

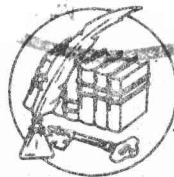
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WEBSTER'S
DICTIONARY
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE
UNABRIDGED

Encyclopedic Edition

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INTRODUCTION

WITH THE publication of this new, extensive revision of WEBSTER'S NEW TWENTIETH CENTURY DICTIONARY, the publisher is continuing his tradition of making available to the general public scholarly but practical reference works at a reasonable cost. This dictionary has had a long and honorable history. From its earliest progenitor, Noah Webster's COMPENDIOUS DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, through the various excellent editions of George W. Ogilvie, and continuing into the numerous revisions prepared by the present publisher, the editorial staffs involved have striven constantly to retain that which has remained lexicographically sound, at the same time building in the light of constantly increasing linguistic knowledge. The result has been at all times a work that has served the needs of its own period as the first Webster dictionary served early nineteenth-century America.

With the accelerated growth and change in our language in recent times, and especially in the years following World War II, it became clear that the time had arrived for something more ambitious than the regular annual revision. Rapid advances in the sciences, and especially in the fields of nuclear physics and medicine, had introduced hundreds of new concepts and the words that gave them currency. War and the political and economic changes that followed had brought into the language additional hundreds of new words and phrases and had given new meanings to other, well-established terms. But especially the accumulation of gradual, but by now surely perceptible, changes in the syntax and idiom of American speech had lent an air of encroaching obsolescence to the otherwise sound, Websterian definitions of much of the general vocabulary.

The time had come for a complete re-evaluation of the dictionary; and so members of the publisher's permanent lexicographical staff under the general supervision of Jean L. McKechnie, set to work examining every definition and revising where the passage of time had left its mark in a now obscure definition or in a prolixity not in keeping with the staccato tempo of mid-twentieth-century America. The staff was fortunate in having available for its use the resources and files of *Webster's New World Dictionary of The American Language*, an advantage which made possible the elimination of much of the back-breaking work involved in the recasting of new, up-to-date definitions.

The entire list of entries in the dictionary was re-examined on the basis of modern word-count lists. Words whose increased use in recent years had established them as a part of the active vocabulary of American English were inserted, and such rare or esoteric words as had virtually disappeared from active use were dropped from the word stock to make room for the newer, more pertinent entries. The constant criterion for entry selection was the probability of usefulness to the reader. Consequently, in these days of increased emphasis upon adult education, it was found advisable to include a considerable number of obsolete, archaic, and rare words that are likely to be encountered in the earlier standard literature. At no time, however, was the dictionary allowed to become a mere repository of the rare obsolete words and variant forms

that are frequently to be met up with only in some of the unabridged dictionaries. As a result, the several hundred thousand vocabulary entries in WEBSTER'S NEW TWENTIETH CENTURY DICTIONARY include virtually all those words that a prolific reader in English will ever be likely to investigate.

Because of the general familiarity of the reading public with the diacritical markings for indicating pronunciation already in use in this dictionary, it was decided to retain this system with some minor modifications to allow for a more nearly precise transcription. The pronunciations themselves have been carefully restudied, and where some radical change, as in the stress pattern, has taken place in the prevailing pronunciation, this has been recorded. Variant pronunciations have been given only where these are heard with some degree of frequency. Because the system of diacritical markings, based on that used by Webster, was designed to avoid, wherever possible, the necessity of respelling for pronunciation, some of the diacritics have deliberately been given an elasticity that will accommodate the phonetic patterns of speakers from different parts of the country. A full pronunciation key and a guide to the pronunciation system will be found on p. xii. For the additional convenience of users of this dictionary, an abbreviated key has been included at the bottom of every two-page spread of the text.

In the etymologies, the aim has been to show the origin and line of development of the word in the simplest manner possible, with a minimum of distracting details. Doubtful forms and hypothetical roots have been omitted as of little interest to the lay user of the dictionary. Where a number of related words deriving from a single source appear in close proximity to one another, the etymological treatment is often given only with the basic or most important word of the group. Etymologies have been given for obsolete words only when such words occur commonly in the standard literature, especially when the derivation helps make clear the meaning of the word. To conserve space, the etymologies of some compounded words, especially of scientific terms, indicate only the various combining forms of which they are composed. All such combining forms have been entered in their proper alphabetical order, traced to their sources, defined, and exemplified in usage.

The aim of the editors has been to construct definitions that would be accurate, clear, and simple, and would yet contain sufficient information or explanatory notation so that their meanings would be thoroughly understood by the general reader. Illustrative phrases showing a word in use have been added where it was felt that these would help give the connotative force of the word. In addition, many citations from literature have been included to illustrate the usage of our finest writers. Following many of the entries will be found lists of synonymous or closely related words and, where it was thought helpful, some of these terms have been discriminated in a brief paragraph following the list of synonyms.

No fixed, arbitrary arrangement of the senses within a given entry has been attempted. Any effort to arrange each entry so that the prevailing current meaning is given first is doomed to failure, since for most words there are a number of senses, on

INTRODUCTION

different levels and in different fields, that have equal currency. The editors have therefore allowed practicality to determine their practice. Where the historical order of senses seemed advisable, this order has been followed; where one meaning flows logically into another or others, this too has been indicated. Introductory phrases indicating specialized fields of knowledge introduce those meanings that are restricted to these special fields. Labels indicating variation in usage help the reader judge the usability of a term (e.g., *slang*, *colloquial*, *obsolete*, *archaic*, *rare*, *British*, *dialectal*).

Careful attention has been paid to the idiomatic phrasal units that are such a basic feature of English, and hundreds of additional phrases (such as *to burn the candle at both ends*, *up in arms*, *bed of roses*) have been added to this revision of the dictionary. Such phrases have been inserted following the entry for that word which is regarded as basic in the phrase, and under the pertinent part of speech. In addition to such idioms, compound noun phrases which have specialized meanings have been entered either under the key word or, where necessary, as individual entries properly alphabetized.

Several thousand illustrations, including hundreds of new

ones, appear throughout the dictionary to help clarify the definitions. These illustrations have been carefully selected to show the function, relative size, or appearance of the object being defined. Full captions and explanatory legends are included as an additional aid to the user of the dictionary.

The entire work has been reset in a new modern format and in a clear, legible type of a size that is uniquely large for unabridged dictionaries. Following the dictionary text proper will be found an encyclopedic supplement of useful information, including an exhaustive listing of biographical entries, lists of foreign countries, provinces, and cities, with their population figures, charts of other geographical data, the air distances between principal cities, a list of foreign words and phrases, a complete listing of abbreviations in common use, tables of weights and measures, signs and symbols, and forms of address.

It is the express wish and expectation of the publisher and editors that this new revision of WEBSTER'S NEW TWENTIETH CENTURY DICTIONARY will serve its users as well as Webster's original work served the people of his time.

THE EDITORS

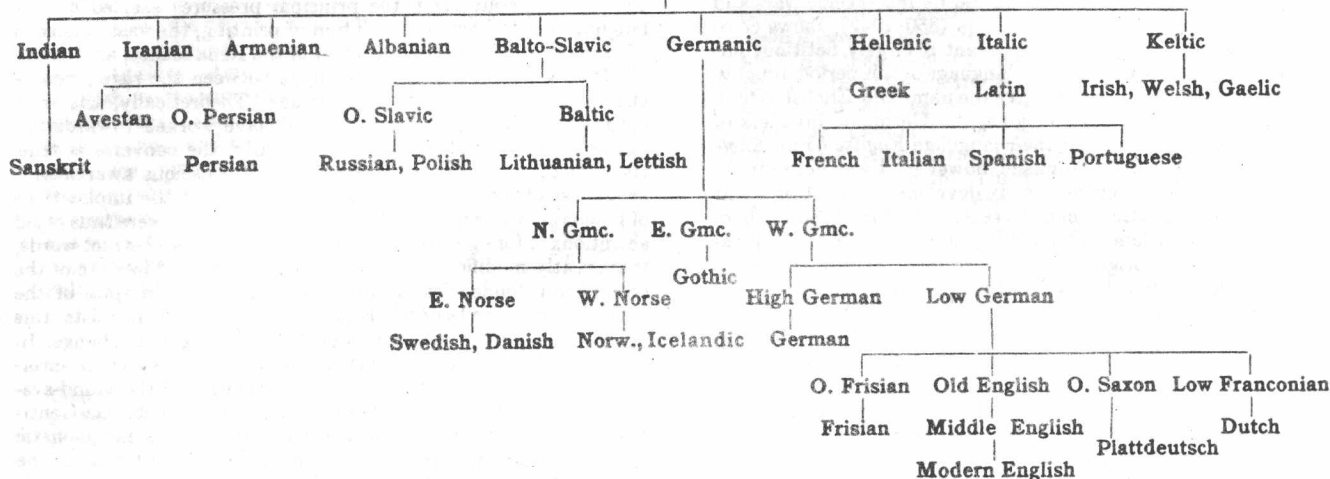
OUTLINE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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I

INDO-EUROPEAN



THE ULTIMATE origins of the English language, as modern scholarship sees them, can best be grasped from some such schema as that above. Whatever the demerits of this schema, it at least suggests the connection of English with the West Germanic sub-branch of the Germanic branch of the linguist's conception of a parent language called Indo-European. It also suggests that English is closely connected with Dutch and Frisian, more remotely with German, more remotely still with Latin, Greek, Welsh, and Russian, and very remotely with Sanskrit and Iranian. Consideration of series of cognate forms like English *brother*, Dutch *broeder*, German *Brüder*, Old Saxon *brōthar*, Lithuanian *broter-*, Greek *phrātēr*, Latin *frāter*, Irish *brathair*, Sanskrit *bhrātār-* underlines these relationships and gives a hint of the comparative method by which their existence was established. To the philologist, versed in the principles of phonetic differentiation, the interconnections between so unlikely a series as Latin *canō* 'I sing,' English *hen*, Old English *hana*, Old Icelandic *hane* 'cock,' German *Hahn*, Greek *kandasein* 'to sound,' and Sanskrit *kankani* 'bell' are equally apparent and significant.

The significant history of the English language, however, goes back no further than the 5th century A.D. when tribes from the northwestern Continental fringe, speaking a form of West Germanic, invaded and conquered Romano-Keltic England. To trace the development of the English language is to trace the process by which the dialects this handful of invaders spoke became the mighty instrument of communication, emotion, and literature now used by upwards of 190 million of the world's inhabitants. And the more we trace this phenomenon, the more we shall realize that the history of our language is merely one aspect of the social and cultural history of the invaders' descendants.

