

the second

**BARNHART
DICTIONARY
OF
NEW ENGLISH**

THE SECOND
BARNHART DICTIONARY
OF NEW ENGLISH

Clarence L. Barnhart
Sol Steinmetz
Robert K. Barnhart

BARNHART BOOKS



Bronxville, New York

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PREFACE

This dictionary is a continuation of the first *Barnhart Dictionary of New English* issued in 1973. It is the outgrowth of files so burgeoning with new words and new meanings and new applications of old words to fit new situations that we are publishing this material three years ahead of our scheduled time for a second book.

English is in nearly universal use; it is also growing and changing rapidly so that users of English throughout the world need a dictionary that contains the important new words and meanings. Unabridged dictionaries are issued infrequently and standard desk dictionaries have scant space for new entries and almost none at all for citations showing the new words in use, or for discussions relating the new words to the standard vocabulary. Therefore it is not surprising that the first Dictionary of New English (1973) and the second Dictionary of New English (1980) contain more than 10,000 words and meanings not entered or inadequately explained in standard dictionaries. Together or separately these two books supplement the current dictionaries of the English language.

In making the second Dictionary of New English, we have largely followed the principles and the editorial practices of the first dictionary by 1) giving enough context in the citations to indicate the environment in which a word is used, 2) providing ample identification of sources and their dates to show the type of writing, 3) marking the level or area of usage in usage labels, 4) writing usage notes to give editorial judgment, 5) pronouncing difficult words in an IPA-based key, and 6) providing etymologies wherever appropriate.

Following our usual practice, we asked a committee of distinguished scholars to review our editorial principles. As a result of conferring with members of this committee, we have greatly expanded the number of usage notes and also included a new type of usage note, such as those under *abortion* and *developing*, which lists and correlates terms connecting them with the new practices of our changing world. Such long notes of usage are particularly helpful in explaining new words. In addition, we have introduced a series of articles, such as those under *Acronyms* and *Back Formations*, which discuss processes of word formation with numerous examples drawn from entries in this dictionary.

Another innovation strongly urged on the editors by the Advisory Committee is to supply the year of our earliest available evidence for use of a word or meaning. This date in brackets, usually in an etymology, should provide a fair approximation of the time when a word or meaning achieved widespread use in the language.

This dictionary is the result of the cooperation of the Editorial Advisory Committee, our editorial staff, the outside readers of the manuscript, and the research staff that reads for new words year by year. The group has worked to produce a dictionary that provides information not easily available elsewhere and has participated in developing innovations in dictionary-making.

All sampling processes are plagued with inadequacies. No doubt this dictionary suffers from them by omission and, regrettably, by commission. We will gratefully welcome comments and suggestions for their correction. Our design is to make an up-to-date and accurate record of standard English and we invite your help in doing this.

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EXPLANATORY NOTES

The Second Barnhart Dictionary of New English is a supplement to existing general purpose, English-language dictionaries. As such it closely follows the style of current dictionaries, which makes the framework of this dictionary a familiar one that is easy to use. It will be doubly familiar to users of the first *Barnhart Dictionary of New English* (1973), as the new book serves to continue the record of changing English found in the previous work.

However, there are some innovations in style and departures from traditional dictionary content that deserve explanation.

Usage Notes and Articles

Editorial comments and related information about usage, word formation, cultural or historical facts, etc., are provided in notes and articles. They describe changing fashions in current English usage, based on evidence from our files. This departure from the traditional dictionary practices includes usage notes such as those listed under *dingbat*, *prioritize*, *fulsome*, and general articles at *abortion*, *acupuncture*, *developing*, *death*, *person*, etc., when it seems appropriate to give the user much of the contemporary information available from an editorial reading of our files.

Another source of information about the present-day direction of the language is the series of articles discussing processes and types of word formation and usage, such as *Abbreviations*, *Borrowings*, *Coinages*, *Euphemisms*, *Nonce Words*, and *Technical Terms*. These Language Notes contain examples derived from entries in this book.

The usage notes appear at the end of entries, following the date or the etymology and are indicated by the sign (►); the articles generally appear at the end of entries but the Language Notes form separate entries. A list of these Language Notes will be found in the Table of Contents.

