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# Preface

*The Chambers Dictionary*, the product of a long line of dictionary-making, is directly descended, through *Chambers English Dictionary*, from *Chambers's Twentieth Century Dictionary*. With the publication of each succeeding edition, editors have kept abreast of contemporary changes in the requirements of users and in language – before the 1930's few people had heard of crosswords, and in the 1950's most people were unaware of the language of computing. For this edition, careful attention has been paid to ensure that both the requirements and the language of the last decade of the century will be well served by this dictionary.

Extensively revised and updated, *The Chambers Dictionary* is the dictionary of its kind, a unique presentation of the English language from Chaucer to the present day, with words old and new, unusual and commonplace, treated with the accuracy, clarity and insight for which Chambers is renowned. It reflects recent developments in every sphere of life, science, sport, technology, politics, food, economics and entertainment all contributing, along with many others, to this treasury of English. Monitoring this growing language is one of the most rewarding tasks of the lexicographer; a few of the thousands of words we have scrutinized in the course of compiling this edition will make the point. Maastricht re-introduced **subsidiarity**, **crop circles** came from nowhere, **jukeboxes** moved into computing, the **fatwa** became more widely known, and **grunge** crossed the Atlantic.

With this new edition, *Chambers* continues to play its part in recording and encouraging the development of English. We hope that old friends will continue to find in it what they want, and more, and that it will bring a taste of the richness, diversity, and even humour of English to a wider public. *Chambers* is more than a dictionary to be used for finding the meaning of a word or for checking a spelling; it is a book for browsing in. At a lunch in Oxford in 1991 to celebrate the publication of the *Observer's* AZED 1000 crossword, Richard Morse toasted *Chambers* as: '...the immensely readable book. Just as one can frequently take a short shopping list into a supermarket only to emerge with several additional purchases, so more pleasantly the checking of a single word in Chambers may lead to a more extensive acquisition of lexical items than had originally been intended.'

The comprehensiveness of its coverage commends *Chambers* as the dictionary for crosswords and other wordgames. It is the reference dictionary for the National Scrabble® Championship, the National Scrabble® Club Tournament, and the National Scrabble® Under-16 Championship. For those with competitive ambitions requiring word skills, it is the obvious choice, the width and character of its coverage being unrivalled by any other one-volume dictionary.

We are grateful to all who have played a part in making *The Chambers Dictionary* what it is – former editors, on whose firm foundations we have been able to build and extend; authors, scientists, politicians, broadcasters, in fact all who enrich the language; all readers, radio listeners and television viewers who help us in collecting this language; correspondents, spread across the world, many of whom have been assiduous in their encouragement and help over a considerable number of years. To all these, we express our acknowledgement, appreciation and thanks.

At the beginning of this century one of our predecessors, the editor of *Chambers's Twentieth Century Dictionary of the English Language*, wrote that the book 'will be found to possess many serviceable qualities'. Dr Davidson's claim, though modest in terms of today's marketing jargon, is one that we are proud still to make of *The Chambers Dictionary* 1993.

Catherine Schwarz  
Managing Editor

# Does grammar matter?

People often wonder where the role of the dictionary ends and the role of the grammar book begins. Dictionaries list words as individual units and explain their meanings, but what should they tell us about grammar? What *can* they tell us? Often words have many meanings, and the exact meaning of a word can only be determined from the surrounding context. The very idea of the 'word' is fraught with difficulty; linguists and philosophers (and indeed poets) have argued for centuries over what it really denotes. What matters is not individual words, but the ways in which words are assembled into utterances that convey meaning. These processes are governed by principles that together constitute what we call *grammar*, and there are important ways in which dictionaries, word-based though they are, can help explain them.

But there are problems with the concept of grammar. Grammar means different things to different people, and these differences cause much confusion. To the linguist, it means the codification of usage, and is a description of the ways in which words are *typically* used, according to carefully collected evidence. (Nowadays, computers play an important part in analysing this evidence.) Since usage changes, grammar is unstable; and since there are different varieties and dialects of English, there are many grammars.

What is ungrammatical, in this understanding of the term, is anything that does not conform to a typical pattern of usage. For example, the sentence *we promised them to stay* is ungrammatical, because (unlike *we promised to stay* and *we told them to stay*) it conforms to none of the patterns in which English is typically used. A phrase like *the green large house* is normally ungrammatical because English word-order (which is an important part of grammar) typically prefers the *large green house*. (We have to say 'normally' because we might exceptionally say *the green large house* to imply 'and not the red one'. However, we are talking about what is *typical*.) Why this should be so defies explanation and is beside the point: it is a fact of usage, and not a principle based on some objective criterion such as logic.

Other uses can be correct in one variety or dialect but not in another. For example, the second person pronoun in standard English is now invariably *you*, irrespective of the number and status of the people addressed. In some dialects this seems to be socially insufficient and alternative forms continue to exist (as in other languages, like French which has *tu* and *vous* and German which has three forms *du*, *ihr*, and *Sie*). The dialect of Liverpool, and other Irish-influenced dialects, have a plural form *youse*, as in *who are youse*? Although this is correct in the grammar of its dialect, because it is a typi-

cal usage, it is obviously not correct in the context of generally accepted standard English.

These examples of linguistic characteristics are the concern of grammar in its descriptive role. To many, grammar means something rather more restricted, namely *correct* usage. There is no doubt that language can be correct and incorrect, but what exactly does this mean? We all know that language is changing, and has been changing constantly for hundreds of years; so how do we determine what is correct and incorrect at any one time?

Clearly, uses like *we promised them to stay* and *the green large house*, that do not conform to any typical pattern, are incorrect in the sense of being ungrammatical. But what of the many uses that conform to one variety of usage but not others? For example, some dialects allow a pattern such as *she be late* instead of *she is late*; but it would usually be regarded as wrong. Then there is the question of spelling. Spellings vary from one form of English to another, and there are many variants even within one form of English. For example, we can write *judgement* or *judgment*, since both are correct. But we cannot write *accomodate* instead of *accommodate*, because it is regarded as wrong. What is the difference here?

To answer these questions, we have to consider that, although there are many varieties and dialects of English, all with their own grammars, there is a form of English that is most widely acceptable, and it is called standard English. It is not a dialect in the normal understanding of the term, because then it would be regionally located and would have words and phrases not found in other forms of the language; nor is it an accent, because standard English can be spoken in any accent. It is not even a variety, strictly speaking, because standard English exists within other varieties: there is standard British English and standard American English (more usually called General American English).