Change in Language

Language is, in fact, the predominant factor in the social organization of humanity. Its real existence lies not so much in the printed book, not even in a dictionary such as this, as in the sense of community or community of feeling of those who habitually use it. Inevitably, therefore, any dislocation of the community—whether geo-

graphical by extension or vertical by class-differentiation—will cause marked changes in the pattern of the language itself. But

even within a stable community, linguistic change is constantly at work. Analyzed into its simplest elements, spoken language is no more than an organized and closely knit system of sound-signals produced by certain correlated movements of specific bodily organs. The child acquires this system from those around him by a process of trial and error, but not as a number of isolated sounds. He hears words; he tries, with imperfect results at first, to adjust his vocal apparatus to the series of complicated and minute adjustments that every word occasions; eventually, these adjustments, through self-training, become more or less automatic. But always the child will articulate a little differently from his parents, and although he is not conscious of it, his sound-system will differ in some particulars from that used by his parents. Curiously enough, the differences will tend to be most marked in the sounds which are most difficult to articulate and which are least closely correlated with the remainder of the sound-system. And, what is still more striking, in any speech community, at the same moment, and under the same conditions, the youngest generation will tend to modify the same sounds in the same direction. It is this fact that makes a science of language, and hence a history of the English language, possible.

Carried to its logical conclusion, this principle would imply that any speech community speaks differently from all other speech communities, and that within each community there is a difference in the speech of successive generations. And to some degree, that is true. The constant tendency towards change, however, is partially offset by tendencies that oppose it. Since the necessity for communication is the well-spring of language, too varied a differentiation would obviously defeat the primary purpose for which language was developed. The impulse towards differentiation is mainly supported by the complexity of social relationships; the impulse towards uniformity is supported by those elements of social and mental organization that make for unity—writing, education, the Church, the political organization of the community, and on the psychological plane, the principle of analogy. At any given moment, therefore, there tends to develop a kind of equilibrium between differentiation on the one hand and uniformity on the other. When great social upheavals or racial intermixtures occur, that equilibrium may be destroyed, and linguistic change will appear to be comparatively rapid; in periods of social stability, linguistic change will operate more gradually. It is this fact

OUTLINE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

that justifies the customary and arbitrary time-divisions in the history of any single language.

The Principal Periods of English

(a) The origins of the English language lie in a social dislocation, i.e., the emigration of certain groups from the Continent to England, with the consequent breaking of communication between these groups and their Continental kinsfolk. The great dislocation occurred during the Norman Conquest (1066-c.1120). Between the two events extends a period which, although marred by internecine wars and the incursions of Scandinavian invaders (850-1042), shows comparative social stability and an apparent if largely fictitious linguistic equilibrium. To the English language of this period, roughly from 450 to about 1150, we may give the name Old English (OE.).

Irrespective of their tribal origins, the Germanic invaders of England seem to have named their language *Englisc* (from *Engle* 'the Angles'). As a spoken language, however, it was not entirely uniform. Dialectal differences already developed on the Continent probably increased rather than decreased on English soil, where the conditions of settlement tended further to split up the original communities. These original differences, seconded by the Scandinavian invasions and the differentiation natural to some fifteen centuries of untrammelled development, have much to do with the complexities of Modern English dialectal speech. Yet Old English writings, our only real source of information about Old English, show a quite remarkable uniformity. The eventual national ascendancy of the West-Saxon kingdom, centered around the capital at Winchester, gave the written dialect of Wessex the importance of a written standard language; and the great bulk of Old English literature was either written originally in West-Saxon or was transcribed into it from its original Northumbrian and Mercian sources. Written West-Saxon is, therefore, an arresting example of the crystallizing power exerted by a powerful written standard upon the free stream of linguistic development.

(b) The next great period of the language, that of Middle English (ME.), cannot be fitted as neatly between dates as the preceding period. Time was needed to absorb the great historical shock of the Norman Conquest, and the terminal date for Middle English can be fixed only in the most arbitrary manner. The adoption of the limits 1150-1475 is dependent upon the emerging of a distinctive Post-Conquest literature and upon the social effects of the invention of printing.

It would be an error to regard the Conquest as producing a clean break in the history of English; it merely released and accelerated tendencies towards differentiation that must already have been in operation. Its most immediate result was to replace English, as an authoritative language, by the Norman-French of the conquerors for well over two hundred years. In the meantime, the effects upon the English language itself were three-fold: (1) The social prestige of Norman-French and the extension in the ecclesiastical, administrative, and scholarly use of Latin brought into English an enormous number of words borrowed from these languages; (2) the loss of the West-Saxon written standard allowed free-play to the dialectal peculiarities and disturbed the linguistic equilibrium of English; (3) the influence of French and Latin spelling did much to revise the traditional orthography of English.

The first part of the Middle English period is something like linguistic chaos. Important literary works were written in half a dozen dialects sufficiently diverse in themselves, and doubly diverse as a result of the frantic spelling expedients of their authors. Early Middle English is not one but a group of languages, each of which must be mastered separately by the student. The resolution of this confusion, which was the adoption of London English as a basis for a new written standard language, came about under the pressure of many disparate factors: (1) the break-down of direct English authority over Normandy (1204-65); (2) the gradual establishment of nationalism (1272-1400); (3) the rise to importance of the middle- and laboring-classes (1348-1430); (4) the intrusion of English into the conduct of government (from about 1337), law (1344-62), and education (1349-85); (5) the growing centralization of administration at the capital; (6) the timely appearance of important works by Chaucer, Lydgate, and Occleve, all of whom wrote London English. By 1420, at the latest, a written form of the South East Midland dialect used in and around

London was on its way to becoming a written standard for the entire country. Although much fine literature continued to be produced in the rival literary dialects of the Northwest and the North, the predominance of written London English was never afterwards seriously challenged. When, in the years 1476-90, Caxton chose to use it for his printed books, the ground had already been fully prepared for him.

(c) The third and last period of English, extending from about 1476 to the present, actually consists of two distinct phases of the language.

In the earlier phase, which ends in the full tide of the Industrial Revolution about 1780, the principal pressures exerted on the language result from the invention of printing, the vast extension of literacy, the intellectual ferment of the Renaissance, and, above all, from a continuous social struggle between the rising middle classes and the dominant aristocracy. Theoretically, the wide diffusion of the printed word should have worked towards linguistic stability and uniformity. Actually, the converse is true. Its immediate result was to produce self-conscious awareness—awareness of ideas and ideologies, awareness of the implications of language, awareness of class and society. There were thus rapid accretions of foreign words, particularly of Latinic abstract words, that greatly modified the English vocabulary. And in spite of the normalizing tendencies of the printed language, in spite of the efforts of many self-conscious grammarians and orthoëpists, this phase of English is one of extremely rapid linguistic change. In fact, there is no period of the language which shows greater variation in pronunciation or a more drastic revision of the sound-system. At its beginning, the vowel system of English was Continental, i.e., the vowel symbols had more or less the same phonetic values as in Italian, Spanish, French, or German. At its end, the vowel distribution of English had undergone so thorough a regrouping that the sounds were completely divorced from the Continental values of the symbols and consequently from the system of orthography—still the basis of modern English spelling—fixed by Caxton and his followers.

Changes as violent as this are likely to have violent social causes. Insofar as any single social cause can be considered responsible, it would appear to lie in the dislocation of the community along vertical lines, the clash of phonetic system against phonetic system resulting from the clash of the aristocratic and middle classes. As early as 1400, the powerful bourgeoisie of England's first industrial stronghold, East Anglia, had developed a kind of generalized *lingua franca*, based on the local spoken dialect of that region, through which they were enabled to carry out their business affairs. Wherever industry later extended, this *lingua franca*, no longer purely regional, seems to have followed. In the 17th century, the settlement of the New England Colonies by immigrants drawn principally from South Eastern England brought this type of English to the New World, where it formed the basis for the Eastern American speech of today.

Yet for all its wide distribution, the middle-class *lingua franca* had the phonetic system of the East Anglian dialects; and that system varied greatly from the phonetic system used by the London aristocracy. Thus during the entire period 1476-1780—the so-called period of Early Modern English (EMnE.)—we have the spectacle of two important class dialects existing, often in the same localities, side by side, and influencing the formative years of each successive youngest generation from two directions at once. And it is from the unconscious attempts of each youngest generation to reconcile the conflicting signalling-systems of the two class dialects, to achieve a workable synthesis between them, that the Great Vowel Shift of the Early Modern English period seems to arise and continue.

Within the limits of the Early Modern period itself, no such synthesis was achieved. The social struggle went on. Linguistic change lost nothing of its rapidity. The two great class dialects of English not only held their ground, but even gained it; for if the middle-class type became standard for the New England Colonies, the aristocratic type became standard in the Southern Colonies, where it formed the basis of the Southern American of today. The final phase of the English language, the phase of Late Modern English (LMnE.), was not ushered in until the Industrial Revolution, by securing enormous material gains for the middle-classes, had secured their social, political, and economic victory and an authoritative predominance for their type of English.

GUIDE TO PRONUNCIATION

PRONUNCIATION in this dictionary is indicated directly on the entry word by a system of symbols, or diacritical marks. Thus, the symbol *c* is used to indicate the sound of the hard *c* in *cat*, and the word is entered in the vocabulary as *cat*. The Key to Pronunciation printed below gives a complete description of the symbols used and the sounds they represent. The modified sounds are unmarked, as the *e* in *cent*, the *a* in *apply*, the *i* in *pin*, the *u* in *tub*, the *o* in *on*, and the *y* in *myth*.

When two vowels stand together, only the one which indicates the sound of the word is marked, as in *stréak*, *bráin*, *móat*. The clusters *ae* and *oe* ending a syllable are pronounced as *é*; when followed by a consonant in the same syllable they are pronounced as *e* in *met*.

In a few instances it is impossible to indicate the pronunciation on the word itself; in such cases the word, or part of it, is respelled

in parentheses immediately following the entry. The word is respelled phonetically, that is, according to its sound, regardless of the letters that compose it. Examples of respelling are *eight* (*ät*); *guide* (*gid*); *heir* (*är*); and *härle-quin* (*-kin* or *-kwin*).

The accents are indicated thus: primary ' , secondary ". The secondary accent or subordinate stress is normally indicated only when it falls at an irregular interval from the primary or main stress, that is, at an interval other than two syllables.

Although full vowel quality is indicated in all syllables, it should be understood that in totally unstressed syllables the vowel quality is variously reduced, or weakened, in colloquial speech to a more or less neutral sound. To avoid the confusion of excessive diacritical marks, sounds in non-English words are indicated by the English sounds most nearly approximating these.

KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

ä	as in <i>fäte</i> , <i>äle</i> , <i>ä'corn</i> , <i>be-räte'</i> , <i>nat''u-ral-i-zä'tion</i> .
ä	" " <i>fär</i> , <i>fä'ther</i> , <i>ärch</i> , <i>mär'shal</i> , <i>cär-toon'</i> ; also as in <i>whät</i> , <i>wänt</i> .
ä	" " <i>fäst</i> , <i>gläss</i> , <i>a-läs'</i> ; also as in <i>so'dä</i> , <i>ä-dapt'ä-ble</i> .
ä	" " <i>fäll</i> , <i>paw</i> , <i>aw'ful</i> , <i>ap-plaud'</i> .
ä	" " <i>fī'näl</i> , <i>see'män</i> , <i>tol'er-änt</i> , <i>men'äce</i> .
ä	" " <i>cäre</i> , <i>är</i> , <i>mil'i-tär-y</i> , <i>de-cläre'</i> .
ä	" " <i>at</i> , <i>ac-cord'</i> , <i>com-par'i-son</i> , <i>car'ry</i> .
ä	" " <i>äve</i> , <i>mäte</i> , <i>hä</i> , <i>E'den</i> , <i>in-ter-väne'</i> ; also as in <i>häre</i> , <i>dräer'y</i> .
ä	" " <i>pray</i> , <i>eight</i> , <i>o-bey'</i> .
ä	" " <i>här</i> , <i>verse</i> , <i>sär'vice</i> , <i>in-tär'</i> .
e	" " <i>met</i> , <i>ebb</i> , <i>en-dorse'</i> , <i>mon'e-tar-y</i> , <i>dis-tend'</i> .
ee	" " <i>feed</i> , <i>pro-ceed'</i> , <i>lee'way</i> .
i	" " <i>pine</i> , <i>i-de'a</i> , <i>Ice'berg</i> , <i>de-cide'</i> , <i>al-l'ance</i> .
i	" " <i>clique</i> , <i>ma-rine'</i> ; also as in <i>Mar-ti'ni</i> .
i	" " <i>bird</i> , <i>stir</i> , <i>ex'tir-pate</i> , <i>fīrm'a-ment</i> .
i	" " <i>it</i> , <i>hit</i> , <i>re-mit'</i> , <i>cit'y</i> ; also as in <i>pos'si-ble</i> , <i>grav'i-ty</i> , <i>pu'pil</i> .
ö	" " <i>nöte</i> , <i>öat</i> , <i>sö</i> , <i>ö'pen</i> , <i>hel-lö'</i> ; also as in <i>ren'ö-vate</i> , <i>prö-pel'</i> .
ö	" " <i>möve</i> , <i>pröve</i> , <i>tömb</i> .
ö	" " <i>long</i> , <i>cross</i> , <i>off</i> , <i>orb</i> , <i>for-bid'</i> , <i>dör'mer</i> .
ö	" " <i>at'öm</i> , <i>plövr'er</i> ; also as in <i>ac'tör</i> , <i>wörd</i> , <i>wörk</i> .
o	" " <i>not</i> , <i>for'est</i> , <i>non'sense</i> ; also as in <i>dog</i> , <i>broth</i> , <i>cost</i> ; also as in <i>con-fess'</i> , <i>con-cur'</i> .
oo	" " <i>moon</i> , <i>coo</i> , <i>food</i> , <i>brood'er</i> .
oo	" " <i>book</i> , <i>hood</i> , <i>foot</i> , <i>look</i> , <i>cook'y</i> .
ü	" " <i>use</i> , <i>füse</i> , <i>ü-til'i-ty</i> , <i>fü'tile</i> , <i>im-müne'</i> .
ü	" " <i>bull</i> , <i>püt</i> , <i>fül-fil'</i> , <i>boun'ti-fül</i> .
ü	" " <i>brüte</i> , <i>jü'ry</i> ; also used for the German <i>ü</i> .
ü	" " <i>törn</i> , <i>für</i> , <i>bür-leaque'</i> , <i>de-mür'</i> .
u	" " <i>up</i> , <i>rub</i> , <i>sun'set</i> , <i>in-sult'</i> .
y	" " <i>cry</i> , <i>eye</i> .
y	" " <i>myth</i> , <i>cit'y</i> .
g	" " <i>gat</i> , <i>to-bag'go</i> .
ç	" " <i>ma-chine'</i> .
c	" " <i>ace</i> , <i>ce'dar</i> .
ch	" " <i>church</i> .
gh	" " <i>ghord</i> .

ë	as in <i>gem</i> .
ä	" " <i>an'ger</i> , <i>sphäx</i> .
ä	" " <i>French boä</i> .
ng	" " <i>ring</i> .
q	" " <i>ni'ger</i> , <i>aq</i> .
th	" " <i>this</i> .
th	" " <i>thin</i> .
z	" " <i>asure</i> .
au	" " <i>umlaut</i> .
aw	" " <i>straw</i> .
ou	" " <i>out</i> .
oi	" " <i>oil</i> .
oy	" " <i>boy</i> .
ew	" " <i>new</i> , <i>few</i> .
ow	" " <i>now</i> .
-türe	as <i>-chër</i> (in <i>picture</i>).
-tion	} as <i>-shun</i> (in <i>nation</i> , <i>tension</i>).
-sion	
-ciän	} as <i>-shun</i> (in <i>Martian</i> , <i>Melanesian</i> , <i>mortician</i>).
-tiän	
-siän	
-siän	} as <i>-zhun</i> (in <i>Persian</i> , <i>fusion</i>).
-sion	
-liön	as <i>-lyun</i> or <i>-yun</i> (in <i>million</i>).
-ceous	} as <i>-shus</i> (in <i>cretaceous</i> , <i>delicious</i> , <i>conscious</i>).
-(s)cious	
qu	as <i>kw</i> (in <i>queen</i>).
-ous	as <i>-us</i> (in <i>porous</i>).
ph-	as <i>f-</i> (in <i>phone</i> , etc.).
-le	as <i>-l</i> (at end of syllable, as in <i>able</i> , <i>cycle</i> , etc.).
-la	as <i>-yá</i> (in <i>pharmacopoeia</i>).
wh-	as <i>hw-</i> in <i>whale</i> , etc.
kh	as in German <i>doch</i> (<i>dokh</i>).

OUTLINE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

such alphabet, we might well end by knowing at once too much and too little. While it is easy to visualize the phonetic direction of the changes—to state, in phonetic terms, that long low- and mid-tongue vowels were raised, long high-tongue vowels diphthongized, short vowels centralized—the complicated correlations of vowel with vowel during the period of the changes would still elude us.

With the fixation of English spelling, which commenced with Caxton and was achieved about 1650, the English language acquired its modern external form. With the introduction of thousands of new words from various sources during the same period, it completed most of the circle of its vocabulary. Thanks to these facts, the modern reader may approach most English authors from Dryden onwards without being conscious of any particular sense of archaism. And this annihilation of time is perhaps the greatest benefit conferred on humanity by standard written language. Yet, consideration of this and other benefits should not blind us to events below the surface. For the user of the English language there is both illumination and an implicit warning in the famous simile of J. Vendryes:

"The ice borrows its substance from the river, it is indeed the actual water of the river itself—and yet it is not the river. A child, seeing the ice, thinks that the river exists no more, that its course has been arrested. But this is only an illusion. Under the layer of ice, the river continues to flow down to the plain. Should the ice break, one sees the water suddenly bubble up as it goes gushing and murmuring on its way. This is an image of the stream of language. The written tongue is the film of ice upon its waters; the stream which still flows under the ice that imprisons it is the popular and natural language; the cold which produces the ice and would fain restrain the flood is the stabilizing action exerted by grammarians and pedagogues; and the sunbeam which gives language its liberty is the indomitable force of life, triumphing over rules, and breaking the fetters of tradition."*

* J. Vendryes, *Language: A Linguistic Introduction to History*, translated by Paul Radin (New York, 1925), pp. 275–6.

OUTLINE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Upon that type, pruned and 'regularized' by grammarians and lexicographers, both the cultivated British and the cultivated American of today are firmly rooted. As spoken English, the older aristocratic type lingers in Tidewater, Virginia, and a few other Southern localities—lingers also, in piecemeal fashion, in such conservative linguistic 'islands' as the Ozark Mountains and the Great Smokies where it is rediscovered by scholars under the strange guise of 'folk-dialect.' From England, it has disappeared almost without a trace. Thus the history of English between 1750 and 1850 is not the history of an evolution but the history of a replacement.

Within the actual limits of the Late Modern phase of English, from 1780 to the present, something like linguistic equilibrium has been re-established. Apart from certain necessary phonological generalizations, change has been slight and gradual. Individual, regional, and to some extent, class-divergencies still exist; but the written word, fostered by democratic social institutions, by popular education, and by the accessibility of grammars and dictionaries, has come to be of paramount importance. Even though modern methods of communication and organization have immensely extended the limits of the speech community, the tendencies towards uniformity are sufficient—or were recently sufficient—to balance the tendencies towards differentiation. How long this balance will continue remains to be seen.

II

Characteristics of English in the Old English Period (450–1150) Old English differs very considerably from Modern English in orthography, pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Yet many of the characteristics and a good many of the words of MnE. are clearly recognizable in their OE. form, and the difficulties of OE. may easily be overstressed. The following short passage, containing

an unusual proportion of words still present in MnE., suggests some of the outstanding points of similarity.

*Ic eom munuc, and ic singe ælce dæg sofon tīda mid
 I am monk, and I sing each day seven tides (with)
 gebrōþrum; and ic eom gebysgod on rædīnga and on sange;
 brothers; and I am busied (in) reading and (in) song;
 ac ic wolde betwēonum leornian spreca on Englisc ongemong
 (but) I would between learn (to) speak (in) English among
 mīnum oprum manigfaldum bysgum. . . .
 mine other manifold businesses. . . .*

(a) Orthography and Pronunciation

Although OE. had the so-called 'Continental' values for its vowel-symbols, and although many of its sounds have since been modified by sound-change, one of the chief difficulties is the actual form of OE. spelling. As a result of palatalizations that occurred after the OE. spelling system was already fixed, a single consonantal symbol may represent several sounds. Moreover, the priests who originally reduced OE. to writing tended to be almost too careful in expressing the vowels, even to the little glides which enable the vocal organs to pass smoothly between two points of articulation. The following summary should aid recognition:

(1) *C* = MnE. *k* in *cynn* 'kin,' *munuc* 'monk,' and MnE. *ch* in *cild* 'child,' *ceorl* 'churl.' (2) *G* = MnE. *y* in *gēar* 'year,' *gīet*, *gēt* 'yet,' *fæger* 'fair,' MnE. *g* in *grund* 'ground,' *gold* 'gold,' and German spirant *g* (not unlike MnE. *w*) in *boga* 'bow,' *folgian* 'follow.' (3) *H* = MnE. written *-gh* (no longer pronounced) in *niht* 'night,' and *sōhte* 'sought,' but had the phonetic values of *ch* in G. *ich* and *nacht*. (4) *Cg* = MnE. *-dge* in *brycg* 'bridge'; *sc* = MnE. *sh* in *scip* 'ship,' *Englisc* 'English.' (5) *F* = MnE. *f* in *fetor* 'fetter,' but had the value of MnE. *v* in *heofon* 'heaven,' *æfre* 'ever.' (6) MnE. *th*, as in *with*, *then* was expressed indifferently by the Runic symbols *ᚠ*, *ᚢ* as in *wip* 'with,' *ᚠū* 'thou.' (7) OE. *y*, always a vowel with the sound of *u* in Fr. *une*, corresponds chiefly to MnE. *i* as in *fyr* 'fire,' occasionally to MnE. *u* as in *bysig* 'busy,' *cyggel* 'cudgel,' and very occasionally to MnE. *e* as in *cnyll* 'knell.' (8) OE. *æ* = MnE. *a* in *bæc* 'back,' but OE. *æ* may correspond to MnE. *ea* as in *dælan* 'to deal,' or to MnE. *ee* as in *dæd* 'deed.' (9) Certain OE. diphthongs, like the *ea*, *eo* of *earm* 'arm,' *weorc* 'work,' ME. *werk*, are no more than ultra-accurate recordings of the simple vowels *æ* and *e* (i); others, like the *ie* of *stiele* 'steel,' and the *ea*

of *ceald* 'cold,' are found only in West Saxon and have no influence on the later history of our forms for these words, which are derived from Anglian *stiele*, *cāld*; all OE. diphthongs, irrespective of origin, were simplified in ME. and are therefore of no importance in the general development of English.

