from the most common or simple to the most uncommon or complicated.

## Example phrases and sentences

These form a large and very important part of the Dictionary. They follow the definitions and are printed in *italic* type. The more important functions of these example phrases and sentences are:

- They show how the headword, derivative, compound, or idiomatic expression is used in different sentence patterns.
- They show the kinds of style or context in which the word or phrase is typically used, including the sorts of words used with it.
- They often include information on where to put the stress when using the headword in a phrase or sentence.
- They teach the writing conventions of correct punctuation and the use of capital letters, since many of the examples are full, correctly written and punctuated sentences.

#### The tilde ~

If a headword has more than three letters, to save space the symbol  $\sim$ , called a *tilde* / trldə/, is used in place of the headword in example phrases and sentences.

#### The box

Many headwords, compounds, and derivatives can be used as more than one part of speech. For example, the word **picture** and the compound **whitewash** can both be used as a noun or as a verb, while the derivative **alcoholic** can be used as an adjective or as a noun. These different sections within an entry are divided from one another by a box  $\square$ .

## The diagonal / and brackets ()

The diagonal, /, is used in example phrases and sentences as well as in compounds and idioms to show that the items separated by it are permissible alternatives. For example, in **not care/give a hoot/two hoots**, the diagonals indicate that this idiom can be used in any of the following forms: **not care a hoot, not give a hoot, not care two hoots**, **not give two hoots**. (This use of a single diagonal to separate alternative expressions should not be confused with the use of a pair of diagonals to enclose phonetic information.)

Brackets, (), are used to enclose an optional word or phrase. For example, in *make (both) ends meet*, the brackets show that this idiom can be used in either of the forms *make ends meet* or *make both ends meet*.

#### The cross-reference sign ⇒

A cross-reference is a reference in one entry to information in another, and is indicated by the sign  $\Rightarrow$  (which can be understood as meaning "see," "look at," or "refer to") followed by the appropriate headword. For example,  $\Rightarrow$  fire 1 (6) means "look at definition number 6 in the entry for the headword fire 1."

#### Word-division in writing

The recommended places for word-division are given in the Dictionary for all headwords, derivatives, and compounds. A bold dot (·) is printed where division is recommended. For example, **pre-oc-cu-pa-tion** means that, for this word, the following divisions are possible:

pre-	preoc-	preoccu-	preoccupa-
occupation	cupation	pation	tion

## Inflected forms

## The plural of nouns

The regular plural of most nouns is formed by adding -s to the end of the noun, e.g., **boat:boats**, **apple:apples**, **idea:ideas**. But if the noun ends in -s, -z, -x, -ch, or -sh, then the plural is formed by adding -es to the noun, e.g., **bus:buses** (or **busses**, since a single final -s after a yowel may be doubled before -es), **box:boxes**, **dish-dishes**.

Nouns ending in -y, if the -y is preceded by a consonant, form the plural by changing the -y to -ies, e.g., city:cities. If the -y is preceded by a vowel, the plural is -ys, e.g., monkey:monkeys. This spelling information is given in the Dictionary for all nouns ending in -y.

Some nouns ending in -o add -s to form the plural, e.g., piano:pianos. Others add -es to form the plural, e.g., Negro: Negroes. Still others add either -s or -es, such as volcanos or volcanoes for volcano. This spelling information is given in the Dictionary for all nouns ending in -o.

### The possessive of nouns

The possessive of most nouns is formed by adding -'s (always with the apostrophe) to the end of the noun, e.g., man:man's (as in the man's hat), bride:bride's, boss:boss's (as in the boss's wife). But if the noun is in the plural inflection, the possessive is usually written merely as an apostrophe, so that while the singular dog has the possessive dog's, the plural dogs has the possessive dogs'. (For the pronunciation of these possessives, see the section entitled Pronunciation.)