Standard English is an institutionalized form of English; that is to say, it is the form that is socially most acceptable throughout the society in which English is used. It is the form that foreign learners seek to learn, and it is the form that is most widely taught in schools. Uses that do not conform to the rules of standard English are regarded as incorrect; and they are indeed incorrect in terms of the 'standard'. This is not to say, however, that other varieties are incorrect; they are, if you like, 'non-standard'. No one would dream of questioning the validity of Scottish English, or dare to call it incorrect; and the same should be true of other varieties; the forms used for example in Northern England or in the Midlands or in East London.

On the question of spelling, it is important to



note that although English tolerates a considerable degree of variation in spelling, standard English still rejects some commonly used forms. There is very little apparent difference in principle between *judgment* (an acceptable variant) and *accomodate* (an unacceptable one), or between *advisor* (an acceptable variant of *adviser*) and *harrass* (an unacceptable variant of *harass*). In fact, there is a rule operating in the case of *judg(e)ment*, that a final unpronounced e can be dropped in certain circumstances when derivative words are formed; but it is a rule founded on usage and practicality, and is not predictable. And there are complete illogicalities: why *harass* with one *r* but *embar-rass* with two, when both have similar Old French origins? All we can say is that some variants become accepted and others do not.

It is therefore an important purpose of a dictionary to inform users about which forms are correct and which are incorrect. The common spelling *despatch* is an acceptable variant because Samuel Johnson used it in his dictionary of 1755. He did so despite the fact that all his evidence – which he quotes in the dictionary – used the form *dispatch*. We do not know the reason for his choice, and it may even have been a slip of the pen. Whatever the case, its inclusion gave the new spelling an authority that seems to be based on little more than accident. No one questions it now, but people used to regard it as a suspect spelling.

Grammar matters, then, because it is the accepted way of using language, whatever one's exact interpretation of the term. Incorrect grammar hampers communication, which is the whole purpose of language. The grammar of standard English matters because it is a codification of the way of using English that most people will find acceptable. It is, of course, as much a social and political issue as a linguistic one.

The concept of good and correct usage in English is relatively recent in relation to the history of the language: it is already apparent by about 1600, when Thomas Nashe and other poets wrote about 'cleansing' English of impure uses (usually words that are not Anglo-Saxon). 18th-century grammarians – who were often also writers, including Thomas Cooke (1703–56) and more famously Bishop Robert Lowth (1710–87) – expounded it at some length. But for a language that has been in use for fifteen centuries this is indeed relatively recent. Supposedly declining standards of language are often taken as a sign – or even as a result – of social ills more generally: for example by the diarist John Evelyn in the 1660s. They are too in our own day.

In the 18th and 19th centuries, grammarians looked to Latin as the model of English grammar. Bishop Lowth was one. Another was J C Nesfield, whose *Manual of English Grammar and Composition* was published in 1898. This accounts for many principles that were adopted at the time: that a preposition should not end a sentence (because they do not in Latin sentences), that *different* should be followed by *from* (because *different* is regarded as a deriva-

tive of *differ*), and that the infinitive (eg *to be*) should not be split (eg *to really be*; because it is regarded as a unit). It is worth pointing out that no one complained about the split infinitive before about 1850. Up to that time it had been used freely and naturally, and can be found in the work of great writers and poets including Shakespeare and Lord Byron.

The traditional eight parts of speech, which are still widely current and are used in most dictionaries for native speakers (although decreasingly in those for learners of English), are based on those devised by classical grammarians who lived before the birth of Christ. These categories do not work very well in modern English; and hardly at all in the case of the adverb, which is a catch-all category of ill-matched terms as diverse in usage as *happily* and *only*, and *very* and *fast*. The terms are so well established that they are the basis of most discussion about language; but we should be aware of their shortcomings.

In our own day, the classical model is in decline. Latin is taught less and less in schools. Linguists complain, with good reason, that it is absurd to impose the grammar of one language on another, when it has a structure that is so patently different. But since this model still forms a basis – if a less sure one – of standard English, it is important that speakers and writers of English should be aware of it, and that dictionaries should advise users of its principles. In doing so, they are not propounding eternal truths, or even necessarily effectiveness of communication, but are stating the social requirements involved in the use of language. It is also important, of course, that users of a language should understand its structure and how to talk about it; and this involves knowing the special vocabulary, or *metallanguage*, of grammatical terms with which to describe it.

Most general dictionaries therefore describe words on the basis of the standard form of English, and indicate any words and uses that are well attested but deviate from the standard. Word-based grammar, where the grammatical point is determined by the word used, is within the remit of the dictionary. This includes inflection (as in *takes*, *took*, *taking*, and so on) and derivation (as in forms like *painter* and *laughable*), and processes such as government, by which one word affects the behaviour of other words used in its company (for example, the word *promise* requiring a *that* clause as in *we promised them that we'd stay*). Other aspects of syntax, which deals with the theoretically infinite juxtapositions of words, usually lie outside this remit.

Within the scope that is possible in a good dictionary, users will be guided to a better understanding and use of the standard form of English. This ability is indispensable to clear and effective communication that will find acceptance wherever English is spoken and used throughout the world.

Robert Allen  
Editorial Director



# Characters used in etymologies

A brief guide to the pronunciation of some of the non-English characters which appear most frequently in etymologies is given below. The pronunciations given are necessarily approximate as it is not always possible to convey the exact phonetic values intended by means of respelling symbols or verbal explanations.

## Vowels

Symbol	Sound
<i>ā, ē, ī, ū</i>	In etymologies, these are long vowels with the sounds (or approximately the sounds) represented by the respelling symbols <i>a</i> or <i>ā</i> , <i>ē</i> or <i>e</i> , <i>ī</i> or <i>i</i> , and <i>ō</i> or <i>o</i> respectively.
<i>ō</i>	This represents a long <i>o</i> or <i>ō</i> sound or a monophthongal pronunciation of the respelling character <i>ō</i> .
<i>ȳ</i>	A long <i>ū</i> sound.
<i>æ</i>	A long vowel similar in sound to the RP pronunciation of respelling symbol <i>a</i> .
<i>a, e, etc., ā, ē, etc.</i>	Short vowels corresponding to <i>ā, ē, etc.</i> , with values, varying from language to language, similar to those of the corresponding long vowels or those of the short vowels of English; in Romanian, <i>ă</i> has the sound <i>ə</i> .
<i>â, ê, î, ô, û</i>	In some languages, eg Middle High German, these symbols are used for long vowels with the values <i>ā, ā, ē, ô, ô</i> respectively; in Romanian, <i>â</i> and <i>î</i> represent a sound midway between <i>ē</i> and <i>ō</i> .
<i>ä, ö</i>	These have the values of respelling symbols <i>e/ā</i> and <i>o/æ</i> respectively.
<i>ĩ, etc.</i>	The diacritic <i>~</i> is used, as in the respelling, to show nasalization of vowels.

