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PREFACE

A New Look for an Old Friend

For over 100 years and now 30 editions, *Dorland's Illustrated Medical Dictionary* has been the premier reference for the vocabulary of medicine. During that century, several generations of lexicographers have dedicated their work to reviewing, selecting, and incorporating into the Dictionary vast amounts of vocabulary used to describe the ever-expanding and rapidly changing body of medical and related scientific knowledge. To their efforts in balancing the need to include this growing vocabulary against the requirement of keeping the book to a convenient size, presently incorporating over 118,000 entries defining more than 122,000 terms, is owed the primary place that *Dorland's* holds among medical dictionaries.

The present edition, while continuing the *Dorland's* tradition of excellence, has a very different look from previous editions, owing to the use of color to enhance not only the appearance but also the usefulness of the book. Illustrations (over 1100 in all) are nearly all presented in full color. A large number of illustrations have been added to the vocabulary; and all of the illustrations have been carefully chosen to complement and clarify the definitions that they accompany. Color has also been added to the text, the headwords for each entry being dark red, a change that especially helps to bring out the subentries. The long lists of subentries (such as the lists at *disease* and *nerve*) have been further enhanced by the use of colored boxes. The purpose in all of this has been to create a book that is not only clean and modern in appearance but also easy to use, without the distraction of awkward clutter.

In addition to the usual extensive work in revising the vocabulary, the 30th edition of *Dorland's* features the inclusion of over 600 terms from the field of Complementary and Alternative Medicine. Where the theory behind the terms lies outside traditional biomedicine, we have aimed at defining them in terms of their own theories; while some are admittedly controversial, interest in this field is widespread and growing, and such terms are more and more likely to be encountered.

Not only have appendices been updated, but five new ones have been added. The list of Greek and Latin stems, which has appeared in the front of the book for over 50 years, has been moved to the appendices in response to user feedback that it would be more useful there. The appendices have been redesigned in order to make them easier to use, again using color enhancements. Tables also have been redesigned in the same way. The plates, which in previous editions were combinations of single- and two-color drawings, now appear in full color. As in the past, they appear with the terms that they illustrate, rather than being gathered into a hard-to-find section elsewhere in the book.

An exciting complement to the book is the new Dorlands.com website (http://www.dorlands.com), which contains features of interest to users of *Dorland's Illustrated Medical Dictionary* and its companion products.

In the preparation of this edition, our consultants have performed a great deal of invaluable work in reviewing the entries, and we gratefully acknowledge the generous lending of their expertise. We are indebted to them for their assistance not only in revising existing entries, but also in selecting new terms for inclusion and deleting obsolete terms. The appendices again include the "Reference Intervals for the Interpretation of Laboratory Tests"; we are grateful to William Z. Borer, MD, for graciously allowing us to use it once more.

As in past editions, we have used a number of official and standard nomenclatures as guides: for anatomy, the Terminologia Anatomica as approved by the Federative Committee on Anatomical Terminology; for enzyme nomenclature, the Recommendations of the Nomenclature Committee of the International Union of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology on the Nomenclature and Classification of Enzymes; for bacteriology, Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology and the ninth edition of Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology; for virology, Virus Taxonomy: Sixth Report of the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses, together with the proposals approved at the Jerusalem (1996) and Strasburg (1997) ICTV meetings; for psychiatric terms, the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th Edition (DSM-IV), published by the American Psychiatric Association. Drugs are identified as being included in the twenty-fourth edition of the United States Pharmacopeia (USP 24) or the nineteenth edition of the National Formulary (NF 19), both official from January 1, 2000. The Medical Subject Headings provided are created, maintained, and provided by the U.S. National Library of Medicine. We gratefully acknowledge our indebtedness to the compilers, editors, and publishers of these works, and we emphasize that any inaccuracies that may have arisen from our transcription or interpretation of this material are our sole responsibility.

We also thank the users who, over the years, have provided us with information, opinions, and innumerable suggestions. To them we owe a debt of gratitude; their ongoing interest in the book has helped to maintain *Dorland's* position as the preeminent, most authoritative, and best-selling medical dictionary.

Douglas M. Anderson Chief Lexicographer Elsevier

NOTES ON THE USE OF THIS DICTIONARY

Main Entries and Subentries

Main entries appear in boldface type, with bullets indicating syllabication. Terms consisting of two or more words are ordinarily given as subentries under the noun, as is traditional in medical dictionaries; subentries are also set in boldface type, and each is set on a new line. Although this arrangement may be confusing at first to those accustomed to general dictionaries, it has the advantage of allowing related terms to be grouped together (for example, all the *lymphocyte* entries appear under the main entry *lymphocyte*).

According to this scheme, Howell-Jolly bodies, ketone bodies, and pineal body are all to be found under the main entry body, and carotid pulse, dicrotic pulse, and paradoxical pulse are to be found under the main entry pulse. It is important for the user to bear in mind that it is impossible to provide entries for every variation of every term, so that a phrase that is not found under one main entry should be sought under a synonymous main entry. For example, the same entity may be described as a disease or a syndrome (as Fabry's disease—Fabry's syndrome, which is to be found under disease) or as a sign or a phenomenon (as Gowers' sign—Gowers' phenomenon, which appears under sign). In such cases, the main entry should be consulted for references to synonymous terms under which the desired phrase may be found.

Example:

treatment... the management and care of a patient for the purpose of combating disease or disorder. See also under *care*, *maneuver*, *method*, *technique*, *test*, and *therapy*.

In subentries, the main entry word is represented only by the initial letter, e.g., cogwheel r. under respiration, unless it occurs in the plural form. Regular English plurals are represented by the initial letter followed by 's, as b's for bones under bone. Irregular plurals, such as teeth under tooth, and Latin plurals, such as foramina under foramen, are spelled out in full.