#### The inflected forms of verbs

The third person present singular of a verb is formed by adding -s to the end of the verb, e.g., fit:fits, write:writes, see:sees. But if the verb ends in -s, -z, -x, -ch, or -sh, then -es is added to the verb, as in bless:blesses, mix:mixes, touch:touches. The third person present singular of verbs ending in -y is formed by changing the -y to -ies, e.g., carry:carries.

The past tense (pt) and past participle (pp) of a verb are regularly formed by adding -ed to the end of the verb, e.g., pull:pulled, push:pushed, follow:followed. But if the verb ends in -e, then these are formed by adding -d, e.g., smile:smiled, agree:agreed. Verbs that end in -y form the past tense and the past participle by changing the -y into -ied, as in carry:carried. This last change is indicated in the Dictionary for all verbs that end in -y. The present participle of a verb is formed by adding -ing to the end of the verb, e.g., think:thinking, go:going, be:being, see:seeing. But if the verb ends in a single -e which is "silent," then the present participle is formed by dropping this -e from the end of the verb and then adding -ing, e.g., love:loving, owe:owing, tire:tiring. (Note that, for verbs ending in -y, the -y is neither dropped nor changed when adding -ing, e.g., try:trying, carry:carrying.)

## Doubling consonants in inflected forms

Many verbs that end with a single consonant have this letter doubled in the spelling for the present and past participles and the past tense, as in **drop:dropping:dropped**. In the same way, some adjectives double the last consonant in the spelling for the comparative and superlative, e.g., **hot:hotter:hottest**. But if the vowel before the final consonant is not stressed, then the final consonant is not doubled in American usage; **travel:traveling:traveled** and the verb **market: marketing:marketed**. If the final consonant of a headword verb is doubled in the present and past participle and past tense, and that of a headword adjective is doubled in the comparative and superlative, the Dictionary shows this by printing the doubled letter in brackets, e.g., **drop (-pp-)**, **hot (-tt-)**.

The same kind of doubling occurs when derivatives are formed from verbs and adjectives through the addition of the suffixes -en (making a verb out of an adjective), -er (making a noun meaning "person or thing that does . . ." out of a verb), and -ish (causing an adjective to mean "somewhat . . ."), e.g., red:redden:reddish, strip:stripper. Common words formed in this way are listed in the Dictionary either as derivatives after a headword, or as headwords themselves. In either case, the consonant doubling is indicated in the spelling of the word itself.

An irregular form of a word is an inflected form that is not made in the usual (or regular) way. For example, the normal way of forming the plural of an English noun in writing is to add -s or -es, and the normal way of forming a past tense or past participle of a verb is to add -d or -ed. Whenever such a form is made in any other way—that is, whenever it is irregular—then this is given (together with the pronunciation, if necessary) at the beginning of the entry. For example:

```
axis /'æksɪs/ n (pl axes /'ækɪsiz/)
choose /tʃuz/ vt, vi (pt chose /tʃouz/, pp chosen /'tʃouzən/)
bad /bæd/ adi (worse, worst)
```

## Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives

The comparative and superlative forms of all adjectives of more than two syllables, and many of two syllables as well, are made by using the words *more* (for the comparative) and *most* (for the superlative) before the adjective, e.g., *more interesting, most pleasant*. All adjectives of one syllable and many adjectives of two syllables make the comparative and superlative forms by adding -r and -st, or -er and -est, or -ier and -iest to the end of the adjective, e.g., gentle: gentler:gentlest, cold:colder:coldest, happy:happier:happiest. In the Dictionary, an adjective that has a comparative and superlative form of this sort has (-r, -st) or (-er, -est) or (-ier, -iest) printed in the entry.

#### Grammatical and stylistic usage labels

## Countable and uncountable nouns

The correct use of the noun is an important but difficult skill to acquire when learning English. For example, some nouns can be used in the plural form, while others cannot. In addition, many nouns have several meanings, some of which may have a plural form and some of which may not. This Dictionary gives the learner special help in this area by the use of the symbols [C], [U], or [C, U] in the entry for a noun.