Arrangement of Entries

1) Many derivative forms of main-entry words are listed in smaller boldface type directly under the entries to which they are related, as **psychobiographer** and **psychobiographical** under the main entry **psychobiography**. Although these subentries have citations they are not defined, because, like the run-on entries in standard dictionaries, the meaning is easily derived from the main entry. The grouping may also serve to unlock their function by showing that their relationship to the head word is more a grammatical than a semantic shift. Moreover, grouping related entries explains subtle elements of development of the language.

2) Derivatives and compounds are entered separately whenever they cannot be satisfactorily explained by a combination of the prefix, suffix, or combining form with the root word. New affixes (as in *-aholic*) and new meanings of affixes and com-

binning forms (as *petro-*) are recorded under the affix or combining form. Unusually active affixes and combining forms are entered and examples of their use and productivity are given. The user should look first under the affix or combining form. If the word is not given there, it may have a specialized meaning or be unusually frequent and the user should consult the proper alphabetical order of the main entries.

3) Variant spellings appear as entries only if they are very common; normally only the most frequent spelling is given because of the great variation found in the spelling of new words. Thus, the spellings *Parti Québécois* and *Parti Quebecois*, which appear in the quotations under *Parti Québécois*, are not listed as variants.

4) The names of popular new products and services that are known to be registered trademarks are capitalized and described as trademarks in this book. Variant spellings of trademarks that occur very frequently are also recorded, but they should not be regarded as indications of the legal status of a trademark (that is, as to whether it is becoming a generic term).

Dating of Entries and Definitions

1) Every main entry in this dictionary has the year of its earliest appearance in our files or in other sources as far as the editors could ascertain. The year is in brackets at the end of the main entry, but before subentries and usage notes, or at the beginning of an etymology.

blow-back. . . . [1975 for def. 1; 1978 for def. 2]
bullhorn, v.t. . . . [1970, verb use of the noun (1955)]
Chis-an-bop. . . . [1976, from Korean . . .]
displaced homemaker. . . . [1978]

While the date supplied should provide some idea about when a word or meaning became current, it is not necessarily the earliest attestation and serves only as a rough guide to the word's appearance in the language. In most cases an example can probably be found that antedates the year cited here, for the usage predominant at any given time has usually been nurtured in an earlier decade or an even longer period of time.

Sometimes a word or meaning exists for a long time in isolation among the members of a particular group or within a specialized field of activity or in use restricted to its coiner, before it comes into general currency. Whenever our files disclose such a fact, two dates are provided: the first is the year of our earliest quotation for the term; the second date is the year the term begins to be frequently recorded, indicating its probable emergence into the mainstream of the language as indicated by appearance in popular sources.

cluster headache. . . . [1953, 1972]
lacto-ovo-vegetarian. . . . [1952, 1975 . . .]
layering. . . . [1971, coined in 1950 by Bonny Cashin,
 born 1915, an American fashion designer]
biorheology. . . . [1969, coined in 1948 by A. L. Copley
 from *bio-* of biology + *rheology* (1931) . . .]

2) In many instances the original meaning or root form of an entry is given a date. This date serves to explain the relationship between the new formation and the older established form and to show the gradual change in form and meaning that occurs in the language.

carpool or **car-pool**, *v.t.* . . . [1966, verb use of *car pool* (1940's)]

ban, *v.t.* . . . [1966, specialized sense of *ban* to forbid, prohibit (OED 1816)]

senior citizenship. . . [1972, from *senior citizen* (1955) + *-ship*]

back-to-basics. . . [1975, from the phrase *back to (the) basics*; the phrase *the basics* is an Americanism (1950's) meaning the fundamentals or elementary principles]

3) To confirm or establish information about the chronology of English vocabulary the editors consulted various well-known historical dictionaries, including *The Oxford English Dictionary* (OED), the first two volumes of *A Supplement to the Oxford English Dictionary* (OEDS), *The Century Dictionary and Encyclopedia* (OC) and its supplement (OCS), the *Dictionary of Americanisms* (DA), *A Dictionary of American English* (DAE), *A Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles*, the *Middle English Dictionary*, *The Stanford Dictionary of Anglicised Words and Phrases*, *A Dictionary of Australian Colloquialisms*, *A Dictionary of South African English*, and the *Dictionary of Jamaican English*.