## Consonants

Symbol	Sound
<i>ḍ, ṭ, ṇ, ṣ</i>	These are retroflex counterparts of <i>t, d, n, s</i> , etc.
<i>ṛ</i>	In Sanskrit, a vowel rather than a consonant; in Hindi, etc, a consonant formed by the tongue moving from a retroflex position to strike against the teeth-ridge.
<i>h</i>	The normal <i>h</i> -sound of English.
<i>m̃</i>	This marks nasalization of the preceding vowel or the following consonant in Sanskrit.
<i>ñ</i>	A sound similar to <i>ny</i> , as in Spanish <i>cañon</i> .
<i>ṅ</i>	The sound written <i>ng</i> in the respelling and in English orthography.
<i>c</i>	In Sanskrit, etc, a sound midway between <i>k</i> and <i>ch</i> ; in Turkish, the sound of <i>j</i> as in <i>judge</i> .
<i>ç</i>	In French, Arabic and Portuguese, this represents the sound <i>s</i> ; in Turkish, <i>ch</i> .
<i>č, ć</i>	In Serbo-Croat, <i>č</i> represents the sound <i>ch</i> , and <i>ć</i> represents <i>ty</i> .
<i>ş</i>	In Turkish, the sound <i>sh</i> .
<i>ṣ</i>	In Sanskrit, etc, a sound similar to <i>sh</i> .
<i>q</i>	In Arabic, a sound similar to <i>k</i> but pronounced slightly farther back in the mouth; in Chinese, a sound like <i>ch</i> ; in Gothic, <i>kw</i> .
<i>ğ</i>	This marks a lengthening of the preceding vowel in Turkish.
<i>gg</i>	In Gothic, the sound <i>ng</i> .
<i>ʹ</i>	In Russian words, this represents a 'soft sign', marking a <i>y</i> -like palatalization of the preceding consonant; in Chinese words, it is a mark of strong aspiration; in Arabic, Hebrew and Hawaiian, a glottal stop.
	In Arabic and Hebrew, a sound like <i>hh</i> but produced rather deeper in the throat.

# Using the dictionary

(see also inside front cover)

## Order of entries

All entries are listed alphabetically, each entry having as a basic pattern the following elements:

- (1) Headword
- (2) Pronunciation
- (3) Part of speech label
- (4) Definition(s)
- (5) Etymology

Within this framework there are often subheads – words that are derived from the headword (*derivatives*), or *compounds* or *phrases* that include the headword or one of its derivatives. This grouping of related words within an entry preserves and explains their etymological ‘family’ link, while at the same time ensuring that space is used as effectively as possible.

Where, however, such grouping is felt to be less helpful to the user we have separated the words into independent entries, as at **graduate** and **society**, showing their relationships to **grade** and **social** by means of the etymologies.

## Structure

The main elements of an entry are explained in greater detail below:

### 1. Headword

The word (in **bold** type) projecting at the head of an entry is referred to as the headword. Headwords are listed in alphabetical order.

Superscript numbers are added to headwords where necessary (see eg **cape**<sup>1</sup>, **cape**<sup>2</sup>) to indicate homographs (words of identical spelling but of different meaning, origin, etc).

Included in the headword list, in alphabetical order, are **cross-references**, words of which the full entry, or on which further information, is to be found elsewhere in the dictionary. Also included in the alphabetical headword sequence are **abbreviation** and **symbol** entries, which follow full-word entries of identical spelling, and which themselves are followed by **prefix**, **suffix** and **combining form** entries (see page xi).

### 2. Pronunciation

(see also inside back cover)

A respelling system (detailed on the inside back cover) has been used in this dictionary. It is a method that is intelligible to people who are not familiar with phonetic symbols, and one that allows for more than one interpretation – so that each user of the dictionary may choose a pronunciation in keeping with his or her speech.

A quick guide to some common vowel sounds is given on alternate pages of the dictionary.

Pronunciation guidance (in *italic* type) follows the headword, and is given elsewhere in an entry

in parentheses where helpful. The main, current British pronunciations are given, and also significant US, etc variants if appropriate, but the numerous possible regional variations cannot be covered individually in a dictionary of this size. See pages xiv and xv for details on American English and other varieties.

Guidance on stress patterns in words of more than one syllable is given by the use of the stress mark (ˈ), which *follows* the syllable that has the main accent, both in respelling and in subheads for which no full or partial respelling is required.

### 3. Part of speech label

Following the pronunciation at the head of an entry is a label to indicate the headword’s part of speech (eg *adj* for adjective, *n* for noun). A further part of speech label may follow a set of definitions, to show that the preceding bold word is also used as another type of word (eg **gash**<sup>1</sup> *vt* to cut deeply into. – *n* a deep, open cut).

Part of speech labels are given after all headwords except some foreign phrases, and before each direct derivative word. Compound nouns are not labelled.

Entries for **prefix**, **suffix** and **combining form** items treat all compound subheads as derivative items, with individual part of speech labels.

### 4. Definition(s)

Definitions in the dictionary entries are ordered and grouped with a view to clarity, ease of comprehension and use. Normally the most common meanings are given first, unless an earlier, perhaps more specific, sense serves to clarify or explain its subsequent use.

Definitions are separated by semicolons.

In abbreviation and symbol entries, definitions are listed alphabetically.

### 5. Etymology

The etymology is given in square brackets at the end of the entry. If no etymology is shown, this indicates that the origin and history of the headword is unknown or uncertain. A bold word given as an etymology directs the reader to that word entry as the derivation; other etymologies may direct the reader directly to another etymology. A bold prefix given as an etymology indicates that the headword is formed from that prefix plus the remaining word-item; both elements may be found at their separate dictionary entries.

For abbreviations used in etymologies and elsewhere in the dictionary, see pages xvi–xviii.

### 6. Subheads

Subheads are bold-print items not listed as separate entries, but listed and explained within

an entry. Note the order in which subheads appear in an entry:

(a) *Direct derivatives*

These are words which are formed by adding a suffix or ending either to the headword or to the root word. They are given, alphabetically, immediately after the various meanings of the headword. Each is given a grammatical (part of speech) label. Their pronunciation basically follows that of the headword, with stress marks placed *after* the syllable with the main accent. Where necessary, fuller respelling guidance is given in parentheses. If the meaning of a regular, direct derivative is readily deducible, it may be undefined.