[C] means that the noun has both a singular and a plural form. It can be used in the singular with a, an, another (as a bottle, an apple, another boy), in the plural with many (many apples), and in the singular or plural with numbers (one bottle, six bottles). Nouns that can be used in these ways are countable, and [C] in the entry indicates this.

[U] means that the noun does not have a plural form. It can be used in the singular with words like *some*, *enough*, *much*, *more* (*some information*, *enough money*, *much noise*). It cannot be used with a, an, another, with many, or with numbers. Nouns of this type are uncountable, and [U] in the entry indicates this.

[C, U] means that the noun can be used either as countable or uncountable. For example, **coffee** is used as [C] in *Two coffees*, please! and us [U] in *Have some more coffee!* 

#### Stylistic values

Some words and expressions may be limited in their appropriateness to certain styles of speaking or writing, or have other kinds of limitations on their use. Where it is important for the learner to know about limitations, the fact is indicated in this Dictionary by a usage label added in brackets to the entry. These labels include:

```
(lit) = literary
(hum) = humorous
(dated)
(formal)
(informal)
(sl) = slang
(vulgar)
```

Of these, literary means that the word or expression is limited to (or at least characteristic of) formal written language, and especially to literature; humorous means that the word or expression is hardly ever used seriously in the sense given; and dated, of course, indicates that the word or expression is considered old-fashioned (at least in the meaning given). The other labels are much less exact in the kinds of limitations on usage that they indicate. In this Dictionary, the labeling of specific words and expressions as formal, informal, slang, or vulgar is in accordance with current American stylistic values and, as such, may differ from what the labeling would be in other parts of the English-speaking world. But even within the United States, the stylistic value of a given word or expression may differ somewhat according to region or to the age and social identity of the user. For

this reason, such labels have been applied only when it would appear that there is a great deal of agreement among educated Americans on the stylistic value of a particular word.

In the Dictionary at least one pronunciation is given for every headword. The kind of pronunciation indicated is that of educated Americans whose speech is not strongly marked by regionalism. It is the kind of pronunciation that is now in the process of being adopted by younger speakers in all parts of the United States, and which has for some time been used by most professional announcers in radio and television. Beyond this informal unifying trend within an older pattern of regionally flavored educated English, there is no official standard of pronunciation that Americans are expected to adhere to, nor is there a culturally homogeneous social elite in the country whose speech might serve as a national model. Consequently there are often several current and acceptable pronunciations of a word, and the more common of these variants are included in this Dictionary. Where the variation is created by the presence or absence of a sound, this is shown by writing the corresponding phonetic symbol in brackets. For example, huge /(h)yud3/ and when /(h)wen/ indicate that, for these words, one may hear and say either /hyud3/ and /hwen/ or /yud3/ and /wen/. Other common alternative pronunciations are shown by fully or partly repeated transcriptions, e.g., fog /fog, fag/, orange /orindz, 'ar-/.

Some kinds of phonetic variation are so regular that they can be stated as general correspondences, and need not be included in the phonetic transcriptions of individual words. One such case involves the replacement of |æ| by |e| before |r| in the speech of many Americans, so that marry |'mæri| and merry |'meri| are pronounced alike by them, as |'meri|. Another case of automatic variation is the drawing out of vowels before |r| by adding a |ə|-like gliding sound after the vowel; e.g., here |hir| becomes |hiər|, door |dər| becomes |dəər|, poor |por| becomes |poər|, marry |'mæri| (or |'meri|) becomes |'mæəri| (or |'meəri|), etc. In addition, some Americans "drop" the |r| after drawing out the vowel in this manner, whenever the |r| would otherwise come before a consonant or at the end of a word; e.g., short becomes |\substack{\int}\text{3td}|, here becomes |hiə|, but weary stays |'|wiri| or |'wiəri| because the |r| is followed by a vowel.

Note: In the phonetic transcriptions given in the entries, the symbol /r/ will occasionally be written in brackets, e.g., reservoir /rezə(r), war/, surprise /sə(r) rpraiz/. This is to indicate that, even among those Americans who normally pronounce /r/ before another consonant and at the end of a word, these words may sometimes be pronounced without the bracketed /r/.