Pronunciation

1) The pronunciation of a hard or unfamiliar word is given in parentheses immediately after the entry word; no pronunciation is given for well-known words. Entries with pronunciations are syllabicated for the convenience of the user.

Usually only one pronunciation is provided despite the possibility of variants except in the case of loanwords where the foreign pronunciation is often accompanied by an Anglicized form. The pronunciation we provide is the one most likely to be heard in the United States but does not preclude the use of other pronunciations equally acceptable in various parts of the English-speaking world.

2) The pronunciation key, given in full on the following pages, is composed of symbols in a broad adaptation of the International Phonetic Alphabet. The letter *y*, however, is an exception which we use to represent what in English is spelled with *y* in *yes* and *you* and *yarn* (for IPA *y*, a non-English vowel sound, we use *Y*).

In indicating the pronunciation of *vowels and diphthongs* we have chosen, at points of difference, to represent "American" rather than "British" speech. Thus although the key contains (ɔ) to represent an "aw"-type of "British" pronunciation of the *o* in *hot*, we use the (ɑ) which represents an "ah"-type vowel that is preponderant in America.

PRONUNCIATION KEY

A. Vowels and Diphthongs

| | | | |
|----|--------------------------------|----|-------------------------------|
| æ | a in <i>hat</i> (hæt) | i | i in <i>hit</i> (hit) |
| | | i: | ee in <i>feet</i> (fi:t) |
| ɑ | o in American <i>hot</i> (hat) | ɒ | o in British <i>hot</i> (hɒt) |
| ɑ: | a in <i>father</i> ('fa: ðər) | ɔ: | aw in <i>raw</i> (rɔ:) |
| aɪ | i in <i>nice</i> (naɪs) | ɔɪ | oi in <i>oil</i> (ɔɪl) |
| au | ou in <i>out</i> (aʊt) | | |
| e | e in <i>set</i> (set) | ou | o in <i>go</i> (gou) |
| ei | a in <i>gate</i> (geit) | u | oo in <i>book</i> (buk) |
| | | u: | oo in <i>boot</i> (bu:t) |

ə u in *cup* (kəp), a in *ago* (ə'gou)

B. Accented Vowels with R

| | | | |
|----|--------------------------|----|--------------------------|
| ɑr | ar in <i>part</i> (part) | ɔr | or in <i>lord</i> (lɔrd) |
| er | ar in <i>care</i> (ker) | ur | oor in <i>poor</i> (pur) |
| ir | ear in <i>hear</i> (hir) | ər | ir in <i>bird</i> (bɜrd) |

C. Syllabic Consonants

| | | | |
|----|-------------------------------|----|--------------------------------|
| əl | le in <i>little</i> ('lit əl) | ən | on in <i>prison</i> ('prɪz ən) |
| əm | m in <i>prism</i> ('prɪz əm) | ər | ar in <i>altar</i> ('ɔ:l tər) |

D. Consonants

(1) Ordinary Letter Values

| | | | |
|---|---------------|---|---------------|
| b | in <i>bed</i> | n | in <i>not</i> |
| d | in <i>did</i> | p | in <i>pig</i> |
| f | in <i>fat</i> | r | in <i>run</i> |
| g | in <i>go</i> | s | in <i>sad</i> |
| h | in <i>had</i> | t | in <i>tan</i> |
| k | in <i>kit</i> | v | in <i>vat</i> |
| l | in <i>leg</i> | w | in <i>wet</i> |
| m | in <i>man</i> | y | in <i>yes</i> |

z in *zoo*

(2) Special Symbols

| | | | |
|----|--------------------------|----|-------------------------------|
| f | sh in <i>she</i> (ʃi:) | ð | th in <i>then</i> (ðen) |
| tʃ | ch in <i>chin</i> (tʃin) | ʒ | s in <i>measure</i> ('meʒ əɾ) |
| ŋ | ng in <i>sing</i> (siŋ) | dʒ | j in <i>join</i> (dʒɔin) |
| θ | th in <i>thin</i> (θin) | | |