(b) *Compounds*

Compound words (ie those made up of two or more words, the first being the entry headword or one of its derivatives) follow any direct derivatives. They may be hyphenated, one-word or two-word compounds. If the compound's meaning is evident from its two parts, it may be undefined. Where no grammatical label has been given at a compound, it is to be assumed to be a noun. Those compounds which do not begin with the headword or derivative of the headword are listed under the third category, the phrases.

(c) *Phrases*

Following any direct derivatives and any compound words, all phrasal items relating to the headword are listed alphabetically. These may be phrases, phrasal verbs or idioms, or compounds which do not begin with the headword or any of its derivatives.

## 7. Alternative forms

Words spelt or formed in more than one way, but sharing the same meaning(s) and use, are shown in the dictionary linked by the word 'or'. Where a number of such alternatives are shown, strict alphabetical order may be waived in order to list the most commonly used form first.

At headwords, alternative forms that have different pronunciations are each followed immediately by their appropriate pronunciation(s). If the pronunciation follows both headword forms, it applies to both forms.

In hyphenated compound words, alternative forms may often be shown only by the alternative element of the compound (eg **hunt'ing-box**, **-lodge** or **-seat**).

## 8. Hyphenation

The symbol **-** at the end of a line, as in **hunt'ing-box** above, denotes a hyphenated compound.

## 9. Inflections

Inflected words are shown, following a colon, after the definition(s) of a word (if any). Plural forms and verb participles, etc are shown only if they are irregular in formation, or warrant special clarification. Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives are given (again by the same criteria). Current *equivalent* feminine forms appear alongside the masculine forms, whereas distinctively or less commonly used

feminine forms are shown, following a colon, after the definition(s).

## 10. Classification labels

A label relating to the classification (eg *colloq*, *slang*, *chem*, *elec*, *psychol*) of a word or meaning precedes the list of meanings where it applies to all of the meanings given.

Where a label applies to only one definition in a list, it immediately *follows* that definition.

A label which precedes the part of speech label at the head of an entry applies to *all* meanings of the word *and* to its derivatives and their meanings unless or until it is cancelled by a further classification label. This applies also where there is only one sense and one meaning of a word.

Classification labels are shown in italic print.

**Foreign words** A bracketed abbreviation (eg *Fr*, *Ger*) preceding the part of speech label at the head of an entry signifies that the word is still regarded as a foreign word, rather than as a naturalized English word. German nouns have been spelt with a capital letter, as they are in their country of origin.

## 11. Alternative pronunciations

As for alternative word forms, alternative pronunciations are shown in the dictionary linked by the word 'or', or by a comma in a string of alternatives. The main, current British pronunciations of a word are given, and also significant and commonly-encountered US, Australian, etc variants as applicable.

Alternative pronunciations at a headword are generally given in full. Elsewhere in an entry simply the syllable or syllables of a word which may be pronounced alternatively are given.

In all alternative or partial pronunciations, that part of a word not included in the respelling is to be assumed unchanged from the main pronunciation given earlier in the entry.

## 12. Prefix, suffix and combining forms

These entries are treated as ordinary word entries except in the respects specified below.

In the respelling given at a prefix or similar headword, often no stress pattern is specified, as it varies according to the words formed with that element.

Entries for prefix, suffix and combining form items (as already noted in 3) show a separate part of speech label at each compound subhead 'nested' within the entry, treating them as derivatives of the headword.

Different senses within these entries are separated by semicolons. Where these senses are used for reference (eg in footers (see 12 below) or etymologies), they have been numbered.

## 13. Footers

These are lists, in panels at the foot of relevant pages, of words formed by the prefixes **anti-**, **non-**, **out-**, **over-**, **pre-**, **re-**, **sub-**, **super-**, **un-** and **under-** and not already listed in the dictionary.

The parts of speech and stress patterns of these words are shown; their meanings can be easily derived by referring to the numbered prefix entry, and if necessary to the word to which the prefix has been attached.

# Rules of English spelling

The most important spelling rules are explained in this article; an understanding of these is assumed for all entries in the dictionary where no inflected form (plural, past tense, etc) is given. Inflected forms are given for words that have inflections with unpredictable spellings (eg *tangos* and *mangoes*), inflections with spellings that do not follow the general rules (*paid* and *laid* as opposed to *played*), or inflections that are regular but about which there is often uncertainty (eg *monkeys*, not 'monkies').

In general, derivatives (eg nouns and adverbs based on adjectives, such as *brightness* and *brightly* from *bright*, or adjectives formed from nouns, such as *noisy* from *noise*) are spelt out in full in the dictionary, but since the rules for the formation of such derivatives are much the same as for inflections, they are covered here also.

The rules given here are those that apply in British English. See also p xiv for the rules of American spelling, where these differ from the British norm.

## The basic rules of inflection and derivation:

- (i) Plural **nouns** are normally formed by adding *-s* to the singular form:  
*cat cats dog dogs horse horses*  
 (NB There should be no apostrophe before the *s* in a plural noun; forms like *bag's* of *potato's* are commonly seen but are quite wrong. *Do's* is an exception, though *dos* is also correct.)

**Verbs** are generally inflected by adding *-s*, *-ing* and *-ed* to the base form:

*follow follows following followed*

If a word ends in *s*, *z*, *x*, *sh* or *ch*, *-es* is added rather than *-s*:

*kiss kisses box boxes push pushes*

However, if the *ch* is pronounced [k] or [h], *-s* alone is added:

*stomachs, lochs, psychs*

- (ii) Comparative and superlative **adjectives** (and some adverbs) are formed by the addition of *-er* and *-est* to the base form:  
*black blacker blackest*

- (iii) **Derivatives** of nouns, verbs and adjectives are generally formed by the simple addition of a suffix to the stem:  
*sing singer move movement*  
*red redness cruel cruelty*  
 Adjectives which end in *ic* form adverbs in *-ally*: *economic economically*  
 (The only common exception is *publicly*.)

## Inflection of nouns and verbs ending in *o*:

- (i) Most **nouns** ending in *o* add *-s* to form the plural:  
*zoo zoos radio radios Eskimo Eskimos*  
*albino albinos*

A small group of words add *-es*, eg *cargoes*, *echoes*, *goes*, *heroes*, *potatoes*. A number of words, such as *banjo*, *fiasco* and *halo*, may add either *-s* or *-es*. These are indicated in the dictionary.