Chemical Compounds

Exceptions to the use of subentries are made for specific acids and for enzymes and enzyme deficiencies. Names of specific acids will be found as main entries under the first word of the name, e.g., sulfuric acid under S, as will enzyme names, e.g., alkaline phosphatase under A. Enzyme deficiencies will be found as main entries immediately following the entry for the enzyme in question, e.g., carbamoyl phosphate synthetase deficiency after carbamoyl phosphate synthetase.

Chemical compounds embodying the name of an element will be found as subentries under the element; for example, aluminum acetate, aluminum hydroxide, and aluminum sulfate are all located under aluminum. Chemical

compounds that begin with the adjectival form denoting valence will be found under the salt or ester, e.g., ferric citrate under citrate.

Drug Names

Drugs are to be found under the active moiety, if that is a main entry. For example, prednisolone acetate, prednisolone hemisuccinate, and prednisolone sodium phosphate all appear under prednisolone. If the active moiety is not itself a main entry, then the entire drug name appears as a main entry, e.g., methadone hydrochloride under M.

Syllabication

Acceptable word divisions are indicated for main entries by the use of bullets within the entry word; syllabication is based on pronunciation. Not all syllable breaks are given; for example, the separation of a single vowel from the beginning or end of a word is not allowed and is not shown. Likewise, single letters should not be separated from the word elements to which they belong in compound words. In many cases a word may be broken at places other than the ones indicated; for example, different pronunciations imply different sets of breaks, so that melanocyte could be divided mel·a·no·cyte or me·lano·cyte, depending on which syllable, the first or second, is stressed. In any case, breaks that could confuse a reader as to the meaning of a word are to be avoided.

Sequence of Entries

Main Entries

Main entries will be found alphabetized on the sequence of letters, regardless of spaces or hyphens that may occur between them. (Special rules govern terms that begin with proper names, which are mainly eponyms; see below.) Thus the following sequences will be found:

formboard form-class forme form-family heart heartbeat heart block heartburn

Subentries

Subentries, like main entries, are alphabetized letter by letter. The main entry word, whether it is represented by the initial letter, the initial plus 's, or a spelled-out plural, is ignored in alphabetizing subentries, as are prepositions, conjunctions, and articles. Inflected forms, such as genitives and plurals of Latin words, are treated as if they were nominative singular. (For what is meant by "inflected forms," see "Presentation of Plurals and Other Inflections," page xix.) The following forms, all from os craniale "cranial bone," are considered equivalent for

purposes of alphabetization: os craniale, ossis cranialis, ossa cranialia, and ossium cranialium.

In accordance with the above rules, the following sequences of subentries are found under *ganglion* and *prolapse*:

ganglion

prolapse

Andersch's ganglia anal p.
ganglia aorticorenalia p. of anus
auditory g. p. of the cord
Auerbach's g. frank p.
g. autonomicum p. of the iris

A special case is that of what may be called inverted subentries, in which the initial word or words are moved to the end of the entry, set off by a comma. This is done in order to allow related terms to fall together in the subentry list; such inversions are especially common in the anatomical vocabulary for anterior/posterior structures and the like. These terms are alphabetized as usual up to the comma marking the inversion; words following the comma, however, are not counted except within the group of repeated entries:

lobe

inferior l., left inferior l., right inferior l. of left lung inferior l. of right lung

Proper Names

A number of main entries are included for terms beginning with a proper name, usually eponymic terms; these give information about the term's origin (most often a bit of biographical information) and cross references to entries where definitions may be found. These cross references can be helpful in giving an indication of where to look for an entry that may go by more than one name (such as disease or syndrome). Entries of this sort are alphabetized as entries for the proper name only, following this set of rules:

- (1) The 's, if one occurs, is never counted for alphabetization. Addison's planes precedes addisonian.
- (2) Words following the name are not counted for alphabetical order unless the names are the same. Thus, Addison's disease precedes Addison's planes.
- (3) Only the first name in a term containing more than one proper name is counted for alphabetization unless the entries are the same in all other respects. Babinski's reflex, Babinski-Fröblich syndrome, Babinski-Nageotte syndrome, Babinski-Vaquez syndrome appear in that order.
- (4) Umlauts (ö, ü) are ignored for purposes of alphabetization. Löwe's ring, Lowe's syndrome, Lowe-Terry-MacLachlan syndrome, Löwenberg's canal, Löwenthal's tract, Lower's rings appear in that order.
- (5) Names beginning *Mac* or *Mc* are alphabetized as if spelled *Mac*.

Subentries that begin with a proper name also follow the above rules for sequencing.

Proper nouns (or capitalized entries) appear before common nouns (or lower case entries). Thus *Bacillus* precedes *bacillus*.

Chemical Terms

In the alphabetization of chemical names, italic prefixes (e.g., o-, p-, m-, trans-, cis-) are ignored, as are numbers, Greek letters, and the prefixes D-, L-, d-, l-, (+)-, and (-)-. When a prefix is spelled out, however, the term is to be found under the fully spelled out form, for example, levodopa under L, orthocresol under O, and beta-naphtholsulfonic acid under B.

Indication of Pronunciation

A phonetic spelling of a term appears in parentheses after the boldface entry word. The pronunciation is given for all main entries; it is generally not given for subentries but does appear in some subentries that are foreign phrases. As a rule, the most common pronunciation is given, with no effort to list the variants, although exceptions to this do occur. The phonetic spelling is kept as simple as possible, with few diacritical marks; the only special character used is ϑ , the schwa, used to represent the unstressed vowel sound heard at the end of sofa. The schwa is also used in combination with r to represent the sound heard in fur and the second syllable of other. This combination may be found in both stressed and unstressed syllables.

There are four basic rules:

- (1) An unmarked vowel ending a syllable (an "open" syllable) is long. Thus ma represents the pronunciation of may.
- (2) An unmarked vowel in a syllable ending in a consonant (a "closed" syllable) is short. Thus not represents the pronunciation of knot.
- (3) A long vowel in a closed syllable is indicated by a macron. Thus māt represents the pronunciation of mate.
- (4) A short vowel that ends or itself constitutes a syllable is indicated by a breve. Thus *ĭ-mūn'* represents the pronunciation of *immune*.