E. Foreign Sounds

Foreign words are for the most part pronounced with the nearest equivalents in English sounds. For example, the close *e* of a French word such as *né* is represented by *ei* as in English *nay* (nei). The following symbols, however, are used for some specifically foreign sounds:

| | | | |
|---|--------------------------------|---|---|
| a | a in French <i>patte</i> (pat) | ʏ | u in French <i>du</i> (dʏ) |
| œ | eu in French <i>heure</i> (œɾ) | ~ | over a vowel letter, nasal vowel, as |
| x | ch in German <i>ach</i> (a:x) | | in French <i>sans</i> (sã), <i>vin</i> (vã), <i>bon</i> |
| | | | (bõ), <i>un</i> (ũ), Portuguese <i>são</i> (sãu) |

F. Accents

- ' primary stress, as in bə'lu:n (*balloon*)
- , secondary stress, as in 'el ə,vei tər (*elevator*)

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A

A, a symbol used in Great Britain to designate motion pictures that are unrestricted for showing to adult audiences but may not be suitable for showing to children under 14, and therefore require parental discretion and guidance. The approximate U.S. equivalent symbol is *PG*.

At the Paris Pullman, Ravi Shankar is being lionised in Raga (A). Russell Davies, "Cinema," *The Observer* (London), March 31, 1974, p 36

[1970] ► This symbol was used in Great Britain from about 1914 for motion pictures designated by the Board of Film Censors as suitable only for adults, as distinguished from *U*—suitable for universal exhibition. In the current system the symbol has been given a less restrictive meaning. See *G* for another usage note.

AA, a symbol used in Great Britain to designate motion pictures to which persons under 14 are not admitted unless accompanied by an adult. The approximate U.S. equivalent symbol is *R*.

The committee recommends acceptance of the British Board of Film Censors' four new categories of U, A, AA and X. *The Times* (London), May 15, 1970, p 4

Being a fantasy about a fantasy, *Westworld* (Universal, AA) could well catch on. Russell Davies, "Cinema," *The Observer* (London), March 17, 1974, p 34

[1970, probably from Accompanied by Adult]

Abbreviations. ► As space-saving and time-saving devices, abbreviations have become commonplace in current English writing and speech. The types of words or phrases most frequently abbreviated are technical terms and the names of groups and organizations. Often the abbreviations are more commonly used than the terms or names themselves. Scientists, for example, invariably use the abbreviation *DNA* in place of the long and hard-to-pronounce *deoxyribonucleic acid*, and the abbreviations of government organizations, such as *CIA* and *FBI*, are far more frequent, even in formal writing and speech, than the names they stand for. The usual style or practice is to give the standard term or name when it is first mentioned and follow it with the abbreviation in parentheses: exclusive economic zone (EEZ), transcendental meditation (TM), videocassette recorder (VCR); thereafter only the abbreviation is used.

As a rule, abbreviations are pronounced letter by letter: *ERA* (for Equal Rights Amendment) is pronounced 'i:'a'r'e'i, *IV* (for intravenous) is likewise pro-

nounced 'ai'vi: When the abbreviation occurs only in writing (as *b.y.* for billion years and *mg* for milligram) the abbreviation is usually read as the words it stands for: "billion years, milligram." However, when the abbreviation is for a technical non-English term (as *q.i.d.* for Latin *quater in die*) it is usually translated into English in its full form "four times a day." Other common abbreviations follow a variety of rules, such as *i.e.*, pronounced 'ai'i: or translated "that is" and *viz.*, pronounced viz or translated "namely." Other abbreviations (known as ACRONYMS) are pronounced as words: *NOW* (for National Organization for Women) is pronounced nau. Some forms can be treated as either ordinary abbreviations or acronyms: *VAT* (for value-added tax) can be pronounced as 'vi:ei'ti: or as the word (væt).

The tendency today is to omit periods after abbreviations of technical terms and organizations: CPR (for cardiopulmonary resuscitation) rather than *C.P.R.*; *EPA* (for Environmental Protection Agency), not *E.P.A.* Some abbreviations, though, appear both with and without periods with equal frequency: *CB* or *C.B.* (for citizens band), *UPC* or *U.P.C.* (for Universal Product Code).