- (ii) For the 3rd person singular of the present tense of the **verb**, the rule for adding *-s* or *-es* can be stated in terms of the noun rules:

if the noun takes only *-s*, or if there is no related noun, add *-s*:

*two radios → she radios*

if the noun takes *-es* in the plural, or may take either *-s* or *-es*, add *-es* to the verb:

*two echoes → it echoes*

(The only exception to this is *do*, plural *do's* or *dos*, 3rd person singular *does*.)

## Words ending in *y*:

- (i) A **noun** ending in *y* preceded by a consonant generally has a plural in *-ies*:

*fly flies country countries*

Proper nouns are an exception (eg *the four Marys*), as are words in which the final *y* belongs to the adverbial part of a compound (eg *lay-bys*, *stand-bys*).

If the final *y* is preceded by a vowel, it does not change to *ie* in the plural:

*day days donkey donkeys*

(but see *money* for the exceptional plural *monies*)

- (ii) The rules for **verb** inflections are much the same as for nouns. If the *y* follows a consonant, it changes to *ie* before *-s*, but if it follows a vowel, it does not:

*cry cries deny denies*

but

*stay stays enjoy enjoys buy buys*

Similarly, in the past tense:

*cry cried deny denied*

but

*stay stayed enjoy enjoyed*

(*Said*, *paid* and *laid* are exceptions.)

- (iii) **Adjectives** ending in *y* preceded by a consonant generally change the *y* to *i* in the comparative and superlative:

*happy happier happiest*

The only exceptions are a few one-syllable words in which the final *y* is pronounced [ɪ]: see the dictionary

entries for *dry*, *shy*, *sly*, etc.

If the final *y* is preceded by a vowel, it generally does not change in the comparative and superlative:

*grey greyer greyest coy coyler coyest*

However, a number of adjectives ending in *ey* (mostly ones based on nouns, eg

*clayey* from *clay*) change the *ey* to *i*:  
*clayey clayier clayiest*

- (iv) **Derivatives** follow similar rules as those for inflections, i.e. a *y* following a consonant changes to an *i* before a following suffix (except *-ing*), whereas one following a vowel does not:  
*happy happily happiness*  
*merry merriment deny denier*  
*envy enviable comply compliant*  
*but*  
*coy coyly coyness*  
*employ employment play player*  
*enjoy enjoyable buoy buoyant*

Words which are exceptions to the inflectional rules tend to be exceptions also to the derivational rules, but the irregularities are not always predictable. See the dictionary entries for *dry*, *shy*, *sly*, etc. (Note also the spelling of *busyness*, to distinguish it from *business*.)

### Words ending in *e*:

Before a suffix beginning with a vowel, the final *e* is generally dropped:

*smile smiling smiled smiler*  
*white whiter whitest whiten*  
*pale palish ice icy*  
*use usable escape escapism*

Before a consonant, the *e* is retained:

*move movement*  
*use useful useless*

There are, however, exceptions:

- (i) Verbs ending in *ee*, *oe* and *ye* do not drop the *e* before *-ing*:  
*hoe hoeing dye dyeing*
- (ii) Verbs ending in *ie* change the *ie* to *y* before *-ing*:  
*die dying tie tying*
- (iii) A few verbs retain the final *e* in order to show the correct pronunciation and to be distinguishable from similar words with no *e*:  
*sing singing but singe singeing*  
*swing swinging but swingeing*  
 (Note also the adjective *holey* = full of holes, as opposed to *holy*.)
- (iv) Before an *-a-* or an *-o-*, the *e* is retained after a soft *c* or *g*:  
*notice noticing but noticeable*  
*advantage advantageous*
- (v) Adverbs formed from adjectives ending in *le* preceded by a consonant simply replace the final *e* with *y*:  
*simple simply single singly*
- (vi) Words ending in *-dge* may correctly retain or drop the final *e* in derivatives; thus *judgment* and *judgement*, *abridgment* and *abridgement* are equally correct.
- (vii) Common exceptions to all the above rules are *argument*, *awful*, *daily*, *duly*, *eerily*, *gaily*, *truly* and *wholly*.

### Doubling of a final consonant:

If a word ends in a single consonant which is preceded by a single vowel written with a single

letter and the stress of the word is on the final syllable of the word (or if there is only one syllable), the final consonant is doubled before a suffix beginning with a vowel:

*drum drumming drummed drummer*  
*omit omitting omitted*  
*refer referring referred referral*  
*red redder reddest redder*  
*ton tonnage*  
*but*

*dream dreaming dreamed dreamer*  
*profit profiting profited*  
*enter entering entered*  
*refer reference* (note the change in stress)  
*green greener greenest*

A few words double the final consonant contrary to the above rule:

*worship worshipping worshipped worshipper*  
 (and also *format*, *handicap*, *hobnob*, *humbug*, *kidnap*, *leapfrog* and *zigzag*)

A final *l* preceded by a single-letter vowel generally doubles regardless of the position of the stress, as in

*signal signalling signalled signaller*  
*rebel rebelling rebellion rebellious*  
*cancel cancelling cancellation*

but not before the suffixes *-ize/-ise*, *-ism*, *-ist* and *-ity*, as in

*equal equality equalize*

*final finalist*

though again there are exceptions, such as *medallist*, *tranquillity* and *crystallize*.

Note also *paralleling* and *paralleled* (where one would expect a double *ll* before the suffix) and *woolly* and *woollen* (where one would expect a single *l*).

A few words allow both single and double consonants: see the dictionary entries for *eg benefit*, *bias*, *bus*, *focus*, *gas*, *leaflet*, *plus* and *yes*.

### Words ending in *c*:

When a suffix beginning with a vowel is added, and the consonant still has the hard [k] sound, the *c* becomes *ck*:

*picnic picnicking picnicked picnicker*

Two exceptions are *arc* and *talc*:

*arc arcing/arcking, arced/arcked*  
*talc talcing/talcking, talced/talcked*

The forms without *k* are the commoner.

No *k* is added when the final *c* becomes a soft sound ([sh] or [s]) in the derivative:

*magic magicking magicked but magician*  
*electric electricity*

### *-ie-* or *-ei-*?

The rule 'i before e except after c' applies only to words in which the vowel has the long [ē] sound:

*believe belief siege pier*  
*but*

*deceive deceit ceiling*

(Common exceptions are *seize*, *weir* and *weird*, scientific words such as *protein*, *caffeine* and *codeine*, and proper names such as *Keith*, *Neil*, *Sheila*, *Reid* and *Madeira*.)