Primary (') and secondary (") stresses are shown in polysyllabic words, with unstressed syllables followed by hyphens, as in rep"li-kā'sbən. Monosyllables, even when part of a compound term, have no stress mark, as in bens jōnz. Primary stresses are also given as part of the boldface subentries for foreign phrases.

It is impossible with *Dorland's* simplified phonetics to represent the native pronunciations of many foreign words and proper names. These are shown as closely as possible in English phonetics.

Pronunciation Guide

Vowels

(For the use of breves and macrons, see the four rules above.)

ə	sof <i>a</i>	ŏ	got
ā	m <i>a</i> te	ū	fuel
ă	b <i>a</i> t	ŭ	$\mathbf{b}u\mathbf{t}$
ē	beam	aw	all
ĕ	met	oi	boil
ī	b <i>i</i> te	$\overline{00}$	boom
ĭ	b <i>i</i> t	$\widecheck{\mathrm{oo}}$	$\mathbf{b}oo\mathbf{k}$
ō	home	011	fozv1

	Cons	onants	
b	<i>b</i> ook	S	sigh
d	dog	t	<i>t</i> in
f	dog fog	\mathbf{w}	$w \mathrm{ood}$
g	get	Z	size, phase
ĥ	heat	ch	<i>ch</i> in -
j	<i>j</i> ewel, gem	ks	six
k	<i>j</i> ewel, gem <i>c</i> art, pi <i>ck</i>	kw	<i>qu</i> ote
1	<i>l</i> ook	ng	sing
m	mouse	sh	should
n	<i>n</i> ew	th	<i>th</i> in, <i>th</i> an
p	<i>p</i> ark	zh	measure
r	<i>r</i> at		

Presentation of Plurals and Other Inflections

In main entries for foreign (nearly always Greek or Latin) nouns, the original and anglicized plurals are given after the phonetic spelling; irregular plurals of English nouns are also given.

Example:

sto·ma (sto'mə) pl. stomas or sto'mata... **tooth** (tooth) pl. teetb...

The original foreign plural is often given a separate boldface listing in its proper alphabetical place in the vocabulary.

Example:

sto·ma·ta (sto'mə-tə) [Gr.] plural of stoma.

Latin is used, especially in anatomy, to form phrases of the type "the X of Y," for example, arcus aortae, "the arch of the aorta." The prepositional phrase introduced by "of" corresponds to the Latin genitive case (aortae "of the aorta," from aorta). For this reason, the genitive case (= English "of") for Latin nouns is also frequently given, introduced by the abbreviation gen.

Examples:

pa·pil·la...gen. and pl. papil'lae... os¹...gen. o'ris, pl. o'ra... os²...gen. os'sis, pl. os'sa...

Latin and Greek (and a number of other languages, such as German and Russian, for that matter) are said to be inflected, that is, words change form to show how they are related to other words in a sentence. An example of this is the "aortae" phrase given above, where the change in the ending of the word corresponds to the use of the English preposition "of." Other Latin inflected forms are found in subentries; these forms will be the objects in a prepositional phrase. For example, under the main entry fissura, there is the subentry f. in ano; ano is the object of the preposition in and is one of the half-dozen or so different inflected forms of anus, which is a main entry in the Dictionary and has listed with it the genitive and plural form ani. As in all subentries, differences in singular and plural forms do not count for alphabetizing, nor do prepositions or conjunctions (e.g., et "and," in "in"); thus under the main entry fissura, the subentry f. in ano precedes f. antitragohelicina.

Etymology

Information on the origin of a word appears in brackets after the phonetic spelling or a plural form of the entry when that is given. The information is necessarily brief. and the reader must often reason from the etymon, the original word from which other words are derived, to the meaning. For example, for the main entry dualism the etymological section reads [L. duo two]. L. stands for Latin (languages are either abbreviated or spelled out; see "Abbreviations Used in This Dictionary," p. xxi). The word duo is the etymon, and "two" is the English translation of the etymon, not of the entry. The reader proceeds from duo to dual to dualism. Furthermore, space limitations preclude the listing of all the stages in the passage from the etymon to the modern derivative (i.e., the entry). For example, the etymological part of the entry for vein is simply [L. vena]; in full, it would be [Middle English veine, from Old Fr., from L. vena].

For those foreign words or phrases taken into English entire, only the language is given, with a translation given within quotation marks.

Example:

déjà vu [Fr. "already seen"]...

If the meaning of the foreign word or phrase is the same as that of the entry word, no translation is given.

There are four further additions:

(1) As a guide to related vocabulary, especially for anatomical terms, the main entry may be followed in brackets by its Greek or Latin equivalent (or both). Example:

kid·ney...[L. ren; Gr. nephros]

- (2) Many technical terms of Greek or Latin derivation are listed twice as main entries (and both times with meaning and cross references), first as an independent word (with an etymology), then as a combining form (without an etymology), e.g., ectomy and -ectomy.
- (3) There is an essay, "Fundamentals of Medical Etymology" (see p. xxiii), which explains the basic rules for the derivation and composition of Greek, Latin, and Greco-Latin terms in medicine. Appendix 1 is an analytical word list of Greek and Latin roots, prefixes, and combining forms; the list is an aid for the analysis of existing medical terms and the creation of new ones.
- (4) The prefixes (e.g., hyper-, hypo-), suffixes (e.g., -ia, -oid), and combining forms (e.g., action-, -emia) from the analytical word list are also listed as main entries in the vocabulary.