#### Vowel lengthening

In American speech, vowels tend to be pronounced somewhat longer before voiced consonants (/b, d, g, v,  $\delta$ , z, 3, d3, m, n,  $\eta$ , l, r/) and sometimes before the voiceless fricatives (/f,  $\theta$ , s,  $\int$ /) than before the voiceless stops (/p, t, k, t $\int$ /). This is not shown in the phonetic transcriptions, however, since it is entirely automatic.

### Syllabic consonants

The unstressed combinations /ən/ and /əl/, as well as /ər/ in speech of those persons who do not "drop" final /r/, are often pronounced without a distinct /ə/, but rather with the /n, l, r/ forming a syllable by themselves. This happens especially at the end of a word. For example, sudden, middle, matter, which are given phonetically in the Dictionary as /'sədən/, /mɪdəl/, and /mætər/, often sound almost like /sədn/, /mɪdl/, and /mætr/. Those speakers who do not "drop" final /r/ give this syllabic /r/ sound to /ər/ even when stressed, so that, e.g., fur /fər/ and work /wərk/ sound almost like /fr/ and /wrk/. Those who "drop" final /r/, however, pronounce stressed /ər/ when final or before a consonant as a very tense, lengthened /ə/.

#### Stress in words and compounds

When an English word consists of more than one syllable, one of them will be spoken with more force than the others. This force is called *stress* (or, in contrast to other, weaker stresses, *primary stress*) and is shown in this Dictionary by placing the mark |'| before the stressed syllable in the phonetic transcription, and sometimes in what is otherwise the regular spelling. For example, in **any** the transcription |'eni| shows that the stress is on the first syllable, while in **depend** the spelling **de'pend** or transcription |di'pend| shows that it is on the second syllable.

In some words, especially compounds, some other syllable may be spoken with a force that is stronger than for unstressed syllables, but not as strong as the syllable marked with /¹/. This is called secondary stress and is marked with /₁/ in the same way as for primary stress, e.g., dictate /ˈdɪk₁teit/, module /ˈma₁dʒul/, rodeo /ˈroudi₁ou/ (though radio is usually /ˈreidiou/, without a secondary stress), housework /ˈhausˌwərk/, playboy /ˈplei₁bɔi/. Although the compounds listed at the end of an entry are usually not given in phonetic transcription, stress patterns are marked where necessary or helpful.

The pronunciation of some common inflections

The written forms of some common inflections have been given under **Inflected forms** of the headword. Some of these have more than one pronunciation, though this is not always clear from their spellings. Because the pronunciation of inflections involves phonetic rules, different inflections may be pronounced alike if they share certain basic sounds. Where this is the case, the inflections are grouped together for the purpose of making the following pronunciation rules as general as possible.

1. Inflections in -s. These include the regular plural -s/-es and possessive -ls/-l of nouns and the third person singular present -s/-es of verbs.

If the uninflected noun or verb (that is, the singular form of nouns and the infinitive form of verbs) ends in a vowel sound or in /b, d, g, v, ð, m, n, n, l, r/ these inflections are pronounced /-z/. For example, (noun) bee /bi/: plural bees /biz/; (noun) cow /kau/: plural cows /kauz/; (noun) friend /friend/: possessive friend's /frendz/; (verb) bring /brin/: third person singular present brings /brinz/.

If the uninflected noun or verb ends in /p, t, k, f,  $\theta$ / the same inflections are pronounced /-s/. For example, (noun) cat /kæt/: plural cats /kæts/; (noun) wife /waif/: possessive wife's /waifs/; (verb) step /step/: third person singular present steps /steps/.

If the uninflected noun or verb ends in /s, z,  $\int$ , 3, t $\int$ , d3/ these inflections are pronounced /-iz/. For example, (noun) **face** /feis/: plural **faces** /'feisiz/; (noun) **class** /klæs/: plural **classes** /'klæsiz/; (noun) **boss** /bos/: possessive **boss's** /'bosiz); (verb) **pledge** /pled3/: third person singular present **pledges** /'pled3iz/.