If a word is pronounced with the sound [ā], *ei* is always the correct spelling:

*eight heir neighbour reign weight*

# American English

There are many differences between the forms of English spoken and written in Britain and America. Some of these are shown below.

## Spelling

Spelling differences in a number of individual words (eg *manoeuvre/maneuver*, *defence/defense*, *practise/practice*) are noted in the dictionary. Some differences involving groups of similar words are as follows:

Br	US	
-our	-or	American English has <i>-or</i> in words such as <i>color</i> and <i>humor</i> . <i>Glamour</i> and <i>saviour</i> , however, are generally written <i>-our</i> .
-re	-er	Eg <i>center</i> , <i>meter</i> , <i>theater</i> . But to show the hard sound of <i>c</i> or <i>g</i> : <i>acre</i> , <i>massacre</i> , <i>ogre</i> , etc; however, <i>meager</i> not <i>meagre</i> .
ll	l	In inflections and derivatives of words ending in <i>l</i> not immediately preceded by a single stressed vowel, American English does not double the <i>l</i> (cf p 18): <i>canceled</i> , <i>counselor</i> , <i>disheveled</i> , <i>equaled</i> , <i>marvelous</i> , <i>traveler</i> , etc. (Note also <i>woolen</i> .)
pp	p	Similarly, <i>kidnap</i> er, <i>worship</i> ing, etc. And also <i>carburetor</i> (but eg <i>formatting</i> ).
tt	t	
l	ll	Eg <i>enroll</i> , <i>fulfill</i> , <i>instill</i> , <i>skillful</i> and <i>willful</i> .
ae, oe or e	e	The tendency to replace <i>ae</i> and <i>oe</i> by <i>e</i> in words derived from Latin and Greek is more strongly developed in the US than in Britain, eg <i>esophagus</i> , <i>hemoglobin</i> .
-ize or -ise	-ize	In verbs that may be spelt <i>-ize</i> or <i>-ise</i> , the use of <i>-ize</i> is now standard in American English. Note also <i>analyze</i> , <i>paralyze</i> , etc.

As a rule, hyphens are used less frequently in American English than in British English: eg *dining room* rather than *dining-room*, *bitterroot* rather than *bitter-root*.

## Pronunciation

Generally speaking American pronunciation differs from British English as follows:

Br	US	
ä		In many words, eg <i>ask</i> , <i>dance</i> , <i>half</i> and <i>rather</i> , American English has a shorter, more front vowel than that of standard British English.
i		Where British English has <i>i</i> in final position in words such as <i>happy</i> and <i>city</i> , American English has <i>ē</i> .
ö		An alternative pronunciation <i>ä</i> is common in words such as <i>haunt</i> , <i>launch</i> , <i>saunter</i> , <i>taunt</i> and <i>vaunt</i> .

- o In American English, words such as *block*, *got*, *pond*, *probable* and *top* are pronounced with an *ä* sound. In words in which the vowel is followed by *f*, *s*, *th*, *r*, *g* or *ng*, eg *coffee*, *dog*, *cross*, *forest* and *long*, a longer vowel similar to *ö* is also common.
- ü After the sounds *t*, *d*, *n*, *l* and *s*, American English has *ö* rather than *ü*, eg in *new* and *tune*.
- il In most words ending in *-ile*, such as *agile*, *fertile*, *fragile* and *hostile*, American English pronounces the final syllable as *-il* rather than *-il*.
- t In words such as *latter*, *metal* and *writing*, the *-tt/-t-* is pronounced with the same sound as that of the *-dd/-d-* in *ladder*, *medal* and *riding*.
- r In most accents of American English *r* is pronounced at the end of a word and before a consonant.

There are a number of differences between the American pronunciation of vowels followed by *r* and the British pronunciation of the corresponding vowels:

Br	US	
a		Some Americans tend to make a sound approaching <i>e</i> , so that, for example, <i>merry</i> approximates to <i>merry</i> .
ä		This is commonly pronounced as a diphthong before <i>r</i> , the first element of which is close to a lengthened <i>e</i> . The second element of the diphthong, <i>a</i> , is sometimes not pronounced when the vowel occurs in initial or medial position; eg the usual pronunciation of <i>Maryland</i> is <i>mer'i-land</i> .
är		In words such as <i>clerk</i> and <i>Derby</i> , where British speech preserves an older pronunciation <i>är</i> , American speech has <i>ür</i> .
spelt -er-		
-ä-ri		American English tends to give greater prominence than British English does to the suffixes <i>-ary</i> and <i>-ory</i> , and often also <i>-ery</i> ; for example, <i>monetary</i> (Br <i>-tə-ri</i> or <i>-tri</i> , US <i>-te-ri</i> ), <i>confectionery</i> (Br <i>-nə-ri</i> , US <i>-ne-ri</i> ) and <i>obligatory</i> (Br <i>-tə-ri</i> or <i>-tri</i> , US <i>-tö-ri</i> ).

In addition to the above, many differences between American and British English pronunciation are noted in the entries for particular words and prefixes in the dictionary. See for example *anti-*, *schedule*, *simultaneous* and *tomato*.

## Lexis

Many differences between British and American usage with regard to vocabulary and meaning are noted in the dictionary, eg *bonnet/hood*, *homely* and *pavement/sidewalk*.



# Some other varieties of English

British and American English are only two of the varieties of English which exist in the world today. Other forms exist elsewhere, notably in Canada, South Africa, India and Pakistan, Australia and New Zealand. Many words or meanings of words unique to these regional forms are noted in the dictionary, eg *baas*, *billabong*, *coloured*, *hartal*, *joey*. Some guidance on pronunciation and spelling is given in the following notes.

## Canadian English

In spelling, Canadian usage stands midway between American English and British English. The usage is however far from uniform and varies from province to province and even from person to person. Hence spellings such as *color*, *traveler* and *center*, and *colour*, *traveller* and *centre*, are to be found alongside each other.

In pronunciation, Canadian English exhibits features found in both American and British English although it more commonly follows American English, eg speakers of Canadian English pronounce *tomato* with an *ā*.

### Br Can

*r* Like American English, Canadian English pronounces *r* in word-final position and before a consonant.

*t* In the pronunciation of many Canadians, words such as *matter* and *madder* rhyme, as in American English.

*i* The sound heard in *squirrel*, etc approaches *ū*.