(b) Vocabulary

About 85 per cent of the Old English vocabulary has been lost to MnE. partly because of later replacements from French and Latin, partly because of the development of idiomatic phrases. In estimating this loss, however, it should never be forgotten that the OE. words which managed to survive—the bulk of our prepositions, pronouns, auxiliaries, conjunctions, as well as our words of fundamental concept—occur more frequently in spoken and written MnE. than most other elements in our vocabulary. Moreover, much of this lost vocabulary consists of synthetic compounds of which the simplex elements still survive. *Dōm-bōc* 'law-book,' *eorþ-craeft* 'geometry,' and *gaderscipe* 'marriage' may be gone, yet *doom*, *book*, *gather*, *earth*, *craft* are still with us, and *-ship* is still an active formative suffix. The flexible formation of compounds from words and particles in current use, a feature still operative in German, is rightly considered to be one of the distinguishing marks of OE. vocabulary. Nowadays, English makes comparatively little use of it. Yet even today, formations like *steamboat*, *motor car*, *fire insurance* keep alive the method by which OE. *mōðcaru* 'sorrow,' and *glædmōdnes* 'kindness' were formed.

(c) Grammar and Morphology

OE. was what is usually termed an 'inflected' or 'synthetic' language like modern German, i.e., the functional relationship between meaningful words was largely expressed by suffixal phonetic elements which served to denote such categories as number, gender, case, tense, and voice. Like most Indo-European languages, OE. possessed 'grammatical gender,' a device only remotely connected with sex, which served to classify nouns along analogical lines in such a manner that the determination of agreement was not impossible to the speaker and writer. Thus *mægen*, 'maiden' is neuter, *swāt* 'sweat' masculine, and *tīd* 'time, tide' feminine. Theoretically, the noun and adjective have inflections for four cases in the singular and the plural, and the latter has, in addition, forms for each of the three genders and variant forms according to whether it is accompanied by the article or not. The pronoun, the keystone to any system based upon inflectional agreement, is even more complex: it possesses not only distinctive forms for all genders, persons, and cases, but also preserves, in addition to the normal singular and plural, a dual number. The practical purpose of this serried array of inflections amounts simply to this: that the relationship between meaningful words expressed in MnE. partly through word-order and partly through the use of words empty of meaning—prepositions like *on*, *of*, *to* or words like *concerning*, *according* used as prepositions—is expressed in OE. by the addition of predetermined phonetic elements to the meaningful word. In OE. I should write *Hē wæs ān þara twelfa*; in MnE. *He was one of the twelve*. In OE. I might write *Lēof, þæs me þyncþ þū eart witega*; in MnE., to express the same relationship, I should have to write *Dear one, according to that (or from that) it seems to me you are a prophet*. Since inflections are phonetic elements, any phonetic changes which level and confuse them may finally result in a complete breakdown of the entire system and its replacement by the analytical expression of relationship that we find in MnE. That is precisely what happened to OE. From the first written records onwards, the inflections of noun and adjective lacked clarity and distinction; when final vowels became weakened, these inflections were rendered practically useless. Those of the pronoun (with the exception of the dual number) and, to some extent, those of the verb, still retained sufficient distinctiveness to continue their usefulness in ME. and MnE.

Characteristics of English in the Middle English Period (1150–1475)

Consideration of the bewildering scope of the Middle English dialects lies outside the scope of this discussion. Even the great Northern literary dialect, lineal ancestor of the language of Burns, and that of the Northwest used by the *Gawain* poet must be passed over in silence. For the historian of the whole English language, the one

OUTLINE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

important variety of ME. is that of the South Eastern Midland area particularly as written by Chaucer.

(a) Orthography and Pronunciation

If the ME. of Chaucer resembles MnE. more closely than OE., the fact is due partly to a series of orthographic adaptations brought about by the influence of Fr. The most important of these are: (1) The use of *ch* for OE. *c* in *child*; (2) the use of *qu* for OE. *cw* in *quene*, *queen*, OE. *cwēn*; (3) the partial displacement of *þ*, *ð* by *th* in *with*, OE. *wip*; (4) the introduction of *v* for medial voiced *f* in *love*, OE. *lufu*; (5) the use of *sh*, *ssh* for OE. *sc* in *shal*, OE. *sceal*, and *wasshe*, OE. *wascan*; (6) the use of *k* before front vowels for OE. *c* in *kepen* 'keep', OE. *cēpan*, beside the retained *c* before back vowels as in *cot*; (7) the eventual introduction of consonantal *y* for OE. *g* in *yere*, OE. *gēar* 'year', etc.; (8) the use of *ou* for OE. *ū* to discriminate it from Fr. *u* and OE. *y*, spelled *u*, as in *mouth*, OE. *mūþ* beside *muchel*, OE. *mycel* 'much'; the use of *o* for the sake of clarity in the neighborhood of *v*, *u*, *m*, *n*, *w*, as in *monk*, OE. *munuc*, and *sone*, OE. *sunu*; (9) in the latest ME. the symbols *ea* and *oa*, imported from the Low Countries, began to be employed in words like *deal*, *boat* to distinguish the vowels from those of *deed*, *boot* which had a different pronunciation; (10) it is uncertain whether the replacement of OE. *æ* by ME. *a*, as in *that*, OE. *þæt*, is merely orthographic or a symbol of an actual sound-change; (11) equally uncertain is the replacement of OE. *æ* in *hælan* 'to heal' by ME. *e*, as in *hēlen*.

Actual phonetic changes as distinct from mere changes of orthography are also apparent: (1) OE. *ā* in *hām* 'home', *stān* 'stone', etc., shifted to the sound of the vowel in MnE. *law* and was spelled *o*, *oo* as in ME. *home*, *hoom* and *stone*, *stoon*; (2) the OE. diphthongs, where they survived in OE. itself, became simple vowels as in OE. *dēop*, ME. *depe*, and OE. *strēam*, ME. *stream*; (3) OE. *y* as in *hyll*, *fyr* became *i* in South East Midland, as in *hill*, *fire*; (4) OE. spirant *g*, as in *boga*, already closely analogous to *w*, became and was written *w*, as in ME. *boue*; (5) vowels of unstressed syllables lost their distinct character and became levelled, for the most part, under a sound written *e*, very like the sound we give the final *-a* of *sofa*; (6) long vowels were shortened before two or more consonants (whence MnE. *kept* beside *keep*, *depth* beside *deep*), and when they occurred in the first syllable of trisyllabic words (whence *holiday*, *halidom* beside *holy*); (7) the short vowels *a*, *e*, *o* were lengthened in open syllables, as in OE. *nama*, ME., MnE. *name*, and OE. *mete*, ME. *mēte*, MnE. *meat*.

(b) Vocabulary

The ME. vocabulary differs from that of OE. by the accretion of a vast number of words borrowed from other languages and by the consequent loss of many OE. words. The process had already commenced during the 10th and 11th centuries, i.e., during the latter part of the OE. period, with borrowings from the Scandinavian settlers resident in Eastern and Northern England. Because of the rigid traditions of the West-Saxon written language, comparatively few of such borrowings appear in OE.; we first realize their number and importance only after the Conquest. Permanent additions to the English language from this source include common nouns like *azle-tree*, *bull*, *dirt*, *law*, *leg*, *root*, *skin*, *want*, *window*, adjectives like *ill*, *rotten*, *tight*, *weak*, and verbs like *call*, *crawl*, *die*, *raise*, *scowl*, *take*.

Much more impressive, however, are the borrowings of words of Romance origin from the Norman conquerors, more especially during the years after about 1240 when the Norman-French were forced by political circumstances to reconcile themselves to their English neighbors. There is no other period of the language that shows the accession of so many alien, and on the whole, useful words as the period 1250-1450. Among them were the mundane *air*, *bacon*, *bucket*, *fry*, *gum*, *pork*, *push*, *sound*, *stew*, *stubble*, and *trip*, as well as the more abstract *beauty*, *color*, *heritage*, *honor*, *judgment*, *noble*, and *tragedy*. Some, like *abbey*, *cardinal*, *clerk*, *image*, *parson*, *penance*, and *piety*, are drawn from the special vocabulary of the Church; some, like *assize*, *attorney*, *fine*, *forfeit*, *pillory*, *plea*, *suit*, from that of the law; some from medicine, like *anatomy*, *balm*, *ointment*, *poison*, *stomach*; some from the army, like *ambush*, *archer*, *chieftain*, *dart*, *lance*; some from the table, like *appetite*, *taste*, *veal*, *venison*; some from the home, like *basin*, *lamp*, *lantern*, *towel*.

Side by side with these French words, many of which were ulti-

mately of Latin origin, occur direct borrowings from Latin itself. But whereas the French words bear in many cases the stamp of actual usage, actual speech, most of the Latin words were plainly literary and scholarly borrowings: *custody*, *genius*, *immune*, *lucrative*, *necessary*, *private*, *rational*, *subjugate*, *temperate*, etc.

(c) Grammar and Morphology

The eventual result of the weakening of unstressed final vowels (see b. immediately above) was the disintegration of the complicated OE. inflectional system. In the English of Chaucer, 'grammatical' is completely replaced by 'natural' gender; the complex OE. article has become the invariable *pe*, *the*; the adjective is indeclinable; inflectional expression of case is limited to the genitive singular of nouns; a single ending *-es* has completely superseded the great variety of endings once used to indicate the genitive singular and the plural. To trace these changes in detail would require a volume of paradigms. Here, the practical results can be summarized in a single sentence: OE. was a 'synthetic,' while late ME. is an 'analytical' language. Of the once highly organized inflectional system of article, noun, and adjective, all that is left in MnE. is a group of fossil forms: *for the nonce*, *Atterbury*, *Nash*, *Noakes*, *Nalder*, and *Nelm* (earlier *for pen ones*, *æt pære byrig*, *at pen asche*, *at pen okes*, *at pen aldre*, *at pen elme*).