One effect of these rules is that the possessive of singular nouns and the regular plural of nouns are pronounced alike, even though they are spelled differently. But a special rule applies whenever, in forming the possessive plural of nouns, the possessive inflection is added to a noun which already has on it the regular plural inflection -s/-es. The rule is that the possessive inflection is written (though simply as an apostrophe, in such a case) but not pronounced, which means that regular possessive plurals sound exactly like (though written differently from) the singular possessive and regular plural forms. In the case of nouns having irregular plurals without -s/-es, however, this rule does not apply, and the singular possessive, plural, and plural possessive forms are all pronounced differently, e.g.:

Singular	Singular possessive	Plural	Plural possessive
dog /dog/ cat /kæt/ boss/bos/	dog's  dogz  cat's  kæts  boss's  'bosiz	dogs /dogz/ cats /kæts/ bosses/lbosiz/	dogs'  dogz  cats'  kæts  bosses' bosiz
But:			
man /mæn/	man's /mænz/	men /men/	men's /menz/

Information on irregular plurals is given in the appropriate entries in the body of the Dictionary.

2. Inflections in -d. These include the regular past tense and past participle -d/-ed of verbs.

If the uninflected verb ends in a vowel sound or in /b, g, v, \delta, z, \delta, d\delta, m, n, n, l, r/ these inflections are pronounced /-d/. For example, sue /su/: past tense and past participle sued /sud/; play /plei/: past tense and past participle played /pleid/; beg /beg/: past tense and past participle begged /begd/; judge /d3\delta\delta/: past tense and past participle judged /d3\delta\delta/d2.

If the uninflected verb ends in /p, k, f,  $\theta$ , s,  $\int$ ,  $t\int/$  these inflections are pronounced /-t/. For example, **stop** /stap/: past tense and past participle **stopped** /stapt/; **miss** /mis/: past tense and past participle **missed** /mist/.

If the uninflected verb ends in /t, d/ these inflections are pronounced /-id/. For example, wait /weit/: past tense and past participle waited /'weitid/; prod /prad/: past tense and past participle prodded /'pradid/.

An exception to these rules is the tendency to use the /-id/ pronunciation, regardless of what sound the uninflected verb ends in, whenever the -d/-ed inflection is followed by -ly or -ness. For example, He fixed |fikst| his gaze on the object, and He regarded it with a fixed |fikst| stare, but He stared at it fixedly |'fikstdli|, and The fixedness |'fikstdnis| of his gaze showed his feelings. However, some educated Americans do say |'fikstli| and |'fikstnis| in these cases.

Such pairs as **blessed** /blest/ (past tense and past participle) but /'blesid/ (adjective), **learned** /lərnd/ (past tense and past participle) but /'lərnid/ (adjective) are firmly established in English. Because the /-id/ forms always function as full adjectives, they are treated either as derivatives or independent headwords in the Dictionary.

3. Comparative and superlative inflections. The regular comparative inflection is -er (-ier) and the regular superlative inflection is -est (-iest).

The inflection -er is pronounced /-ər/, -ier is /-iər/, -est is /-ist/, and -iest is /-ist/. For example, new /nu/: comparative newer /'nuər/, superlative newest /'nuist/; old /ould/: comparative older /'ouldər/, superlative oldest /'ouldst/; happy /'hæpi/: comparative happier /'hæpiər/, superlative happiest /'hæpist/.

In general, the pronunciation of inflected forms is given in the Dictionary only if the forms do not follow the ordinary rules, e.g., basis (pl bases / bei,siz/); read (pt, pp read /red/).