*īl* Of the words which end in *-īl* in British English, some, eg *docile*, *textile*, *fragile*, end in *-īl* as in British English, while others such as *missile* and *fertile* end in *-il* as in American English.

*ī, ow* In Canadian English, the vowels in eg *loud* and *ride* do not rhyme with those of *lout* and *write*.

## English in Australia and New Zealand

Although there are differences between the English of Australia and that of New Zealand, the two varieties are sufficiently similar to be treated together.

The spelling of Australian and New Zealand English traditionally follows that of British English but American spelling is now sometimes also found.

Features of pronunciation that can be noted are:

### Br Austr, NZ

*r* As in British English, *r* is not pronounced before a consonant or at the end of a word, except by speakers in the southern part of the South Island of New Zealand.

*i* Australian and New Zealand English have *ē* in words such as *happy* and *very*, where British English has *i*. In closed unstressed syllables, where British English has *i*, Australian and New Zealand English have *ə*, as for example in *mistake*, *defeat*, *ticket*, etc.

*ōor* The pronunciation *ōōə* of words like *sure*, *pure*, etc has been almost entirely superseded by either *ō* or *ōōə*.

*ā* In many words in which British English has *ā*, Australian and New Zealand English have *a*. In words ending in *-ance*, New Zealand English has *ā* where Australian English has *a* or *ā*. In Australian English *lather* is pronounced with *a*, but in New Zealand with *ā*.

*ō* Before *l*, this is *usu* pronounced as *o*.

## English in South Africa

In spelling, South Africa follows British English. In pronunciation, notable features are:

### Br S Africa

*r* The S African English treatment of *r* word-finally and before consonants is the same as that of British English.

*i* S African English has *ē* where British English has *i* in *very*, *secretary*, etc. In other positions, *ī* is pronounced more centrally than in British English, with a vowel close to *ə*.

*a, e, ā*, There is a tendency to raise these vowels to values approaching *e*, *i*, *o/ō*, etc so giving *de' dē* for *daddy*, *kit' l* for *kettle*, and so on.

*ār* This is normally pronounced as a long *e* or *ā* sound in words like *bear*, *fair*, etc.

## English in the Indian Subcontinent

English in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh is normally learned as a second language, and is often greatly influenced by the speaker's first language. Thus no homogeneous Indian English can be described here but only a number of features about which one may make some general remarks.

Two common features of Indian English are the use of retroflex *ṭ*, *ḍ*, etc. for British English *t*, *d*, etc, and the substitution of *p*, *t*, *d* for *f*, *th*, *dh*. Speakers whose native language is Hindi or Urdu tend to insert an *i* before the initial consonant clusters in words such as *speech*, *school*, because these consonant groups do not occur in initial position in Hindi or Urdu.

Indian English pronounces word-final and pre-consonantal *r*.

Vowels in unstressed syllables are often pronounced in the way they would be in stressed syllables, where British English has *ə* or *i*.

# Abbreviations used in the dictionary

The abbreviations, shown here in *italic type*, will also be found in the dictionary in *roman type*.

Many of the abbreviations are used as labels. Other, unabbreviated, labels are also found in the dictionary, all of which should be self-explanatory. It should be noted that the label *Bible*, unless it is qualified, refers to the Authorized Version.

<i>abbrev</i>	abbreviation	<i>bot</i>	botany, botanical	<i>derog</i>	derogatorily
<i>AD</i>	Anno Domini	<i>Braz</i>	Brazilian	<i>Dict</i>	Dictionary
<i>adj</i>	adjective	<i>Bret</i>	Breton	<i>dimin</i>	diminutive
<i>admin</i>	administra- tion	<i>c</i>	century ( <i>L circa</i> )	<i>dm</i>	decimetre(s)
<i>adv</i>	adverb	<i>c.</i>	about	<i>Du</i>	Dutch
<i>Afr</i>	Africa, African	<i>Can</i>	Canada, Canadian	<i>E</i>	East, Eastern
<i>Afrik</i>	Afrikaans	<i>cap(s)</i>	capital(s)	<i>EAfr</i>	East Africa(n)
<i>agric</i>	agriculture	<i>Caribb</i>	Caribbean (cf <b>Carib</b> in Diction- ary)	<i>E Anglian</i>	East Anglian
<i>Am</i>	America(n) ( <i>L ante</i> <i>meridiem</i> )	<i>Central Am</i>	Central America(n)	<i>Eastern Ch</i>	Eastern Church
<i>am</i>	before noon	<i>cf</i>	( <i>L confer</i> ) compare	<i>eccles</i>	ecclesiastical
<i>Am football</i>	American football	<i>Channel Is</i>	Channel Islands	<i>ecol</i>	ecology
<i>Am Ind</i>	American Indian	<i>chem</i>	chemistry	<i>econ</i>	economics
<i>Am Sp</i>	American Spanish	<i>chem eng</i>	chemical engineering	<i>educ</i>	education
<i>anatom</i>	anatomy, anatomic- ally	<i>Chin</i>	Chinese	<i>eg</i>	( <i>L exempli</i> <i>gratia</i> ) for example
<i>Anglo-Fr</i>	Anglo- French	<i>Chin med</i>	Chinese medicine	<i>Egypt</i>	Egyptian
<i>Anglo-Ind</i>	Anglo-Indian	<i>Ch of Eng</i>	Church of England	<i>Egypt antiq</i>	Egyptian antiquity
<i>Anglo-L</i>	Anglo-Latin	<i>Christian</i>	Christian	<i>elec</i>	electrical, electricity
<i>anthropol</i>	anthropology	<i>relig</i>	religion	<i>elec eng</i>	electrical engineering
<i>antiq</i>	antiquity	<i>Christian</i>	Christian	<i>embryol</i>	embryology
<i>appar</i>	apparently	<i>theol</i>	theology	<i>Eng</i>	England, English
<i>approx</i>	approx- imately	<i>cinematog</i>	cinema- tography	<i>eng</i>	engineering
<i>Ar</i>	Arabic	<i>civ eng</i>	civil engineering	<i>entomol</i>	entomology
<i>archaeol</i>	archaeology	<i>cm</i>	centimetre(s)	<i>erron</i>	erroneous(ly)
<i>archit</i>	architecture	<i>colloq</i>	colloquial(ly)	<i>esp</i>	especially
<i>arith</i>	arithmetic	<i>compar</i>	comparative	<i>etc</i>	( <i>L et cetera</i> ) and so on, and the rest
<i>Assyr</i>	Assyrian	<i>comput</i>	computers, computing	<i>ety</i>	etymology
<i>astrol</i>	astrology	<i>conj</i>	conjunction	<i>euphem</i>	euphemistic- (ally)
<i>astron</i>	astronomy	<i>corresp</i>	correspond- ing	<i>exc</i>	except
<i>atomic no</i>	atomic number	<i>crystallog</i>	crystallo- graphy	<i>fem</i>	feminine
<i>attrib</i>	attri- butive(ly)	<i>cu</i>	cubic	<i>ff</i>	following pages
<i>Austr</i>	Australia(n)	<i>Czech</i>	Czechoslo- vakian	<i>fig</i>	figurative(ly)
<i>autos</i>	automobiles	<i>Dan</i>	Danish	<i>Finn</i>	Finnish
<i>AV</i>	Authorized Version			<i>fl</i>	( <i>L floruit</i> ) flourished
<i>bacteriol</i>	bacteriology			<i>Flem</i>	Flemish
<i>bc</i>	before Christ			<i>foll</i>	followed, following
<i>behav</i>	behaviourism			<i>fortif</i>	fortification
<i>biochem</i>	biochemistry			<i>FQ</i>	<i>Faerie</i> <i>Queene</i>
<i>biol</i>	biology				