The pronoun and verb also underwent considerable phonetic modification during the ME. period, but partly because of adaptation and partly because of their importance in determining the categorical relationships within the analytical sentence, their main features are remarkably well-preserved. In the pronoun, the outstanding developments were: (1) Loss of the dual; (2) replacement of the masculine third person accusative *hine* by the dative *him*; (3) appearance of a mysterious feminine *she* to replace the original *hēo*; (4) intrusion of the Scandinavian plurals *they*, *their*, *them* to replace the English *hi*, *he*, *hir*, *hem*. Most of these changes were very gradual; Chaucer, for instance, still retains *hir*, *hem*, and the latter has still a kind of fictitious survival in MnE. 'em. The net result of all the changes was to level off distinctions no longer needed and at the same time to reinforce distinctions that the operation of phonetic change threatened with obliteration.

Similarly with the verb. OE. had possessed two great classes of verbs, usually distinguished as *weak* and *strong*. In the first class the preterit and past participle were formed by adding to the present stem the dental suffixes *-ede*, *-ode*, *-de* and *-ed*, *-od*, *-d*; in the second, tense change was indicated by a modification (ablaut, gradation, or 'internal inflection') of the stem vowel itself. Cf. MnE. *talk-talked* or *drop-dropped* with *sing-sang-sung*. In the strong verbs, never important in numbers but extremely frequent in occurrence, the phonetic changes of the early ME. period brought about the loss of distinction between preterit singular and preterit plural, and seriously weakened the distinction between preterit and past participle. In the weak verbs, the operation of the sound change that weakened the vowels of final unstressed syllables obliterated the distinction between the class which added the suffixes *-ede*, *-ed* and that which added *-ode*, *-od* to indicate tense changes. By the end of the ME. period, therefore, the verb was fairly close to its modern development. One other important change concerns the personal ending of the third person singular indicative. The *-eth* that would be the regular development of OE. *-p* still lingers on in verse, but during the late ME. period it had already been replaced in common usage by the ending *-es*, *-s*, borrowed from the Northern dialect.

III

The English language after the end of the ME. period does not lend itself to any such schematic treatment as we have attempted for Old and Middle English. The varied and flexible instrument used by Shakespeare, Milton, and, eventually, by ourselves, is altogether too gigantic to be compressed neatly into mnemonic schedules. Moreover, most of us have read the great authors of the EMnE. period and we are at least aware of the external appearance of EMnE. To proceed further, to delve beneath the spelling in order to explore the progress of the Great Vowel Shift during the 16th, 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries, would require the use of some such probe as the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association. And even if we familiarized ourselves with some

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THIS DICTIONARY

a. or adj.	adjective	esp.	especially	Mex.	Mexican
abbrev.	abbreviation, abbreviated	Est.	Esther	MFr.	Middle French
abl.	ablative	et al.	et alii (and others)	MGr.	Medieval Greek, Middle Greek
Abyss.	Abyssinian	etc.	et cetera (and so forth)	M.H.G.	Middle High German
acc.	accusative	Eth.	Ethiopic	Mic.	Micah
act.	active	ethn.	ethnography, ethnology	milit.	military
A.D.	Anno Domini (in the year of the Lord)	etym.	etymology	mineral.	mineralogy
adv.	adverb	Eur.	European	ML.	Medieval Latin
Afr.	African	Ex.	Exodus	M.L.G.	Middle Low German
alt.	alternate(ly)	exclam.	exclamation	MnE.	Modern English
Am.	America, American	Ezek.	Ezekiel	Mod.	Modern
Am. Ind.	American Indian	F. or Fahr.	Fahrenheit	Mongol.	Mongolian
Am. Sp.	American Spanish	f.	feminine	myth.	mythology
anat.	anatomy	fig.	figuratively	N.	Norse
anc.	ancient	Finn.	Finnish	n. or n.	noun
Anglo-Fr.	Anglo-French	Fl.	Flemish	N.Am.	North American
Anglo-Ind.	Anglo-Indian	fl.	flourished	nat. ord.	natural order
Anglo-Ir.	Anglo-Irish	Fr.	French	neg.	negative
Anglo-N.	Anglo-Norse	Frank.	Frankish, Franconian	Neh.	Nehemiah
Anglo-Norm.	Anglo-Norman	freq.	frequentative	neut.	neuter
ar.	arist.	Fris.	Frisian	nom.	nominative
Ar.	Arabic	ft.	foot, feet	Norm.	Norman
Aram.	Aramaic	fut.	future	Norw.	Norwegian
arch.	architecture	G.	German	Num.	Numbers
archaeol.	archaeology	Gael.	Gaelic	obj.	objective
arith.	arithmetic	Gal.	Galatians	obs.	obsolete
Arm.	Armoric	Gen.	Genesis, General	occas.	occasionally
art.	article	genit.	genitive	O.Celt.	Old Celtic
AS.	Anglo-Saxon	geog.	geography	O.D.	Old Dutch
Assyr.	Assyrian	geom.	geometry	OE.	Old English
astron.	astronomy	Gmc.	Germanic	OFr.	Old French
at. wt.	atomic weight	Goth.	Gothic	O.H.G.	Old High German
aug.	augmentative	Gr.	Greek	ON., O.N.	Old Norse
aux.	auxiliary	gram.	grammar	O.Norm. Fr.	Old Norman French
b.	born	Hab.	Habbakuk	O.Pers.	Old Persian
Bab.	Babylonian	Hag.	Haggai	orig.	origin, originally
B.C.	before Christ	Haw.	Hawaiian	ornith.	ornithology
biol.	biology	Heb.	Hebrews, Hebrew	OS.	Old Saxon
Bohem.	Bohemian	her.	heraldry	O.Slav.	Old Slavic
bot.	botany	Hind.	Hindustani, Hindu, Hindi	O.Sp.	Old Spanish
Bras.	Brazilian	hist.	historical, history	os.	ounce
Bret.	Breton	hort.	horticulture	p. or part.	participle
Brit.	British	Hos.	Hoses	pass.	passive
B.T.U.	British thermal unit(s)	Hung.	Hungarian	Per.	Persic, Persian
Bulg.	Bulgarian	hyp.	hypothetical	perf.	perfect
c.	circa (about), century	Ice.	Icelandic	perh.	perhaps
Canad.	Canadian	i.e.	id est (that is)	pers.	person
Catal.	Catalonian	illus.	illustration	pert.	pertaining
caus.	causative	imper.	imperative	Peruv.	Peruvian
Celt.	Celtic	imperf.	imperfect	Pet.	Peter
cf.	confer (compare)	impers.	impersonal	phar.	pharmacy
Ch.	Chaldean, Chaldee	in.	inch	Phil.	Philemon
Chin.	Chinese	incept.	inceptive	Philip.	Philippians
Chron.	Chronicles	Ind.	Indian	philol.	philology
chron.	chronology	ind.	indicative	philos.	philosophy
Col.	Colossians	indef.	indefinite	Phoen.	Phoenician
colloq.	colloquial	Indo-Eur.	Indo-European	phrase	phrase
comp.	comparative, compound, composition	inf.	infinitive	phys. geog.	physical geography
conch.	conchology	intens.	intensive	Pid. Eng.	Pidgin English
conj.	conjunction	intery.	interjection	pl.	plural
contr.	contraction, contracted	Ir.	Irish	poet.	poetic
Cor.	Corinthians	Ira.	Iranian	Pol.	Polish
Corn.	Cornish	Is. or Isa.	Isaiah	pol. econ.	political economy
cub.	cubic	It.	Italian	Port.	Portuguese
Cym.	Cymric	Japan.	Japanese	poss.	possessive
D.	Dutch	Jer.	Jeremiah, Jeremy	pp.	past participle
Dan.	Danish, Daniel	Josh.	Joshua	ppr.	present participle
dat.	dative	Jud.	Judges	Fr.	Provençal
def.	definite	Kin.	Kings	pred.	predicate
deriv.	derivation	L.	Latin	prep.	preposition
Deut.	Deuteronomy	Lev.	Leviticus	pres.	present
dial.	dialect, dialectal	L.G.	Low German	priv.	privative
dict. or dic.	dictionary	L.Gr.	Low Greek	prob.	probably
din.	diminutive	Lit.	Lithuanian	Prof.	Professor
distrib.	distributive	LL.	Low Latin, Late Latin	pron.	pronoun, pronunciation, pronounced
Dr.	Doctor	mag.	magazine	pronun.	pronunciation
dyn.	dynamics	masc.	masculine	pros.	prosody
E.	English	math.	mathematics	Prov.	Proverbs
Eccles.	Ecclesiastes	Matt.	Matthew	prov.	provincial
eccles.	ecclesiastical	M.D.	Middle Dutch	Prov. Eng.	Provincial English
e.g.	exempli gratia (for example)	ME.	Middle English	Prov. Scot.	Provincial Scottish
Egypt.	Egyptian	mech.	mechanics	Ps.	Psalms
E. Ind.	East Indian	Med.	medieval	psychol.	psychology
encyc.	encyclopedia	med.	medicine, medical	pt.	past tense
Eng.	English	metal.	metallurgy	q.v.	quod vide (which see)
Eph.	Ephesians			R.C.	Roman Catholic
Esk.	Eskimo			redupl.	reduplication, reduplicative
				Rev.	Revelation
				rhet.	rhetoric

ABBREVIATIONS

Rom. Roman, Romans
 Russ. Russian
 S.Afr. South African
 S.Am. South American
 Sam. Samaritan, Samuel
 Sans. Sanskrit
 sb. substantive
 Scand. Scandinavian
 Scot. Scottish, Scotch
 Scrip. Scripture
 Sem. Semitic
 Serb. Serbian
 Shak. Shakespeare
 sing. singular
 Slav. Slavonic, Slavic
 sp. spelling
 Sp. Spanish
 Sp. Am. Spanish American
 sp. gr. specific gravity
 sq. square

ss. Saints
 subj. subjunctive
 superl. superlative
 surg. surgery
 Sw. Swedish
 sym. symbol
 syn. synonym
 Syr. Syrian, Syriac
 Tag. Tagalog
 Tamil. Tamilian
 Tart. Tartar
 Tat. Tatar
 term. termination
 Teut. Teutonic
 T. H. Territory of Hawaii
 theol. theology
 Thess. Thessalonians
 Tim. Timothy
 trans. or transl. translation

Turk. Turkish
 typog. typography
 U.S. United States
 U.S.S.R. Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
 var. variant, variety
 v. or v. verb
 v.i. verb intransitive
 v.t. verb transitive
 W. Welsh
 W. Ind. West Indian
 yd. yard
 Yid. Yiddish
 Zech. Zechariah
 Zeph. Zephaniah
 zool. zoology

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTORY

Introduction	Page v	Key to Pronunciation	Page xii
Outline History of the English Language ..	vii	List of Abbreviations Used in	
Guide to Pronunciation	xii	This Dictionary	xiii
A DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE		1—2129	

SUPPLEMENTS

A Dictionary of Biography	Page 1
Members of the United Nations	40
A Dictionary of Geography	41
A Dictionary of Foreign Words and Phrases	54
Abbreviations Commonly Used in Writing and Printing	64
Forms of Address	70
Metric Weights and Measures	72
Special Signs and Symbols	76
Principal Geographic Features of the World	79
The World's Religions	84
Glossary of Mythology	96
Vital Facts about U.S. Presidents	107
U.S. Presidents	109
Vice Presidents of the U.S.	116
The Declaration of Independence and its Signers	117
The U.S. Constitution and its Signers	121

A

A, *a* (ā), *n.*; *pl.* **A's**, *a's*, **As**, *as* (āz). 1. the first letter of the Roman and English alphabet: from the Greek *alpha*, a borrowing from the Phoenician.