#### Contractions

2

In spoken English, there are certain words which are given strong (primary/secondary) stress only when they occur at the end of a sentence or need special emphasis. Otherwise they are spoken without stress. These words, all of which are only one syllable long and have primarily a grammatical function, include the articles and some personal pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and inflected forms of the auxiliary verbs. As part of this variation in stress, many of these words have two pronunciations: a strong form, used when the word is stressed, and a weak form, used when it is unstressed. In the strong form, the vowels and consonants are pronounced in full, while in the weak form many vowels are reduced to /ə/ and some consonants may be omitted, especially /h/. Examples of such words are and, he, of, which have the strong forms /'ænd, 'hi, 'av/ and the weak forms /ən, (h)i, ə(v)/. In this Dictionary, both strong and weak forms are given in the phonetic information in the entry for words having these forms. It is important to consult this information, since details of usage vary from word to word. For example, the weak form of he is /hi/ at the beginning of a sentence, /i/ elsewhere, while weak forms of have/has/had and do/does/did exist for these when used as auxiliary verbs, but not when used as main verbs, e.g., He might have | ov | gone, but He might have | hæv | time. In informal style, this weakening process is carried still further when forms of the verb be, the auxiliary verbs, and the word not follow certain other words. In such cases, the second word forms a contraction with the preceding one, which is to say that the two are spoken as a single unit. These contractions are also made in writing which is intended to reflect informal speech, for example in the direct speech of plays, novels, and short stories, and they are also often used in personal correspondence. In writing contractions, the weak forms are joined to the preceding word, with an apostrophe used in place of omitted letters corresponding to omitted or reduced sounds. Since the formation of contractions depends as much upon the preceding word as upon the following one, it is perhaps the best course to learn them as units. The following contractions are the ones most commonly used in current American speech and writing, organized where possible under their common components.

### 1. Noun +is and auxiliary verb has.

After any noun (including proper nouns, numerals, and the indefinite pronoun *one*) that ends in a sound other than /s, z,  $\int$ , z,  $t\int$ , dz/t the weak forms of is and auxiliary verb has may contract to -'s. (If the noun ends in /-s, etc./, is and has do not contract.)

If the noun ends in a vowel sound or in /b, d, g, v,  $\delta$ , m, n,  $\eta$ , l, r/ the contraction -'s is pronounced /-z/: e.g., The boy's /bɔiz/ (= boy is) reading. John's /dʒanz/ (= John has) left already.

If the noun ends in /p, t, k, f,  $\theta$ / the contraction -'s is pronounced /-s/: e.g., Mr. Smith's /smi $\theta$ s/ (= Smith is) a friend of mine. The cat's /kæts/ (= cat has) disappeared.

## 2. Personal pronoun + forms of be and auxiliary verbs.

These contractions and their pronunciations are best learned as units.

```
I'm
               /aim/
                                    = I am
l've
               /aiv/
                                    I have
1'11
               /'aiəl, al/
                                    = I will
               /aid/
                                    = I had, I would
I'd
               /'yuər, yor, yər/
                                    = you are
you're
               /'yuəv, yuv, yəv/
you've
                                    = you have
               /'yuəl, yul, yəl/
you'll
                                    = you will
you'd
               /'yuəd, yud, yəd/
                                    = you had, you would
he's
               /(h)iz/
                                    = he is, he has
               /(h)iəl/
                                    = he will
he'll
he'd
               /(h)id/
                                    = he had, he would
```

Note: The /h-/ of he's, he'll, he'd can be omitted in pronouncing these contractions under the same conditions that the /h-/ of he can be dropped. (See the entry for he in the Dictionary.)

```
she's
               /Siz/
                                    = she is, she has
she'll
               /fiəl/
                                    = she will
she'd
               /sid/
                                    = she had, she would
                                    = it is, it has
it's
               /its/
it'll
               /itəl/
                                    = it will
it'd
               /itəd, itid/
                                    = it had, it would
               /wir, wər/
we're
                                    = we are
                                    = we have
we've
               /wiv/
we'll
               /wiəl, wəl/
                                    = we will
                                    = we had, we would
we'd
               /wid/
               /ðer/
                                    = they are
they're
               /ðeiv/
                                    = they have
they've
```