<i>Fr</i>	French, France	<i>km</i>	kilometre(s)	<i>New Eng</i>	New England
<i>Fr Can law</i>	French Canadian law	<i>L</i> <i>lb</i>	Latin pound(s) (weight)	<i>New Eng Bible</i> <i>New L</i> <i>N Irish</i>	New English Bible New Latin Northern Irish
<i>Fris</i>	Frisian	<i>LGer</i>	Low German		
<i>ft</i>	foot, feet	<i>linguistics</i> <i>lit and fig</i>	literal(ly) and figurative(ly)	<i>*Norw</i> <i>n pl</i> <i>n sing</i>	Norwegian noun plural noun
<i>gen</i>	general(ly)				singular
<i>geog</i>	geography	<i>Lith</i>	Lithuanian		nuclear
<i>geol</i>	geology	<i>LL</i>	Low (or Late)	<i>nuc eng</i>	engineering
<i>geom</i>	geometry		Latin	<i>NZ</i>	New Zealand
<i>Ger</i>	German				
<i>Gmc</i>	Germanic				
<i>Gr</i>	Greek	<i>masc</i>	masculine	<i>obs</i>	obsolete
<i>gram</i>	grammar	<i>math</i>	mathematics	<i>ODu</i>	Old Dutch
<i>Gr Ch</i>	Greek Church	<i>MDu</i>	Middle Dutch	<i>OE</i> <i>OFr</i>	Old English Old French
<i>Gr mythol</i>	Greek mythology	<i>ME</i>	Middle English	<i>OFris</i> <i>OHGer</i>	Old Friesian Old High German
<i>Heb</i>	Hebrew	<i>mech</i>	mechanics, mechanical	<i>OIr</i>	Old Irish
<i>HGer</i>	High German	<i>Med</i> <i>med</i>	Medieval medicine	<i>OLGer</i>	Old Low German
<i>Hind(i)</i>	Hindi	<i>metaphys</i>	metaphysics	<i>ON</i>	Old Norse
<i>Hindu mythol</i>	Hindu mythology	<i>meteorol</i>	meteorology	<i>ONFr</i>	Old Northern French
<i>hist</i>	history, historical	<i>Mex</i> <i>Mex Sp</i>	Mexican Mexican Spanish		
<i>hortic</i>	horticulture			<i>OPers</i>	Old Persian
<i>Hung</i>	Hungarian	<i>MFlem</i>	Middle Flemish	<i>opp</i>	opposite, opposed
<i>hyperb</i>	hyperbolically	<i>MFr</i>	Middle French	<i>orig</i> <i>ornithol</i>	original(ly) ornithology
<i>Icel</i>	Icelandic (Modern)	<i>MHGer</i>	Middle High German	<i>Orthodox Ch</i>	Orthodox Church
<i>ie</i>	( <i>L id est</i> ) that is	<i>microbiol</i> <i>microsc</i> <i>min ext</i>	microbiology microscopy mineral extraction	<i>OSax</i> <i>OSlav</i> <i>OWelsh</i> <i>oz</i>	Old Saxon Old Slavonic Old Welsh ounce(s)
<i>image technol</i>	image technology				
<i>imit</i>	imitative	<i>MLGer</i>	Middle Low German		
<i>immunol</i>	immunology			<i>p</i>	participle, participial
<i>impers</i>	impersonal	<i>mm</i>	millimetre(s)		
<i>in</i>	inch(es)	<i>mod</i>	modern	<i>Pak</i>	Pakistan(i)
<i>incl</i>	including	<i>Mod Du</i>	Modern Dutch	<i>palaeog</i> <i>palaeontol</i>	palaeography palaeontology
<i>Ind</i>	India(n)				
<i>Ind admin</i>	Indian administration	<i>Mod Fr</i> <i>Mod L</i>	Modern French Modern Latin (= New Latin)	<i>pap</i> <i>pat</i> <i>pathol</i> <i>perf</i> <i>perh</i> <i>Pers</i> <i>pers</i>	past participle past tense pathology perfect perhaps Persian personal, person
<i>indic</i>	indicative				
<i>infl</i>	influenced				
<i>intens</i>	intensive, intensifier	<i>mph</i>	miles per hour		
<i>interj</i>	interjection				
<i>interrog</i>	interrogative	<i>mythol</i>	mythology		
<i>intrans</i>	intransitive				
<i>Ir</i>	Ireland, Irish	<i>N</i>	North, Northern	<i>Peruv</i>	Peruvian
<i>irreg</i>	irregular(ly)			<i>pfx</i>	prefix
<i>Ital</i>	Italian, Italy	<i>NAm</i>	North America(n)	<i>pharm</i> <i>pharmacol</i>	pharmacy pharmacology
<i>IVR</i>	International Vehicle Registration	<i>nat hist</i> <i>naut</i> <i>neg</i> <i>N Eng</i>	natural history nautical negative Northern England, Northern English	<i>philat</i> <i>philol</i> <i>philos</i> <i>photog</i> <i>phys</i> <i>physiol</i> <i>pl</i>	philately philology philosophy photography physics physiology plural
<i>Jap</i>	Japanese				
<i>Jav</i>	Javanese				
<i>joc</i>	jocular(ly)				
<i>kg</i>	kilogram(s)				