2. a sound of *A* or *a*.

3. a type or impression for *A* or *a*.

4. a symbol for the first in a sequence or group.

A, *a* (ā), *a.* 1. of *A* or *a*.

2. first in a sequence or group.

3. first-class; **A** 1: see *A one*.

Among logicians, **A**, as an abbreviation, stands for a universal affirmative proposition. **A** asserts; **E** denies.

The Romans used **A** to signify a negative or dissent in giving their votes, **A** standing for *antiquo*, I oppose or object to the proposed law. Opposed to this letter were **U**, *uti*, *rogas*, be it as you desire—the words used to express assent to a proposition. These letters were marked on wooden ballots, and each voter had an affirmative and a negative put into his hands, one of which, at pleasure, he gave as his vote. In criminal trials, **A** stood for *absolvo*, I acquit; **C**, for *condemno*, I condemn; and **N**, *non liquet*, it is not evident; and the judges voted by ballots thus marked. In inscriptions, **A** stands for *Augustus*; or for *ager*, *aurum*, *argentum*, etc.

A is used for *anno*, as in **A. D.**, for *anno Domini*, in the year of our Lord, and **A. M.**, for *anno mundi*, in the year of the world; and also for *ante*, as in **A. M.**, for *ante meridiem*, before noon; and for *artium*, as in **A. M.**, for *artium magister*, master of arts.

In algebra, **a** and other first letters of the alphabet usually represent known quantities—the last letters being used to represent unknown quantities.

In pharmacy, **ā** or **ad**, abbreviations of the Greek *ana*, signifies of each separately, or, that the things mentioned should be taken in quantities of the same weight or measure.

In commerce, **A** stands for *accepted*, as in case of a bill of exchange. Merchants also number their books by the letters **A**, **B**, **C**, instead of figures. Public officers number their exhibits in the same manner; as, the document **A** or **B**.

A (ā), *n.* 1. an object shaped like **A**.

2. in chemistry, the symbol for argon.

3. in education, a grade first in quality; as, an **A** in history.

4. in music, (a) the sixth tone or note in the scale of **C** major, or the first in the scale of **A** minor; (b) a key, string, etc. producing this tone; (c) the scale having **A** as the keynote.

A (ā), *a.* shaped like **A**.

a (ā or ā), *a., indef. art.* an abbreviation of Anglo-Saxon *an* or *one*, one, used before words beginning with a consonant sound or a sounded *h*; as, *a* table, *a* home, *a* unicorn. [see *an*.]

a-, a combining form in many English words, as in asleep, awake, afoot, aground, agoing. In some cases, this is a contraction of the Teutonic *ge-*, as in aware, from the Anglo-Saxon *gewær*. Sometimes it is a corruption of the Anglo-Saxon *on*, as in again, from *ongan*; awake, from *onwacian*, to watch or wake. In some words, *a-* may be a contraction of *at*, *of*, *in*, *to*, or *on*.

In some words of Greek origin *a-* is privative, giving to them a negative sense, as in *agastic*, from *a* and *gaster*, stomach. In some words derived from the Greek and Latin, *a* is used as a prefix and as a suffix; as, *aspire*, *amend*, *abyss*, *coma*, *Africa*, etc.

A 1 (ā wun), see *A one*.

ā, *n.* [Hawaiian.] a bed of lava that has become solidified with a rough surface.

āl, *n.* [Hind. *āl*, a plant.] a plant of the genus *Morinda*; it is commonly called *Indian mulberry*.

ām, *n.* [D.] a measure of liquids among the Dutch, varying in different cities from thirty-seven to forty-one English wine gallons.

ārd, *n.* [D., earth pig.] an African ant-eater, *Orycteropus capensis*.

ārd, *wolf* (-wulf), *n.*

[D., earth wolf.] a

digitigrade, carnivorous quadruped,

Proteles laundi, of

South Africa, somewhat like the hyena and the civet.

āron, *n.* [Heb.]

the first high priest of the Hebrews,

or to the priesthood of which he was the head.

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or to the priesthood of which he was the head.



ARDVARK

ā-bac'i-nāte, *v.t.* [from LL. *ab*, and *bacinus*, a basin.] to destroy the sight of by placing a red-hot copper basin close to the eyes. [Rare.]

ā-bac'i-nā'tion, *n.* the act of destroying eyesight by placing a red-hot copper basin close to the eyes: a form of medieval torture.

ab-ā-clis'cus, *n.* in ancient architecture, a tile or square in a mosaic pavement.

ab'ā-clat, *n.* [L. *abacus*, a counting board.] one who casts accounts with an abacus; a calculator.

ā-back', *adv.* [AS. *on bac*, at, on, or toward the back.] toward the back; on the back part; backward. Now archaic except in nautical usage, where it signifies the situation of the sails when pressed back against the mast by the wind.

laid aback; having the sails purposely placed aback to give the ship sternway.

taken aback; having the sails carried back suddenly by the wind; hence, surprised.

ab-ac'ti-nāl, *a.* [L. *ab*, from; and *actinal*.] pertaining to or situated at the opposite extremity from the mouth, especially in a radiate animal.

ab-ac'tion, *n.* a stealing of herds of cattle.

ab-ac'tōr, *n.* [L. *abigere*, to drive from.] in law, one who steals herds of cattle, in distinction from one who steals a head or two.

ab-ac'ū-lus, *n.* same as *abaciscus*.

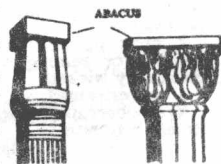
ab'ā-cus, *n.* [L. *abacus*, anything flat, as a sideboard, a bench, a slate, a table or board for games; Gr. *abax*, a counting board.]

1. among the Romans, a cupboard or buffet.

2. an instrument for doing or teaching arithmetic. On this are drawn lines; a counter on the lowest line is one; on the next, ten; on the third, a hundred, etc.

On the spaces, counters denote half the number of the line above. Other schemes are called by the same name, as the calculating frame employed by the Chinese, which consists of wires stretched in a framework, with counters sliding on the wires.

3. in architecture, a slab atop the capital of a column. It is square in the Tuscan, Doric, and Ionic orders, but its sides are arched inward in the Corinthian and Composite. The name is also given to a concave molding on



ABACUS

Abaddon

the capital of the Tuscan pedestal, and to the plinth above the bolt in the Tuscan and Doric orders.



IONIC CAPITAL
A. the abacus



DORIC CAPITAL
A. the abacus

abacus major; a trough used for washing ore in mines.

A-bad'dōn, *n.* [Heb., from *abad*, to perish.] 1. the destroyer, or angel of the bottomless pit. Rev. ix. 11.

2. the bottomless pit.

ā-bāft', *adv.* [AS. *be*, by, and *eftan*, behind.] on or toward the stern or rear of a ship; astern; aft.

ā-bāft', *prep.* in nautical usage, behind; back of.

abait the beam; in that arc of the horizon which is between a line drawn at right angles with the keel, and the point to which the stern is directed.

ā-bāi'sance, *n.* obeisance. [Obs.]

ā-bāi'sār, *n.* ivory black or animal charcoal.

ab-āi'en-āte (-yen-), *v.t.*; abalienated, *pt.* *pp.*; abalienating, *ppr.* 1. to transfer the title of: a civil law term.

2. to alienate or estrange, in general sense.

3. in medicine, to cause aberration of (the mind). [Obs.]

ab-āi'en-ā-ted, *a.* transferred, as a title to property; estranged.

ab-āi'en-ā-tion, *n.* 1. mental derangement. [Obs.]

2. the act of abalienating; transfer of title.

3. estrangement.

ab-ā-lō'nē, *n.* (Sp. origin.) name used on Pacific coast of United States to designate the univalve shellfish commonly called ear shells.

ab-ā'm'père, *n.* [absolute, and *ampère*.] a C.G.S. electromagnetic unit, 10 amperes.

ā-ban'dōn, *v.t.*; abandoned (-dūnd), *pt.* *pp.*; abandoning, *ppr.* [Fr. *abandonner*; *a-*, to, and *bandon*, decree, authority, ban; that is, to place under a ban or authority of another.] 1. to forsake entirely; as, to abandon a hopeless enterprise.

2. to renounce and forsake; to leave with a view never to return; to desert as lost or desperate; as, to abandon a cause or party.

3. to give up or resign (oneself) completely, without restraint; as, to abandon oneself to intemperance.

4. to resign; to yield, relinquish, or give over entirely; as, to abandon a throne.

5. in commerce, to relinquish to insurers (all claim to a ship or goods insured), as a preliminary toward recovering for a total loss.

Syn.—desert, forsake, leave, quit, forego, give up, take leave of, evacuate.

ā-ban'dōn, *n.* a relinquishment. [Obs.]

ā-ban-dōn', *n.* [Fr.] 1. unrestrained freedom of activity.

2. surrender to one's feelings or impulses.

ā-ban'dōned (-dūnd), *a.* 1. wholly forsaken or deserted.

2. given up, as to a vice; hence, extremely wicked, or sinning without restraint; irreclaimably wicked.

3. unrestrained.

Syn.—corrupt, depraved, forsaken, profligate, reprobate.

ā-ban-dōn-ee', *n.* in law, one to whom anything is abandoned.

ā-ban-dōn-ēr, *n.* one who abandons.

ā-ban-dōn-ing, *n.* a forsaking; total desertion.

ā-ban-dōn-ment, *n.* 1. an abandoning.

2. the fact or state of being forsaken.

3. in commerce, the relinquishment to underwriters of all property saved from loss by shipwreck, capture, or other peril stated in a policy. This *abandonment* must be made before the insured can demand indemnification for a total loss.

ā-ban'dūm, *n.* in old law, anything forfeited or confiscated.

ab-an-ni'tion (-nish'un), *n.* [LL.] banishment. [Rare.]

ā-bap-tis'tōn, *n.* the perforating part of the old trephine, an instrument used in trepanning. [Obs.]