Abbreviations can be used as nouns, verbs, and other parts of speech (AC/DC, ETS), can produce derivatives (CBER, TMER) and variants (CJD, C-J DISEASE), and can form new words (GRASER).

Symbols are similar in appearance and sometimes in function to abbreviations, but need not be shortened forms of the words, phrases, or notions they represent. Thus Υ functions as a symbol for *upsilon*, a subatomic particle, and AA is a symbol used in Britain to designate certain motion pictures.

The frequency with which abbreviations are used instead of the full forms has led to care in choosing names whose abbreviations are not misleading. When the *Federation of British Industry* found that their abbreviation was *FBI*, they promptly renamed themselves the *Confederation of British Industry* (*CBI*).

ABC or **A.B.C.**, abbreviation of *Advance Booking Charter*, a type of low-cost air fare available to passengers booking flights a definite length of time before the date of departure. *Often used attributively.*

Air travel also registered substantial gains in 1977, stimulated by the continuing popularity of "alphabet fares," such

ABD

as the OTC (one-stop tour charter), and the ABC (advanced booking charter). William A. Davis, "Travel," *The Americana Annual* 1978, p. 506

The A.B.C. passenger would not be required to be a member of any pre-formed group and would merely have to purchase his round-trip charter transportation from an independent tour operator or travel agent sufficiently far in advance. "Air Charter Plan Offered by C.A.B.," *The New York Times*, Feb. 12, 1976, p. 61

[1972] Compare APEX, OTC, SUPER SAVER. See also AFFINITY GROUP.

ABD, abbreviation of *All But Dissertation* (applied to a doctoral candidate who has the necessary credits for a Ph.D. degree but has not written the dissertation).

Last month, 50 carefully selected Ph.D.'s and A.B.D.'s (all but dissertation) completed the Careers in Business project, a unique, tuition-free program sponsored by the New York State Department of Education. *Time*, Aug. 14, 1978, p. 76

Ph.D./DBA preferred. ABD's considered, less than ABD will be considered for a one-year temporary appointment only. *Advertisement by University of Southern Maine*, *The New York Times*, April 15, 1979, p. E11

[1963]

Ab-gren-zung (Anglicized 'ab gren,tʃʊŋ; German 'ap gren tsʊŋ). *n.* a policy of total separation of East Germany from West Germany.

While Willy Brandt, the West German Chancellor, talks of "two states in one German nation," Erich Honecker talks of *Abgrenzung*—a strict separation. *Time*, Oct. 1, 1973, p. 35

While I was there in the winter the word on every official lip was *abgrenzung*. It means demarcation or separation, and is the label attached to the policy of deepening the division between the two Germans, and banishing forever all hope of reunification. Richard Davy, "Bridges Over a Troubled Border," *The Times* (London), May 3, 1972, p. 16

[1972, from German, literally, demarcation]

abortion, *n.* ► Johnson (1755) gives only two meanings: (1) "the act of bringing forth untimely" and (2) "the produce of untimely birth." The first meaning in Johnson is also the first meaning in the OED, as shown in the 1547 quotation from Andrew Boorde, *The Breviary of Healthe*: "Abhorsion is when a woman is delivered of her chylde before her tyme." Included under the first OED definition is a quotation from William Robertson's *The History of America* I, iv, 297 (1778) adding the idea of deliberate destruction of the fetus: "The women by the use of certain herbs procure frequent abortions."

This term is now used chiefly to mean the deliberate expulsion of a fetus at a pregnant woman's request with the intent of destroying it. This act has long been considered criminal or illegal in many countries, and was so considered in Great Britain until 1967 (when Parliament legalized it during the first 28 weeks of pregnancy within certain guidelines) and in the United States until 1973 (when the Supreme Court ruled that no state may prevent a woman from having an abortion during the first six months of pregnancy). Methods of legal abortion now include MENSTRUAL EXTRACTION, SALINE, VACU-