Official Publications

Certain terms listed in official publications are identified by an abbreviation in brackets. In main entries, these abbreviations usually appear after the etymology (or after the phonetic spelling if no etymology is given). In subentries, they appear immediately after the boldface subentry word. When a term has more than one meaning, the abbreviation is placed at the beginning of the definition to which it applies. The following abbreviations are used:

[DSM-IV]	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental		
	Disorders of the American Psychiatric Associa-		
	tion, 4th Edition, 1994		
[EC]	Enzyme Commission number (e.g., citrate (si)-		
	synthase[EC 4.1.3.7]) from the Recommen-		
	dations of the Nomenclature Committee of the		
	International Union of Biochemistry and Molec-		
	ular Biology on the Nomenclature and Classi-		
	fication of Enzymes published in Enzyme		
	Nomenclature (1992)		
[TA]	Terminologia Anatomica (1998)		
[NF]	The National Formulary, 19th edition (2000)		
[USP]	The United States Pharmacopeia, 25th edition		

Medical Subject Headings

(2002)

Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) and tree numbers are given for a number of terms. In some cases, the Medical Subject Heading is also given on synonyms for such terms; in the interest of conserving space, these are generally confined to MeSH synonyms.

Placement of Definitions and Cross References

With few exceptions, a definition is given in only one place for two or more synonymous terms. Entries for the synonyms provide cross references to the term where the definition is to be found. Such cross references are in place of a definition and are set in roman type:

mas-to-plas-ty (mas'to-plas"te) mammaplasty.

The definition will be found at *mommaplasty*. In many cases, a list of synonyms is given at the end of the entry where the definition appears. This list is introduced by the phrase "called also" and the synonyms are set in italic type.

Cross references from one subentry to another subentry under the same main heading use the abbreviated form of the main entry:

syndrome

hypersomnia-bulimia s., Kleine-Levin s.

Cross-referencing has also been used for earlier terms that have been supplanted and for variant spellings of a term. In such instances, the definition is attached to the term that is currently the preferred term. A word of warning is, however, warranted here. In some instances, preference for one term over another may be slight or even nonexistent, while in others, different spellings or terms may be preferred by different authorities, by different specialties, or in different regions. In such cases, the practice of defining words only at one place has been adhered to as a means of keeping down the size of the Dictionary by avoiding duplication of definitions, and the user should remember that the appearance of a cross reference or definition does not always indicate a preference for one form or synonym over another.

Related Entries

Cross references to related entries or to entries where additional information may be found are also given. They are identified by "see also," "cf.," and "q.v." (or "qq. v."). (For the abbreviations, see "Abbreviations Used in This Dictionary," page xxi.) Cross references introduced by "see also" or "cf." are set in italic type.

Official Terminology

In general, when a term is included in one of the official publications listed in the preceding section ("Official Publications"), its definition appears at the official term. Thus the definition for "pelvic bone" is found at os coxae; a cross reference to the official term is found at the subentry under bone. Exceptions have been made in a few cases where the nonofficial term is so common or important that it makes the most sense to put the definition on the unofficial term (for example, beart is defined, not cor).

Entries Containing a Proper Name

Entries containing a proper name are generally entered twice. The definition for the entity is given in a subentry under the appropriate main entry, as *Down syndrome* under *syndrome*. Biographical, geographical, or other information attached to the proper name is given in a main entry (see "Proper Names" in the section "Sequence of Entries," p. xvii.) A cross reference is given from the main entry for the proper name to the subentry where the term is defined. For example:

Down syndrome (disease) (down) [John Langdon Haydon *Down*, English physician, 1828–1896] see under *syndrome*.

Form of Eponyms

The use of the possessive form ending in 's for eponyms is becoming progressively less common, and the entries for eponymic terms in this Dictionary reflect this ongoing change in usage. The Dictionary therefore presents an inconsistent mixture of forms. The user should be aware that although the use of the nonpossessive form is increasingly common, it is by no means universal. (The user should also be aware that some terms, such as Apgar score, have never had an 's and that for some terms, such as Christmas disease and Down syndrome, the nonpossessive form is actually preferred.) The variation in forms seen in the Dictionary is thus only a reflection of change and not a prescription for the use of possessive and nonpossessive forms.

Symbols and Abbreviations

Symbols, abbreviations, and acronyms are included as main entries; definitions consist of the term for which the symbol or the abbreviation stands, with a translation if the term is in a foreign language. These terms will usually be found at the appropriate places in the vocabulary; some terms, however, are self-explanatory and have no entry, such as the names of organizations and phrases like the following:

q.h. abbreviation for L. qua'que ho'ra, every hour.

In a few cases, the definition is placed at the abbreviation or acronym instead of at the term for which it stands, e.g., *ELISA*; in such cases, the abbreviation, not the term, is what is actually in use.

Abbreviations appear both with and without periods. This should not be taken to denote proper usage, since abbreviations may appear either way; at the present the trend is away from the use of the period for most abbreviations.

A list of selected abbreviations also appears in Appendix 2.

Abbreviations Used in This Dictionary

a.	artery (L. arteria); agar
aa.	arteries (L. arteriae)
ant.	anterior
Ar.	Arabic
A.S.	Anglo-Saxon
c.	about (L. circa)
cf.	compare (L. confer)
def.	definition
dim.	diminutive
EC	Enzyme Commission
e.g.	for example (L. exempli gratia)
Fr.	French
gen.	genitive
Ger.	German

Gr.	Greek
i.e.	that is (L. id est)
inf.	inferior
It.	Italian
L.	Latin
l.	ligament (L. ligamentum)
ligg.	ligaments (L. ligamenta)
lat.	lateral
m.	muscle (L. musculus)
med.	medial; median
mm.	muscles (L. musculi)
n.	nerve (L. nervus)
neg.	negative
NF	National Formulary
nn.	nerves (L. nervi)
obs.	obsolete
pl.	plural
Port.	Portuguese
post.	posterior
qq. v.	which (things) see (L. quae vide)
q.v.	which see (L. quod vide)
sing.	singular
Sp.	Spanish
sup.	superior
ΤÂ	Terminologia Anatomica
USAN	
USP	United States Pharmacopeia
v.	vein (L. vena)
vv.	veins (L. venae)

FUNDAMENTALS OF MEDICAL ETYMOLOGY

By Joseph M. Patwell, PhD

Twenty-six hundred years ago the Asiatic Greeks of Ionia and the Italian Greeks in Magna Graecia began the speculative and investigational sciences, pushing the then Greek to its limits, pushing beyond those limits, riveting new meanings onto old words, smithing new words for new ideas and discoveries—philosophia, "the love of wisdom," was supposedly first used by Pythagoras.