ā-bā-r-ic'ō-lā'tion, *n.* in anatomy, that kind of articulation or structure of joints which allows free motion in the joint: called also *diarthrosis* and *dearthrosis*.

ā-bāse', *v.t.*; abased (-bāst'), *pt.* *pp.*; abasing, *ppr.* [Fr. *abaïsser*, from LL. *abassare*, to lower.]

1. literally, to lower or depress; to throw or cast down; as, to abase the eye. [Archaic.]

2. to cast down; to reduce low; to depress; to humble; to degrade: applied to the passions, rank, office, and condition in life.

Syn.—debase, degrade, depress, disgrace, humble, humiliate, lower.

ā-bāsed' (-bāst'), *a.* 1. reduced to a low state; humbled; depressed.

2. in heraldry, a term used of the wings of eagles when the tops are turned downward toward the point of the shield.

ā-bāse'ment, *n.* the act of humbling or bringing low; also, a state of depression, degradation, or humiliation.

ā-bāsh', *v.t.*; abashed (-bāsh'), *pt.* *pp.*; abashing, *ppr.* [OFr. *esbahir*, to astonish.] to disconcert; to discomfit; to make ashamed; to confound or confound, as by exciting suddenly a consciousness of guilt, error, or unworthiness.

Syn.—disconcert, confuse, shame.

ā-bāsh'ed-ly, *adv.* in a confused manner.

ā-bāsh'ment, *n.* 1. the fact or state of being abashed.

2. a feeling of shame or uneasiness.

ā-bā'si-ā, *n.* inability to walk properly, due to lack of co-ordination of the leg muscles.

ā-bā'si-ā-bas'sis, *ab-bas'si*, *n.* [Per., from Shah *Abas* II.] a silver coin formerly current in Persia, worth about twenty-nine cents.

ā-bāt'a-ble, *a.* that may or can be abated; as, an *abatable* writ or nuisance.

ā-bāte', *v.t.*; abated, *pt.* *pp.*; abating, *ppr.* [Fr. *abattre*, to beat down.]

1. to beat down; to pull down; to put an end to in any manner; as, to abate a nuisance.

2. to lessen; to diminish; to moderate; as, to abate zeal; to abate pride; to abate a demand.

3. to lessen; to mitigate; as, to abate pain, sorrow, or misery.

4. to overthrow; to cause to fail; to frustrate by judicial sentence; as, to abate a writ.

5. to deject; to depress; as, to abate the soul. [Obs.]

6. to deduct from; to lower; as, to abate a price.

7. to cause to fail; to annul. By the English law, a legacy to a charity is *abated* by a deficiency of assets.

8. to remit; as, to abate a tax.

ā-bāte', *v.i.* 1. to decrease, or become less in strength or violence; as, pain *abates*; a storm *abates*.

2. to fail; to be defeated, or come to naught; as, a writ *abates*.

3. in law, to enter into a freehold after the death of the last possessor and before the heir or devisee takes possession: with *in* or *into*.

4. in horsemanship, to perform well a downward motion. A horse is said to *abate*, or take down his curvets, when, working upon curvets, he puts both his hind legs to the ground at once, and observes the same exactness in all his motions.

Syn.—decrease, diminish, lessen, lower, reduce, subside, decline, intermit.

ā-bā'te, *n.*; *pl.* *ā-bā'ti*, [It.] a title given in Italy to ecclesiastics not otherwise designated. Compare *abbé*. Also written *abbate*.

ā-bāt'ed, *a.* lessened; decreased; destroyed; mitigated; defeated; remitted; overthrown; depressed.

ā-bāte'ment, *n.* 1. the act of abating; the state of being abated.

2. in law, a reduction, removing, or pulling down, as of a nuisance.

3. diminution, decrease, or mitigation, as of grief or pain.

4. deduction; the sum withdrawn, as from an account.

5. overthrow, failure, or defeat, as of a writ.

6. in law, the entry of a stranger into a freehold after the death of the last possessor, before the heir or devisee.

7. in heraldry, a mark of dishonor in a coat of arms by which its dignity is debased for some stain on the character of the wearer.

ā-bāt'ēr, *n.* a person or thing that abates.

ā-bā'tis, *ab'at-tis*, *n.sing.* and *pl.* [Fr. *abatis*.]

1. in fortification, piles of trees or branches of trees sharpened and laid with their points outward, in front of ramparts, to prevent assailants from mounting the walls: an old form of barricade.

2. a barbed-wire entanglement for defense; *ab-bat-four'* (*ā-bā-zhōr'*), *n.* [Fr. *abattre*, to throw down, and *four*, daylight.] skylight;

abbreviature

device that admits or deflects light from above.

ā-bāt'ōr, *n.* in law, a person who enters into a freehold on the death of the last possessor before the heir or devisee; also, one who abates anything, as a nuisance.

ā-bāt'tē-ry, an electric battery of low voltage used to light the filament of certain radio tubes, etc.

ā-bat-toir' (*ā-bāt-twār'*), *n.* [Fr.] a building for the slaughtering of cattle; a slaughter-house.

ab'ā-tūre, *n.* [Fr.] the track left in grass or herbage by any animal of the chase.

ā-bat-voix' (*ā-bā-vwā'*), *n.* [Fr. *abattre*, to throw down, and *voix*, the voice.] a canopy or sounding board over a pulpit or rostrum.

ab-ax'i-al, *a.* (*ab-*, from, and *axial*.) away from the axis; as, an *abaxial* ray of light.

ab'bā, *n.* [Syr., a father.]

1. in the Syriac, Coptic, and Ethiopic churches, a title given to the bishops.

2. [A-] in the New Testament, God. Mark xiv. 36.

ab'bā-cy, *n.* [from *abba*.] the position, rights, privileges, or term of office of an abbot.

Ab-bas'sid, *n.* and *a.* Abbasside.

Ab-bas'side, *n.* any caliph of the dynasty that ruled at Bagdad (750-1258 A.D.) and claimed descent from Mohammed's uncle, Abbas.

Ab-bas'side, *a.* of the dynasty that ruled at Bagdad (750-1258 A.D.).

ab-bā'te, *n.* same as *abate*, *n.*

ab-bā'tiāl (-shāl), *a.* belonging to an abbey.

ab-bat'ic-āl, *a.* abbatial.

ā-bē' (*ā-bā'*), *n.* [Fr., from *abba*.] in a monastic sense, an abbot; the superior of an abbey: but more generally, a title given to Roman Catholic clergy without any determinate rank or office.

ab'bess, *n.* a female superior or governess of a nunnery, or convent of nuns, having the authority over the nuns which the abbots have over the monks.

ab'bey, *n.*; *pl.* *ab'beyes*, [Fr. *abbaye*, abbey.]

1. a monastery headed by an abbot or a nunnery headed by an abbess.

2. the monks or nuns in such a place, collectively.

3. a church connected with a monastery.

Syn.—cloister, convent monastery, nunnery, priory.

ab'bey lub'bēr, a name formerly given to an idle monk or abbey pensioner.

ā-bōt', *n.* [AS. *abbot*; L. *abbas*, from Syr. *abba*, father.]

1. the superior or governor of an abbey or monastery.

2. a title sometimes borne by bishops whose sees were formerly abbeys.

ab'bōt-ship, *n.* same as *abbacy*.

ab-bōt'zō (-bōt'sō), *n.* [It., a sketch.] a rough sketch or outline of anything, as of a picture or a poem; a preliminary draft.

ab-brē'vi-āte, *v.t.*; abbreviating, *pt.* *pp.*; abbreviating, *ppr.* [L. *abbreviare*; *ad*, to, and *breviare*, from *brevis*, short.]

1. to shorten; to make shorter.

2. to shorten (a word or phrase) by the omission or substitution of letters.

3. in mathematics, to reduce to lower terms.

Syn.—abridge, condense, shorten, contract.

ab-brē'vi-ā-ted, *a.* shortened; reduced to lower terms; abridged. In botany, an *abbreviated* perianth is shorter than the tube of the corolla.

ab-brē'vi-ā'tion, *n.* 1. the act of shortening or contracting.

2. the state or fact of being made short.

3. a letter or letters used for a word or phrase; as, *Gen.* for *Genesis*; *U. S. A.* for *United States of America*.

4. the reduction of fractions to lower terms.

5. in music, one dash, or more, through the stem of a note, dividing it respectively into quavers, semiquavers, or demisemiquavers.

6. a summary; an abridgment; a contracted or abbreviated form.

Syn.—contraction, abridgment, curtailment.

ab-brē'vi-ā-tōr, *n.* 1. one who abridges or reduces to a smaller compass.

2. one of a number of secretaries in the chancery of Rome whose duty is to draw up the pope's briefs and reduce petitions, when granted, to a due form for papal bulls.

ab-brē'vi-ā-tō-ry, *a.* shortening; contracting.

ab-brē'vi-ā-tūre, *n.* a letter or character for shortening; an abridgment; a compend.



abbrochment

ab-bröch'ment, *n.* the act of monopolizing goods or forestalling a market. It was formerly a criminal offense in England. [Obs.] **A B C**, *pl.* **A B C's**, the first three letters of the alphabet; hence, usually in the plural, the whole alphabet; also used to denote the rudiments or first principles of anything; as, the **A B C** of farming.

A B C book; a little book or primer for teaching the elements of reading.

A B C Powers; Argentina, Brazil, and Chile.

A B C soil; a vertical section of soil made up of three layers; the top layer (**A-horizon**) is mostly humus, the middle layer (**B-horizon**) is of clay and other oxidized material, and the bottom layer (**C-horizon**) consists of loose rock and other mineral materials.

ab'cū'ree, *n.* see **abkari**.

ab-cū-lomb' (-lomb'), *n.* [absolute, and coulomb.] a C.G.S. electromagnetic unit, 10 coulombs.

ab'dāl, *n.* in Persia and other Asiatic countries, a Mohammedan devotee or fanatic.

ab-dā-lā'vi, **ab-dē-lā'vi**, *n.* the Egyptian musk-melon.

Ab-dē-rī'an, *a.* [Gr. *Abdera*, a Thracian town, birthplace of Democritus, the Laughing Philosopher.] given to foolish or immature laughter.

Ab-dē-rite, *n.* an inhabitant of Abdera, a town in Thrace, home of Democritus, the Laughing Philosopher, called the *Abderite*.

ab'dest, *n.* [Per. *abdast*; *ab*, water, and *dast*, hand.] purification by washing; a Mohammedan rite.

ab-dev'en-ham, *n.* astrological term applied to the ruler of the twelfth house of the heavens.

ab'di-cā-ble, *a.* able to be abdicated.

ab'di-cānt, *a.* abdicating; renouncing.

ab'di-cānt, *n.* an abdicator.

ab'di-cāte, *v.t.* abdicated, *pl.* *pp.*; abdicating, *ppr.* [L. *abdicare*; *ab-*, and *dicare*, to proclaim.]

1. to relinquish, renounce, or abandon.

2. to give up formally or by default (a high office, throne, authority, etc.).

3. to reject, renounce, or abandon, as a right or power.

4. in the civil law, to disclaim and expel from the family, as a father his child; to disinherit during the life of the father.

Syn.—resign, renounce, abandon, give up, vacate, quit, relinquish.

ab'di-cāte, *v.i.* to renounce, abandon, cast off, or relinquish a right, power, or trust.

Though a king may *abdicate* for his own person, he cannot *abdicate* for the monarchy.

ab'di-cā-ted, *a.* renounced; relinquished; abandoned.

ab'di-cā'tion, *n.* 1. the act of abdicating; the act of giving up a high office, authority, or function, especially that of a king.

2. a casting off; rejection; disinheritance.

ab'di-cā-tive, *a.* causing or implying abdication.

ab'di-cā-tōr, *n.* a person who abdicates.

ab'di-tive, *a.* [L. *abdere*, to hide.] having the ability to hide; hiding. [Rare.]

ab'di-tōry, *n.* a place for secreting or preserving goods. [Rare.]

ab'dō-men (or **ab-dō'men**), *n.* [L.]

1. in higher vertebrates, the belly, or that part of the body which lies between the diaphragm and the pelvis. It is lined with a membrane called the peritoneum, and contains the stomach, liver, spleen, pancreas, kidneys, bladder, and intestines. It is separated from the breast internally by the diaphragm and externally by the extremities of the ribs.

2. in insects, the posterior or hind part of the body, below the thorax. In some species, it is covered with wings and a case. It is divided into segments, or rings, on the sides of which are small spiracles by which the insect respires.

ab-dom'i-nāl, *a.* 1. of, in, or for the abdomen; as, the *abdominal* regions.

2. having ventral fins under the abdomen: said of fishes.

abdominal ring; an oblong tendinous ring in each groin, through which pass the spermatic cord in men and the

round ligaments of the uterus in women: called also *inguinal ring*.

ab-dom'i-nāl, *n.* [L. *abdominalis*; *pl.*, *abdominales*.] a member of a former large group of fishes whose ventral fins are placed behind the pectoral, and which belong to the division of bony fishes. The group contained, among other fishes, the salmon, pike, mullet, flying fish, herring, and carp.

ab-dom-i-nos'cō-py, *n.* [L. *abdomen*, and Gr. *skopein*, to look at.] inspection of the abdomen in order to detect disease.

ab-dom'i-nō-thō-rac'ic, *a.* pertaining to the abdomen and the thorax.

ab-dom'i-nous, *a.* 1. relating to the abdomen.

2. having a large belly.

ab-dūce', *v.t.*; abduced (-dūst'), *pl.* *pp.*; abducting, *ppr.* [L. *abducere*, to lead away.] to draw from; to withdraw, or draw to a different part: formerly used in anatomy. [Archaic.]

ab-dū'cens, *n.*; *pl.* **ab-dū-cen'tēs**, one of the abducting nerves.

ab-dū'cent, *a.* in physiology, abducting. The abducting muscles, called *abductors*, are opposed to the adducting muscles, or *adductors*, abducting nerves; the sixth pair of cranial nerves.

ab-duct', *v.t.*; abducted, *pl.* *pp.*; abducting, *ppr.* 1. to take (a person) away unlawfully and by force; kidnap.

2. in physiology, to move or pull (a part of the body) away from the median axis or from another part.

ab-dūc'tion, *n.* 1. an abducting or being abducted.

2. in logic, a kind of argumentation, called by the Greeks *apagoge*, in which the major is evident, but the minor is so obscure as to require further proof.

3. in law, the unlawful taking and carrying away of a child, a wife, etc., either by fraud, persuasion, or open violence.

4. in physiology, (a) the moving of a part of the body away from the median axis or from another part; (b) the changed position resulting from this.

ab-dūc'tōr, *n.* 1. in physiology, a muscle or nerve which abducts.

2. a person who abducts; a kidnaper.

ā-beam', *adv.* 1. on the beam: a nautical term signifying at right angles to the keel of the ship.

2. opposite a ship's side (with *of*).

ā-beār', *v.t.* [AS. *abearan*.] to bear; to endure. [Dial.]

ā-beār'ance, *n.* behavior: only in good *abearance*.

ā-beār'ing, *n.* demeanor. [Obs.]

ā'bē-cē-dār'i'an, *n.* [formed from the first four letters of the alphabet.] one who teaches the letters of the alphabet; also, a learner of the letters; hence, a novice.

ā'bē-cē-dār'i'an, **ā'bē-cē-dā-ry**, *a.* pertaining to or formed by the letters of the alphabet; hence, elementary.

ā'bē-cē-dā-ry, *n.*; *pl.* **ā'bē-cē-dā-ries**, same as *abecedarian*, *n.*

ā-bed', *adv.* on or in a bed.

ā-begge', *v.t.* an obsolete form of *aby*.

ā-bēle', **ā-bel tree**, [D. *abeel*; OFr. *abel*; LL. *abellus*, dim. of *L. albus*, white.] the white poplar.

ā-bel'i'an, *a.* relating to or named after the Norwegian mathematician Abel (1802-1829); as, *Abelian* equations; *Abelian* integrals.

ā-bel'i'an (-yan), **ā-bel-ō'ni'an**, **ā-bel-ite**, *n.* in church history, one of a temporary sect in Africa, mentioned only by Augustine, who states that the members married, but lived in continence, after the alleged manner of Abel, and attempted to maintain the sect by adopting the children of others.

ā-bel-mos'chus, *n.* former name of a genus of plants to which the okra and abelmosk belong.

ā-bel-mosk, *n.* [Ar. *abu al' misk*, lit., father of musk.] a species of *Hibiscus*, or Syrian mallow. The plant rises on a herbaceous stalk to a height of three or four feet, sending out two or three side branches. The seeds are used to make perfume.

Ab'er-deen An'gus, [after *Aberdeen*, Scotland, and *Angus*, a proper name.] any of a breed of black, hornless cattle, originally from Scotland.

Ab'er-deen ter'rī-ēr, a Scottish terrier.

ab'er-dē-vine', *n.* the European siskin, *Carduelis spinus*, a small green and yellow finch.

ab-er'rance, *n.* [L. *aberrans*, from *ab*, and *errare*, to wander.] the quality or state of being aberrant; deviation.

abide

ab-er'ran-cy, *n.*; *pl.* **ab-er'ran-cies**, same as *aberrance*.

ab-er'rant, *a.* wandering; straying from what is true, correct, normal, or typical.

ab'ēr-rāte, *v.i.* to wander.

ab'ēr-rā'tion, *n.* 1. a departure from what is right, true, correct, etc.; deviation from truth or moral rectitude; deviation from a straight line.

2. in astronomy, a slight apparent motion or displacement of the fixed stars, occasioned by the progressive motion of light and the earth's motion in its orbit.

3. in optics, (a) the failure of light rays from one point to converge to a single focus; (b) an error in a lens or mirror causing such failure.

4. mental derangement or lapse.

Syn.—insanity, delusion, divergence, mania, alienation, illusion, deviation.

ab'ēr-rā'tion-āl, *a.* marked by aberration.

ab-ē-run'cāte, *v.t.* [L. *aberruncare*, to weed out.] to pull up by the roots; to extirpate completely. [Obs.]

ab-ē-run'cā-tōr, *n.* 1. a weeding machine.

2. same as *aberruncator*.

ā bet', *v.t.*; abetted, *pl.* *pp.*; abetting, *ppr.* [OFr. *abetter*, to incite, to deceive.] to encourage, sanction, help, etc.: now used chiefly in a bad sense; as, to *abet* an evildoer.

Syn.—aid, encourage, countenance, incite, instigate, assist, connive at.

ā bet', *n.* the act of aiding or encouraging in a crime. [Obs.]

ā bet'ment, *n.* the act of abetting.

ā bet'tāl, *n.* same as *abetment*.

ā bet'tōr, **ā bet'tēr**, *n.* one who abets, or incites, aids, or encourages another to commit a crime. The legal form of the word is *abettor*.

Syn.—accessory, accomplice, ally, assistant.

ab-ē-vač-ū ā'tion, *n.* in medicine, a partial evacuation.

ā-bey'ance, *n.* [OFr. *abeance*, expectation; Fr. *bayer*, to gape, stare at.]

1. in law, a state of not having been determined or settled. The fee simple or inheritance of lands and tenements is in *abeyance* when there is no person in being in whom it can vest; so that it is in a state of expectancy or waiting until a proper person shall appear.

Thus, if land is leased to A for life, remainder to the heirs of B, the remainder is in *abeyance* till the death of B.

2. a state of temporary suspension, as of an activity or function.

ā-bey'an-cy, *n.* abeyance.

ā-bey'ant, *a.* in a state of suspense.

ab-far'ad, *n.* [absolute, and *farad*.] a C.G.S. electromagnetic unit, 10⁹ farads.

ab'grē-gāte, *v.t.* to separate from a herd. [Obs.]

ab'hāl, *n.* an East Indian berry, the juniper.

ab'hen'ry, *n.* [absolute, and *henry*.] a C.G.S. electromagnetic unit, 10⁻⁹ henry.

ab-hom'i-nāl, *a.* not human. [Obs.]

ab-hor', *v.t.*; abhorred, *pl.* *pp.*; abhorring, *ppr.* [L. *ab*, from, and *horre*, to shrink.]

1. to hate extremely or with contempt; to loathe, detest, or abominate.

2. to be opposed or averse to.

ab-horred', *a.* hated extremely; detested.

ab-hor'ence, *n.* 1. extreme hatred, detestation, or great aversion.

2. something abhorred or repugnant.

Syn.—antipathy, aversion, hatred, dislike.

ab-hor'en-cy, *n.* abhorrence. [Obs.]

ab-hor'ent, *a.* 1. hating; detesting; struck with abhorrence.

2. contrary; odious; inconsistent with, or expressive of extreme opposition; as, slander is *abhorrent* to all ideas of justice. In this sense, followed by *to*.

3. exciting horror; as, *abhorrent* scenes.

Syn.—loathsome, odious, hateful, detestable, abominable, revolting, repugnant.

ab-hor'ent-ly, *adv.* with abhorrence.

ab-hor'rēr, *n.* one who abhors.

ab-hor'ring, *n.* 1. loathing; the feeling of abhorrence.

2. an object of abhorrence; as, an *abhorring* to all flesh. [Obs.]

ā'bib, *n.* [Heb. *abib*, an ear of corn.] the first month of the Jewish ecclesiastical year, seventh of the civil year, afterwards called *Nisan*.

ā-bid'ance, *n.* continuance; stay. [Rare.]

ā-bide', *v.i.*; abide, *pl.* *pp.*; abiding, *ppr.* [AS. *abidan*, to abide.]

1. to rest, or dwell. [Archaic or Poetic.]

2. to tarry or stay for a short time. [Obs.]