UM ASPIRATION and the older *D and C*. ANTIABORTION groups continue to oppose the legalization of abortion on the grounds that it violates the right of fetuses to life; their movement is called PRO-LIFE or RIGHT-TO-LIFE and they are often referred to as RIGHT-TO-LIFERS. The more moderate ANTIABORTIONISTS are willing to allow abortions under some specific circumstances (as when continued pregnancy endangers a woman's health) but all are opposed to ABORTION-ON-DEMAND. Advocates of legislation permitting abortion are the PROABORTION groups, or PROABORTIONISTS (sometimes also simply called ABORTIONISTS), who insist on abortion-on-demand on the ground that a woman has the right to privacy and to choose what happens to her own body. Some proabortion groups wish to do away with all legal restrictions on induced abortions, though even the most liberal governments, as that of Sweden, are committed to the belief that fully developed fetuses must be protected, since the induced abortion of such "viable" fetuses may amount to the taking of a human life. See also PERSON and TEST-TUBE BABY.

Both in this country [Great Britain] and abroad, the overwhelming weight of evidence and opinion is that women who are refused an abortion are more likely to become emotionally disturbed than those who are aborted. A degree of remorse after abortion is not uncommon, as with any unwelcome event involving personal responsibility, but it is usually transient and mild and psychiatric assistance is rarely sought. Colin Brewer, "Assessing the Psychiatric Factors in Abortion," *The Times* (London), Jan. 31, 1975, p. 11

Soviet gynecologists frown on abortion as a method of birth control for medical reasons and also because the state wants to increase the birth rate to develop a larger work force. "We do not consider abortion a good method of birth control," said the tall, silver-haired doctor. "We prefer other methods—the pill, the loop, diaphragms, condoms, rhythm. But if a woman wants an abortion during her first three months of pregnancy, that is her choice. After that, she can have an abortion only for medical reasons." Hedrick Smith, "Abortion in the Soviet Union: Legal, Common, but Frowned Upon," *The New York Times*, Nov. 27, 1974, p. 32

abortionism, *n.* the support or advocacy of abortion-on-demand.

First, abortion foes must point out that abortionism is indeed an "ism," a creed quite as specific and aggressive as any creed its proponents denounce, demanding not only tolerance but legitimization, complete with tax dollars to pay for human death. M. J. Sobran Jr., "Abortion: The Class Religion," *National Review*, Jan. 23, 1976, p. 31

[1976, from *abortion* + *-ism*] ► This term is chiefly used by antiabortionists. See also the note under RIGHT-TO-LIFE.

abortionist, *n.* a person who supports or advocates abortion-on-demand.

Marxist vocabulary has spread into all political nooks and crannies. Ecologists as well as abortionists envision "revolution." Whatever or whoever has position and power is termed "imperialist" and "fascist," and recently also "chauvinist." Gerhart Niemeyer, "Days and Works," *National Review*, Feb. 20, 1976, p. 157

[1976, from *abortion* + *-ist*] Compare ANTIABORTIONIST and PROABORTIONIST.

► This term is chiefly used by antiabortionists. Its earlier meaning (recorded since 1872) is a person who induces illegal abortions.

abortion-on-demand, *n.* the right of a pregnant woman to have an abortion at any time during pregnancy.

Abortion-on-demand after the first six or seven months of fetal existence has been effected by the Court through its denial of personhood to the viable fetus, on the one hand, and through its broad definition of health, on the other. John T. Noonan, Jr., "The Right to Life: Raw Judicial Power," *National Review*, March 2, 1973, p. 261

In some other countries, legislatures were also concerned with the matter of abortion. The Italian Chamber of Deputies legalized abortion on demand but the law was defeated in the Senate in June. William D. Hawkland, "Law," *Britannica Book of the Year* 1978, p. 485

[1973]