The sciences still go their robust way, iconoclastic but also indebted to and respectful of their ancient tradition. In anatomy, surgery, clinical medicine, and laboratory medicine, Greek, Latin, and Greco-Latin have always formed well over ninety per cent of the technical terms. Knowing the fundamentals of Greek and Latin word formation is immensely helpful in learning the vocabulary of modern medicine or of any modern science and is absolutely necessary for anyone coining a word for a new hypothesis, theory, process, or entity. The purpose of this introduction is to present those fundamentals in as practical and concise a form as possible; any statements contrary to historical and comparative linguistic fact that are made in the following pages are deliberate in keeping with this purpose.

Alphabet and Pronunciation

The Latin alphabet is a modification of one of the many Greek alphabets. The order and shape of the Latin letters are the same as in ours except that the Classical Latin alphabet has no j, u, or w, which are improvements dating from the Middle Ages.

The consonants of the Latin alphabet have about the same values as the English except that c, ch, g, s, t, and v are pronounced as in cold, chrome, get, so, tin, and wine, and not as in cent, chill, gem, rose, mention, and vine. Ph and th may be pronounced as in philosophy the theology.

Latin vowels may be long or short. The short vowels are pronounced very much like the American wander, bed, it, hope, and put; short y sounds like the \ddot{u} in German $d\ddot{u}nn$. The long vowels are pronounced as in father, hey, marine, stove, and rude; long y is pronounced like the \ddot{u} in the German $\ddot{u}ber$.

Words are stressed on the next-to-last syllable, called the penult, if that syllable contains a long vowel or diphthong or is followed by two or more consonants, otherwise on the syllable before the penult.

The Greek alphabet used today is based on that used in Athens by the end of the fifth century B.C. The accompanying table shows one modern English pronunciation of each ancient Greek character in terms of English.

Capital	Small Letter	Sound	Name	Transcription
A	α	archaic	alpha	a
В	β	<i>b</i> arbarism	beta	b
Γ	γ	grammar	gamma	g
Δ	δ	dogma	delta	g d
E	$\boldsymbol{arepsilon}$	elephant	epsilon	e
Z	ζ	zoology	zeta	z
H	η	<i>a</i> ir	eta	ē
Θ	θ , ϑ	<i>th</i> eist	theta	th
I	ι	mach <i>i</i> ne	iota	i
K	κ	s <i>k</i> eleton	kappa	c (Latin),
				k (Dorland's)
Λ	λ	<i>l</i> ithograph	lambda	1
M	μ	music	mu	m
N	ν	neolithic	nu	n
Ξ	ξ	exegesis	xi	x
O	0	øbelisk	omicron	0
П	π	spasm	pi	p
P	ρ	arachnid	rho	r
Σ	σ, ς	symbol	sigma	S
T	τ	s <i>t</i> adium	tau	t
Υ	υ	ü, über (German)	upsilon	у
Φ	ϕ	<i>ph</i> oto	phi	ph
X	χ	Bach (German)	chi	ch
Ψ	ψ	di <i>ps</i> omania	psi	ps
Ω	ω	ocher, Shaw	omega	Ō

The vowels are α , ε , η , ι , o, v, ω , most of which may be followed by ι or v to form diphthongs, the most common of which are shown below.

Diphthong αι	Sound <i>ai</i> sle	Transcription ae, e, or ai
αυ	out	au
ει	<i>ei</i> ght	i or ei
ευ	<i>eu</i> phony	eu
οι	poison	oe, e, or oi
ου	ghoul	ou or u
υι	suite	ui, lui (French)

Transliteration

The Romans transliterated kappa with c, not k, and chi with ch, not kh; thus character, not kharakter. This Dictionary transliterates kappa with k in its etymologies in order to make immediately clear the nature of the underlying Greek sound: Spelling cystis for kystis, cyst, could cause doubt whether the sound was "kystis" or "systis." Similar difficulties with chi are less likely, and therefore Dorland's retains the traditional ch; hence our etymological spelling is charakter.

Classical Greek $\varepsilon\iota$ was pronounced as in *skein*, but by the end of the fourth century B.C. it was pronounced as in *seize*; thus the city that Alexander the Great founded in Egypt, *Alexandreia*, became Alexandria in Latin. English generally prefers the Latin transliteration, but the use of ei for $\varepsilon\iota$ is growing. This Dictionary transliterates $\varepsilon\iota$ with ei in its etymologies.

The Romans transliterated Greek at and ot with their own ae and oe, which had nearly the same pronunciation. By late antiquity the Greek and Latin diphthongs had become simple vowels, having gone through the regular progression aisle to air to aim, and the spelling wavered between the old diphthongs and the new pronunciation. This vacillation persists in English: the British prefer the diphthongs (oedema, haemorrhage); the Americans, the simple vowel (edema, hemorrhage). In official nomenclature, e.g., the Terminologia Anatomica, the Index nominum genericorum (plantarum), and the International Code of Nomenclature of Bacteria, the official orthography fluctuates from edition to edition, swinging from oesophagus to esophagus and Haemophilus to Hemophilus and back again. In the etymologies of this Dictionary Greek at and ot are transliterated by ai and oi, and Latin ae and oe retained, for

The Greeks especially but also the Romans had the same troubles with aitch (b) that Cockneys do, dropping it where it belonged and adding it where it did not. In Greek, initial b- ordinarily remained in simple words (haima, blood) but would either assimilate with or disappear before a prefix. For assimilation, bypo and haima make byphaimos, suffused with blood (first appearing in Hippocrates); for disappearance, a-, an-, and haima make anaimia, anemia (first appearing in Aristotle), not ahaimia and ahemia.

Latin usually preserved initial h- even after prefixes (homo habilis, habilitas, inhabilitas; honor, honestus, inhonestus), but very much of our Latin has come through French with inconsistent (to say the least) spellings and pronunciations: able, ability, and inability, not hable, hability, and inhability; honor and honest, not onor and onest.

Speakers of American English generally have no difficulty with *h*- and treat it as a full consonant when adding prefixes; thus we have *inharmonious*, not *anarmonious*; *ahaptoglobinemia*, not *anaptoglobinemia*; and *anhydride*, not *anydride* or *ahydride*.

Greek words are written with several accents that now indicate the stressed syllable. Words beginning with a vowel, diphthong, or rho (ρ) are written with a so-called breathing mark over the initial vowel or rho or over the second element of the diphthong $(\epsilon \tau \epsilon \rho o \delta o \xi i \alpha, heterodoxia; \alpha i \sigma \vartheta \eta \tau \iota \kappa \delta \varsigma, aisthētikos; \rho \upsilon \vartheta \mu \delta s, rhythmos)$. The rough breathing mark (') indicates that the syllable begins with an aspiration (aitch) as in heterodoxia, above, and words beginning with the rough breathing are usually transcribed into English with an initial h. Words beginning with a rho or an upsilon always have a rough breathing ($\dot{\upsilon} \pi \epsilon \rho$, hyper; $\dot{\rho} \epsilon \dot{\upsilon} \mu \alpha$, rheuma). The smooth breathing (') shows the absence of aspiration and so has no effect on pronunciation ($\dot{\alpha} \rho \omega \mu \alpha \tau \iota \kappa \delta \varsigma$, arōmatikos $\alpha \dot{\upsilon} \tau \circ \gamma \rho \dot{\alpha} \phi \circ \varsigma$, autographos).

The other conventions for transliterations from Greek are as follows: Gamma (γ) , which before gamma (γ) , kappa (κ) , chi (χ) , or xi (ξ) has the sound of n as in *finger*, is

transcribed as n.* Initial rho and its rough breathing $(\dot{\rho})$ are transcribed as rh, not hr, as rheuma, above; double rho $(\rho\rho)$ is transcribed as rrh $(\delta\iota\dot{\alpha}\rho\rho\sigma\iota\alpha$, diarrhoea, diarrhea). Upsilon (υ) is transcribed as y $(\dot{\rho}\upsilon\theta\mu\dot{\sigma}\varsigma, rhythmos)$ except in diphthongs, where it is reproduced by u $(\dot{\rho}\varepsilon\hat{\upsilon}\mu\alpha, rheuma)$.

A few Greek words have come into English unchanged (σκελετόν, skeleton; αὐτόματον, automaton); most Greek words have passed into English through Latin, undergoing slight change (Greek στέρνον, sternon; Latin sternum); and some Greek words have passed through a secondary intermediary language, such as French, with still further change (Greek χειρουργία, cheirourgia; Latin chirurgia; French cirurgerie; English surgery). Other changes are accounted for by our tendency to drop Greek and Latin inflectional endings (ἀξίωμα, axioma, becomes axiom; dorsalis becomes dorsal) or replace them with a final mute e as if the words had come into English through French (γονοφόρος, gonophoros, becomes gonophore; spina becomes spine).

Word Formation

The most frequent, the most important, and the seemingly most capricious changes in Greek or Latin words (or in English words, for that matter) arise not when the words pass from Greek or Latin into English, but when these words are first formed in the original language.

Many words in English and nearly all words in the Classical languages are combinations of roots and affixes. The root of a word contains the basic, lexical meaning, and the affixes give the root its shape as a word. (Affixes for the most part are prefixes and suffixes, including the inflections, added before or after the root, respectively.)

For example, in the English love, lover, lover, lovers, loving, loved, lovingly, unloved, and unlovable, the root is love, and the various prefixes (un-) and suffixes (-s, -r, -r-s, -ing, -ing-ly, etc.) form the root into a word and modify that word for use in an utterance.

In English a root may very often function as an independent word, as *love*, *hate*, *smile*, *frown*, *milk*; these "root words" are extremely rare in the Classical languages. Nearly always in Latin and Greek, and usually in English, a word is a complex consisting of a form of a root and one or more affixes, which are not independent words themselves but may be used only to modify the root in some way (as *un*-, -er, -ed); such words are called "derived words."

When the root remains unchanged from derived word to derived word (a "regular" or "weak" root) and the affixes remain unaffected in their surroundings, the entire system of derived words has a transparent, instantly comprehended simplicity, as in *love* and its forms. So in Latin and Greek: there is a systematic clarity to derivations of the Latin root *laud*- (praise)—the nouns *laudis* and *laudatory* (praise, praiser); the principal parts of the regular verb, *laudo* (I praise), *laudare* (to praise); and the adjectives

^{*}During World War II, Ancistrodon (from $\alpha\gamma\kappa\iota\sigma\tau\rho\sigma\nu$, fishhook, and $\delta\delta\sigma\nu\tau$ -, tooth) was reformed to Agkistrodon, which is the official spelling. Ancistrodon and Ankistrodon are both correct, but not Agkistrodon: Greek $\alpha\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda\sigma$ (messenger) becomes angelus in Latin and angel in English, not aggelus and aggel.

laudabilis and laudatorius (laudable, laudatory). There is also a regular system in the Greek root pau- (stop): the nouns pausis (pause) and paustēr (reliever, calmer); the regular principal parts of the verb pauō (I stop), pausō (I shall stop); and the adjectives pausteon (to be ended) and

paustērios (relieving, calming).

Difficulties arise in English, Latin, and Greek with roots that change from word to word ("irregular" or "strong" roots) as in the English sing, sang, sung, song; and one says singer, not songer; unsung, not unsing; and unsingable, not unsungable. One example will suffice. The root ten-(stretch) appears in Latin and Greek (and also in English in thin). In Latin the root is as regular as the English talk, and the derivations are obvious: tendo (tendon), tensio (tension), tenius (tenuous, thin), extenuatus (stretched out, thinned out, weakened). In Greek, however, the same root appears as ten-, tein-, ton-, ta-, tan-, and tain-. Indeed, the rules for ancient Greek word formation would make a heavy book, and therefore, for efficiency's sake, the analytical word list, which follows this essay, gives examples of which affixes are attached to which forms of the root, for both the methodical Latin and the exuberant Greek.

In the Latin system there is an inconsistency affecting many common Latin and therefore English words: Latin roots with short vowels will have the normal, strong vowel in simple, unprefixed words but a reduced, weakened vowel in prefixed words.

Consider the Latin root $f\ddot{a}c$ - (do, make). The normal \ddot{a} remains in unprefixed words; hence the principal parts of

the verb are:

făcio I make făcere to make făctus made

Other unprefixed derivatives are:

facies thing made or formed, face, "facies" factor factura as in manufacture faction factiosus factious doable, feasible, easy

From facil- are derived in turn:

facultat- faculty facilitat- facility

Now let us add the prefix ex to the root fac. Ex assimilates to ef- before f and changes the meaning of fac-to "complete." This or any prefix will cause a short \check{a} to become a short \check{i} before one consonant and a short \check{e} before two consonants. Note the changes in the principal parts of the prefixed verb:

efficio from exfacio efficere from exfacere effectus from exfactus

It is from words like *efficio* that one can most clearly understand the derivations of Latin words. One forms the present participle by dropping the final *-re* from the present active infinitive, which is the form used in the etymologies of *Dorland's*, and adding *-nt* (verbs like *efficio* drop the final *-ere* and add *-ient*). The present

participle of efficio, efficere is efficient- (efficient). And from the present participle is derived the noun efficientia (efficiency).

From the last principal part, *effectus*, one forms derivatives by dropping the *-us* and adding other suffixes. Thus from *effect-* one derives

effectumeffecteffectoreffectoreffectivuseffective

Occasionally the Romans would recompose a prefixed form according to the unprefixed norm. The most common example, and perfect for medical use, is *calefacio*, I warm, not *caleficio*, and therefore *calefacient*-, not *caleficient*-.

Alas, there are exceptions. Tenant comes to English not directly from the Latin tenēre, to hold, which would give us tenent, but through the French tenir, and in French all verbs form their present participles in -ant, therefore tenant; a locum tenens is a lieu tenant.

Assimilation may affect the consonants between roots and affixes. In English the v in drive and thrive becomes voiceless and changes to f before the voiceless suffix -t that forms the nouns drift and thrift. In Latin, assimilation is usually minimal and obvious: scribo ("I write") and scriba ("writer, scribe") alternate with scripsi ("I wrote") and scriptura ("writing, scripture"). Occasionally the assimilation between Latin roots, prefixes, and suffixes may cause enough distortion to result in confusion. Below are listed some common Latin prefixes (most of them are also used as prepositions) showing the assimilation of the prefix to the following element. Note that the prefix in- has two sources and hence two uses: as a spatial prefix meaning in, on, or into (inscribe, imbibe, illuminate, irradiate) and the antonymous prefix (insensitive, immature, illegible, irreverent).

Consonant Changes		English
ad-	before c becomes ac-	accelerate
ad-	before f becomes af-	<i>af</i> finity
ad-	before g becomes ag-	agglutinant
ad-	before p becomes ap-	<i>ap</i> pendix
ad-	before s becomes as-	<i>as</i> similate
ad-	before t becomes at-	<i>at</i> trition
ex-	before f becomes ef-	<i>ef</i> fusion
in-	before <i>l</i> becomes <i>il</i> -	<i>il</i> linition
in-	before m becomes im-	<i>im</i> mersion
in-	before r becomes ir-	<i>ir</i> radiation
ob-	before c becomes oc-	occlusion
sub-	before f becomes suf-	<i>suf</i> focate
sub-	before p becomes sup-	<i>sup</i> pository
trans-	before s becomes tran-	transpiration

In Greek, assimilation may cause drastic changes to a word, and the phonetic laws governing these assimilations are far beyond the limits of this Dictionary. Fortunately, however, Greek prefixes are fairly regular. Like Latin prefixes, they may also function as prepositions of motion or location. Most Greek prefixes end in a vowel, which is maintained when the following element begins with a consonant and is lost (elided) when that element begins with a vowel: for example, the iota in *epi* ("on, upon") is unchanged in *epi*demic and is elided before *o* in *epo*nychium ("cuticle"). When a Greek prefix ends in a

consonant and the following element begins with a consonant, assimilation takes place with results as in Latin: the nu (n) of syn ("with") changes in symphatheia and syllogismos (sympathy and syllogism). Note that the prevocalic prefix an- has two sources and therefore two uses: it is the spatial preposition ana ("up, back"), as in anabolism and anode; and it is the antonymous prefix a-, an-, as in atheist and anodyne, coming from the same source as Latin and English antonymous prefixes in- and un-.

Below are listed some common Greek prefixes with examples of elision and assimilation.

Preposition	Combining Forms	English
amphi	amphi-	amphicrania
	amph-	ampheclexis
ana	ana-	<i>ana</i> bolism
	an-	<i>an</i> ode
anti	anti-	<i>anti</i> gen
	ant-	anthelminthic
apo	apo-	apophysis
•	ap-	<i>a</i> pandria
dia	dia-	<i>dia</i> thermy
	di-	diuretic
ek	ek-	<i>ec</i> topia
ex	ex-	exosmosis
en	en-	enostosis
	em-	<i>em</i> bolus
epi	epi-	<i>epi</i> nephrine
•	ep-	<i>ep</i> arterial
hyper	hyper-	<i>hypertr</i> ophy
hypo	hypo-	<i>bypo</i> dermic
71	hyp-	hypaxial
kata	kata-	catalepsy
	kat-	cation
meta	meta-	<i>meta</i> morphosis
	met-	<i>met</i> encephalon
para	para-	<i>para</i> mastoid
•	par-	<i>par</i> otid
peri	peri-	<i>peri</i> toneum
pro	pro-	prognosis
syn	syn-	<i>syn</i> thesis
*	sym-	symphysis
	syl-	<i>syl</i> lepsis
	sy-	systole

Many Latin suffixes have been naturalized in English for centuries, and little comment is needed on their morphology and use. Some common suffixes of particular use in medicine are listed below with their English derivatives. Note that the suffixes -abilis and -alis/-aris are attached to verb stems of the first conjugation (the infinitives end in -āre, as in laudāre to praise); and -ibilis and -ilis are used with the other conjugations (vidēre, visibilis; legĕre, legibilis; audīre, audibilis).

Latin components	English
avis + -arium dormio (dormitus) + -orium	avi <i>ary</i> dormit <i>ory</i>
nutrio (nutritus) + -io	nutrit <i>ion</i>
moveo (motus) + -or	mot <i>or</i>
porosus + -tas	porosi <i>t</i> y
frio + -abilis	fri <i>able</i>
edo + -ibilis	ed <i>ible</i>
corpus (corporis) + -alis	corpor <i>al</i>

febris + -ilis	febr <i>ile</i>
oculus + -aris	ocul <i>ar</i>
cilium + -arius	cili <i>ary</i>
sensus + -orius	sens <i>ory</i>
reticulum + -atus	reticul <i>ate</i>
morbus + -idus	morb <i>id</i>
aborior (abortus) + -ivus	abort <i>ive</i>
squama + -osus	squam <i>ous</i>
adeps (adipis) + -osus	adip <i>ose</i>
prae + caveo (cautus) + -io + -arius	precautionary

Greek suffixes in general have not been naturalized in English as the Latin have, with spectacular exception of the family of suffixes represented by verbs in -izō (-ize), agent nouns in -istēs (-ist), and verbal nouns in -ismos (-ism).

So far we have examined the various forms of roots, root words, and derived words; only compound words remain. A compound word is one formed from two (or more) independent words, the first word modifying, dependent upon, or being object of the next. In English, housewife, kidney transplant, salesman, schoolboy, store-bought, backbreaking, and anteater are compound words. In English the individual elements undergo little if any change from their basic, lexical forms but remain isolated, as it were, and receive their new meaning solely from juxtaposition (an example is the difference between house guest and guest house).

The conditions are vastly different in Latin and Greek; in the Classical languages one must use so-called combining forms of substantives (i.e., nouns and adjectives including past participles) that are often considerably different from the lexical forms.

In Latin all native compound words ordinarily will consist of the stem of the first word; then the connecting vowel, usually -i-, sometimes -u-; then the stem of the second word; then the inflection: magn-i-ficient-ia, magnificientia, magnificence. In science there are many compounds like dorsoradial and frenosecretory with Latin words and Greek connecting vowels; the true Latin forms for such compounds would be dorsiradialis and frenisecretorius.

In Greek the rules for forming compound words are much more complicated. If the first substantive of a Greek compound ends in -a (but not -ma) or $-\bar{e}$, one nearly always changes that vowel to -o:

 $gl\bar{o}ssa$, tongue $+pt\bar{o}sis$, fall = glossoptosis $ph\bar{o}n\bar{e}$, voice, sound +logos, word, reason, study = $ph\bar{o}n$ -ologia, phonology

Substantives ending in -on, -os, or -ys usually drop the final consonant and leave the vowel unchanged:

osteon, bone + arthritis, gout (first appears in Hippocrates) = osteoarthritis

myelos, marrow + poiēsis, production = myelopoiesis pachys, thick + derma, skin = pachydermia (first appears in Hippocrates)

If the second element begins with a vowel, one merely drops the final -a or $-\bar{e}$ from the first element without adding -o:

archē, beginning, chief, rule + enteron, intestine = archenteron

bradys, slow, dull + akusis, hearing = bradyacousia

There are exceptions:

idea, idea + logos = ideology is regular,

genea, family, lineage + logos = genealogia, genealogy is irregular, as are

architekton not archotekton, architect archetypos not archotypos, archetype

Indeed the regular archo- is extremely rare compared with arche- and archi- and is therefore "irregular."

Forming compounds from other substantives is complicated by the fact that one cannot generally predict the combining form of a substantive from the lexical entry, and in fact one usually predicts the lexical entry from the combining form, not vice versa.

In Greek, substantives ending in -ma have a stem or combining form in -mat-; so haima (blood), haimat- and

poiēsis (making, "poesy") make haimatopoiēsis, hematopoiesis. But Hippocrates himself uses haimorrhagia, hemorrhage, not haimatorrhagia. And no one could predict from the nominative gynē (woman), which looks like a regular noun, a combining form gynaik-, whence gynecology; or from gala (milk), galakt-, whence galactophorous.

Latin is not so irregular, but even so *lac* (milk) has a combining stem *lact*- (lactacidemia); *cor* (heart), one in *cord*- (cordial); *miles* (soldier), *milit*- (military); *rex* (king), *reg*- (regicide); *nomen* (name), *nomin*- (nominate). The combining form of *homo* (human being, man) is *homin*- (hominoid ape), but Cicero himself uses *homicida* (murderer, homicide), not *hominicida*.

Stems Used in Medical Etymology

For a list of Greek and Latin stems in medical terminology, see Appendix 1 on page 2083.

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