Abstracted Forms. ► *Abstracted* means the use of a part of a word or phrase in what seems to be the meaning it contributes to the expression, as when *-gate* acquires a meaning from appearance in *Watergate*, then *Koreagate*, etc. In this way a linguistic form that is identical to all or part of an older form but is used in a different or broader range of contexts is described in this book as having been "abstracted from" the older form. For example, the combining forms *-AHOLIC*, *-HOLIC*, and *-OHOLIC* have all been drawn from *workaholic* (itself patterned on *alcoholic*) in order to extend this word's specific meaning of being compulsive about work to the general idea of being compulsive about anything. Most abstracted forms are combining forms: *-GATE* abstracted from *WATERGATE*, *PORN-* or *PORNO-* abstracted from the clipped forms *porn* or *porno* (*adj.* and *n.*). Sometimes the reverse occurs and a noun or adjective is abstracted from a combining form, as *MAXI*, *n.*, meaning "something very large," abstracted from *maxi-*, a combining form meaning "very large." Some words are abstracted from phrases and compounds: the slang word *CITY* in the sense of "person or thing of a specified character" was abstracted from the slang phrase *FAT CITY*; and phrases and compounds are often the bases of abstraction: *RUN-OF-THE-* was abstracted from *run-of-the-mill*; *DIAL-A-*, apparently from *Dialaphone*; *FLEXI-*, from such compound trademarks as *Flexi-Van*. See COMBINING FORMS.

A-ca-pul-co gold (ɑ: kə'pu:l kou), a strong variety of Mexican marijuana.

American users seek out 'Acapulco Gold' as the strongest variety of Mexican marihuana, but no one knows whether Acapulco Gold is really obtained from a special variety of Cannabis, whether it is simply any marihuana with a high proportion of flowering tops as opposed to lower leaves . . . or whether it is just any marihuana a dealer can get a high price for. Andrew T. Weil, *Science Journal*, Sept. 1969, p. 38

If you plan to grow your own backyard vegetable garden — a prudent idea these days, with onions the price of Acapulco Gold — you really should know that it's not nearly

enough to douse your little herbaceous, photosynthetic friends with fish emulsion, blood meal, liquid humus, and kelp concentrate. F. P. Tullius, "Talking to Your Veggies," *The New Yorker*, Aug. 13, 1973, p. 26

[1967, so called because it is grown near Acapulco, Mexico and because of the plant's golden color] Compare COLOMBIAN GOLD.

A-cas ('ei,kæs), *n.* British. acronym for *Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service*, a QUANGO of the Department of Industry consisting of some permanent civil servants and some co-opted members, the purpose of which is to arbitrate (at the request of both sides of an industrial dispute) when the ordinary process of conciliation has failed.

Acas completed conciliation in 2,595 disputes, and settlements were reached or arrangements to move towards a settlement were agreed in 2,123 of those, representing 82 per cent of the cases. "Conciliation Service Settles 82% of Cases," *The Times* (London), April 13, 1976, p. 4

[1976]

accelerogram, *n.* a record or graph of the acceleration of tremors occurring in an earthquake.

Synthetic accelerograms were constructed on a computer by the author and William B. Joyner of the U.S. Geological Survey in order to determine experimentally how an earthquake generated observed ground shaking. *Illustration legend*, "The Motion of the Ground in Earthquakes," *Scientific American*, Dec. 1977, p. 78

[1973, from *accelerate* + connecting *-o-* + *-gram*, derived from *accelerograph* (1954), instrument producing such a record]

acceptable, *adj.* capable of being tolerated; bearable.

DDT is eaten by Americans at only 10 per cent of the rate recommended by the WHO [World Health Organization] as a maximum acceptable daily intake. Jon Tinker, "Cleaning Up America," *New Scientist and Science Journal*, Sept. 23, 1971, p. 681

In the light of what is now known about the almost unmatched toxicity of dioxin — and of what is *not* known about its precise mode of action and its long-term effects on human beings — should the government accept the assurances of herbicide manufacturers that a little dioxin is "acceptable" to people, just because the dioxin contaminant is being spread and sprayed around over large, rather than small, areas? *The New Yorker*, July 25, 1977, p. 54

[1969, extended from the original (OED c1386) meaning "worthy or sure of being accepted"] See also ADI and ACTION LEVEL.

accepted pairing, advertising in which some advantageous feature of a competitor is conceded, especially to contrast that feature with a more desirable one of the advertised product or service.

At the same time, smart agencies were playing around with concepts like "accepted pairing" and "pre-emption." Avis was lagging behind Hertz. Doyle Dane realized that the simple negation of an unfavorable image doesn't pay. You don't deny the image, you make it work in your favor. The "We Try Harder" campaign was an example of "accepted pairing." Ted Morgan, *The New York Times Magazine*, Jan. 25, 1976, p. 53

[1976] Compare COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING.