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A Supplement to
**Webster's
Third New
International
Dictionary**

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A dictionary of new English. Over 12,000 words and meanings that have become firmly established in the language since the publication of Webster's Third New International Dictionary.

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A Supplement to
Webster's Third
New International Dictionary



A Merriam-Webster®
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Preface

A dictionary begins to go out-of-date as soon as it is published. When Webster's Third New International Dictionary appeared in 1961, it provided as complete a coverage of contemporary American English as was then available. But the editing of the Third had begun more than a decade earlier; the language did not stand still during the editing, nor has it since. To try to keep abreast of the living language, Merriam-Webster editors added an eight-page Addenda Section to Webster's Third in 1966, increased it to sixteen pages in 1971, to thirty-two in 1976, to forty-eight in 1981, and to fifty-six in 1986.

The Addenda Section serves two purposes: to record as many as space will permit of the new words and meanings that have become established since Webster's Third was edited and to enter those older words that for various reasons had been passed over in the earlier editing. 12,000 Words is simply the most recent Addenda Section of Webster's Third New International Dictionary without any difference from what appears in Webster's Third except larger type. Like the Addenda Section, moreover, 12,000 Words cannot be self-contained; the reader will find it necessary to consult another dictionary for terms—especially technical terms—which are unfamiliar. Every word used in 12,000 Words can be found in Webster's Third or in 12,000 Words; most can be found in a good desk dictionary like Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary.

In order to get such satisfaction and pleasure as a dictionary affords, one must learn how to use it—that is, how to interpret the information contained in each entry. This knowledge involves mainly an ability to recognize different typefaces, a number of abbreviations that occur over and over, and a few traditional dictionary devices. Every reader is therefore urged to read the Explanatory Notes that follow this preface carefully. They contain, in brief form, the essential information given in the corresponding section of Webster's Third. After these the reader will find an informative section on the recent growth of English vocabulary, the fields which yield new words, the processes of word-formation, and the means by which Merriam-Webster editors record and define new words and meanings, then a list of pronunciation symbols and a list of abbreviations.

In addition to the contributions of the present members of the staff, listed below, those of former staff member Kara L. Noble deserve acknowledgment.

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Explanatory Notes

NOTE: In all but a few minor respects (as the use of the asterisk and the word *herein*) the policies and styles embodied in this dictionary are exactly the same as those of its parent, Webster's Third New International Dictionary. Consequently, these notes repeat much of what is said in the Explanatory Notes of Webster's Third. They have been kept as brief as possible, but it is believed that they will answer all the questions a user is likely to have in the normal course of trying to find and make use of the information in this book. If occasionally more detail is needed, however, it should be sought in the Explanatory Notes, Guide to Pronunciation, and other parts of the front matter of Webster's Third.

Entries

A boldface letter or a combination of such letters set flush with the left-hand margin of each column of type is a main entry. The main entry may consist of letters set solid (as **anchorperson**), of letters joined by a hyphen (as **pro-life**), or of letters separated by one or more spaces (as **quick fix**).

The main entries follow one another in alphabetical order letter by letter. Those containing an Arabic numeral are alphabetized as if the numeral were spelled out. Entry words beginning with abbreviated forms of *Mac-* (as **mcluhanesque**) are alphabetized as if spelled *mac-*. Entries often beginning with *St.* in common usage have the abbreviation spelled out *saint* (as **saint emilion**).

A main entry marked with an asterisk (as **bad***) is not a new word, but a new sense of a word already entered in Webster's Third New International Dictionary. A main entry marked with two asterisks (as **callback****) is also a sense of a word entered in Webster's Third, but the entry in this dictionary differs in form (as the style of compounding or the presence or absence of an accent mark) from the entry in the Third.

When one new main entry has exactly the same written form as another, the two are distinguished by superscript numerals preceding each word (as **¹photochromic** *adj* and **²photochromic** *n*). Main entries marked with asterisks are not given such superscript numerals. The order of homographs is usually historical: the one first used in English, insofar as the dates can be established, is entered first.

The centered periods within entry words indicate points at which a hyphen may be put at the end of a line of print or writing. They are not shown at the second and succeeding homographs of a word or for asterisked entries. There are acceptable alternative end-of-line divisions just as there are acceptable variant spellings and pronunciations, but for reasons of space no more than one division is shown for any entry in this dictionary. Centered periods are not given here for asterisked entries or for parts of solid, hyphenated, or open compounds that are entered in the body of Webster's Third. Division points for such forms can be found there.

A double hyphen = at the end of a line in this dictionary stands for a hyphen that belongs at that point in a hyphenated word and that is retained when the word is written as a unit on one line.

When a main entry is followed by the word *or* and another form (as **flextime** *or* **flexitime**), the two forms are equal variants. Both are standard, and either one may be used according to personal inclination. When another form is joined to the main entry by the word *also* (as **thruster** *also* **thruster***), the form after *also* is a secondary variant and occurs less frequently than the first. Secondary variants belong to standard usage and may be used according to personal inclination. If there are two secondary variants, the second is joined to the first by *or* (as **maven** *also* **mavin** *or* **mayvin**).

Variants whose spelling puts them alphabetically more than a column away from the main entry are entered at their own alphabetical places (as **lite** *var of* **LIGHT** *herein*).

A main entry may be followed by one or more words (as **cablecast** *n* and **cablecaster** *n* at **cablecast** *vt*) derived from it by the addition of a suffix or by a change of grammatical function. These are run-on entries. Each is introduced by a lightface dash and each has a functional label. They are not defined, however, since their meanings can readily be derived from the meaning of the root word.

A few main entries may be followed by one or more phrases (as **get one's act together** and **get on the stick** at **get***) containing the entry word or an inflected form of it. These are also run-on entries. Each is introduced by a lightface dash but there is no functional label. They are, however, defined since their meanings are more than the sum of the meanings of their elements.

Boldface words that appear within parentheses (as **Yayoi ware** at **yayoi**) are run-in entries. They are related to the entry word in an obvious way and their meaning should be clear from the context in which they occur.

Pronunciation

The matter between a pair of reversed virgules \ \ following the entry word indicates the pronunciation. The symbols used are explained in the chart printed on pages 22a and 23a.

Pronunciations are shown for most entries in this book, though two important groups are exceptions. Entries with asterisks have their pronunciations shown in Webster's Third, and so none are shown for them in this book. Similarly, open compounds consisting entirely of words entered in the body of Webster's Third have no pronunciations here. However, a pronunciation is shown for any element of an open compound that is not entered in the body of Webster's Third, e.g., **alfvén wave** \;al(f)ˈvān-, -ven-\.

All the pronunciation variants shown for entries or parts of entries may be considered acceptable in educated English speech. Variation in pronunciation falls into two main categories, predictable and unpredictable. Predictable variants are those for which one speaker's pronunciation differs from another's because their dialects or speech patterns are different. This type of variation may be predicted from the speaker's pronunciation of other words. One type of predictable variation often recorded in this book is the so-called "loss" of \r\ before a consonant or pause in the speech of many Americans from New England, New York City, and much of the South and in that of most southern British speakers. Unpredictable variation, on the other hand, may occur in any dialect, and there is no certain way of telling from a speaker's treatment of other words which variant he might use for a particular utterance of a word with unpredictable variants. For instance, some speakers put more stress on the first syllable of **academese** than on the second; others stress the second syllable more than the first. The order of pronunciation variants in this book does not mean that the first is to be preferred over the second or even that it is necessarily more frequent; of two equally common variants one must be printed before the other. Variants preceded by *also* are appreciably less frequent than unlabeled variants, and those preceded by *sometimes* are infrequent; however, no variant with either of these labels should be considered unacceptable simply on the basis of relative infrequency.

Entries labeled *abbr* are not normally given a pronunciation respelling in this work; the pronunciation may be assumed to be that of its individual constituent letters: **VLSI** *abbr*, **CPR** *abbr*. However, abbreviations are given a pronunciation respelling if evidence of a pronunciation other than that of the constituent letters appears in the Merriam-Webster pronunciation files: **GIGO** \ˈgī,gō, ˈgē- \ *abbr*, **TEFL** \ˈtɛfəl \ *abbr*. For these it can be assumed that some people may pronounce the constituent letters, even though such a pronunciation is not shown. Some abbreviations are not initialisms

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but are shortened forms of words or parts of words. Many of these are automatically expanded in speech; for instance, **kbar** is probably most often pronounced like **kilo-bar**, though it may possibly also be pronounced in a way analogous to the pronunciation of the noun **krad** \ˈkär,rad\. In entries of this class no pronunciation is shown unless evidence appears in our pronunciation files.

Words of foreign origin whose pronunciations have not been anglicized are shown with a transcription approximating the pronunciation of the original language. Some French pronunciations in this book indicate greater duration by doubling the appropriate vowel symbol, as at **dacquoise** \däkwaáz\ and **fièvre boutonneuse** \fyeevr˘ biütónæez\. Similarly, consonantal lengthening or gemination in Italian pronunciations is indicated by doubling the appropriate consonant symbol, as at **agnolotti** \,ányəˈlötté\.

The following devices are used in the pronunciation transcriptions in addition to the character symbols:

\, ;\ A comma separates pronunciation variants, e.g., **sandinista** \,sandaˈnēstə, sän-. A semicolon separates groups of variants, as at **medullin** \məˈdələn, me-ˈmedʰl-, ˈmejəl- where the variants transcribed in full would be \məˈdələn, meˈdələn, ˈmedʰlən, ˈmejələn\.

\(), (\ Parentheses indicate that the enclosed symbols are present in some utterances and not in others; for example, \ˈp(y)ülə\ indicates two pronunciation variants for **pula**, \ˈpyülə\ and \ˈpülə\. In entries such as **lekvar** \ˈlek,vär, -vä(r\ where the pronunciation of so-called “r-droppers” is distinguished from that of “r-keepers,” \ˈ(r\ with no closing parenthesis indicates that the r-dropper may pronounce the \ˈr\ when a vowel initial word or suffix follows without pause.

\- A hyphen is used at the beginning or end of a pronunciation respelling to show that not all of the boldface entry is transcribed. The missing part may be supplied from another entry, from a preceding variant within the same pair of reversed virgules, or from the pronunciation of a common word which is not entered separately in this dictionary but may be found in the body of Webster’s Third.

\', \', \ Three levels of stress are indicated in this dictionary: primary stress \ˈ\ as in **kir** \ˈki(ə)r\, secondary stress \, as in the first syllable of **langoustine** \,langəˈstēn\, and no stress at all, as in the second syllable of **signage** \ˈsinij\. The stress marks stacked together \', \', \ mean “either \ˈ\ or \, \.” Items with a stress pattern like that of **afatoxin** \,afləˈtäksən\ should be interpreted as indicating that when one of the stressed syllables has primary stress the other has secondary, or that both may have secondary stress, as is common in running speech for adjectives and even nouns in attributive position where the primary stress may fall on the word being modified. Thus the transcription for **afatoxin** represents \,afləˈtäksən, ˈafləˈtäksən, ,afləˈtäksən\. The occurrence of \(' on the first syllable and of \', \ on a later syllable indicates that in some contexts the first syllable has little or no stress and the later syllable has primary stress but that in other contexts the first syllable has primary stress and the later syllable has secondary stress, e.g., **hydronautics** \('hīdrəˈnód-iks\. Stress is especially variable in compounds, depending on context, emphasis, and personal preference. Fully French pronunciations are shown without any stress marks, as in the usual practice of transcribers of French. Heaviest stress generally falls on the last syllable of French words pronounced in isolation, though no such precise rule can be given for French pronunciation in running speech. The placement of stress marks in this book is not intended to indicate syllable division; see the section on \. \ below.

\- The low-set minus sign cancels a stress at the same point in a pronunciation shown elsewhere, as in a preceding variant or in a pronunciation for a preceding entry, e.g., **dopamine** \ˈdöpə,mēn, -mən\ and **planetology** \,planəˈtäləjē\ . . . — **planetological** \-tˈlˈäjəkəl\.

\·\ Syllable division is not regularly indicated in the pronunciation transcriptions. However, we have found it desirable to indicate what we will here call syllable division in some cases where confusion might arise otherwise. This is shown by the use of a centered period \·\. It occurs, for instance, between the third and fourth syllables of the plural of **corpus allatum**, **corpora allata** \kɔrpəɹə·ə'lād·ə, . . . \, to indicate that the two adjacent vowels are in separate syllables. In the entry **fortran** \'fɔɹ·,trən\ the centered period indicates that the variety of \t\ used in this word is that heard at the beginning of a word or syllable as in *tan* or *train*, and not that heard at the end of a word or syllable as in *foot* or *fort*. That is to say, the centered period shows that the *tr* in **fortran** is pronounced as in *four transoms*, not as in *Fort Ransom*. The centered period following the character in the symbol \d·\ is not meant to represent syllable division. The use of this symbol is explained in some detail in the Pronunciation Guide to Webster's Third. \d·\ should be thought of as a single character representing a sound heard in the speech of most Americans in both *madder* and *matter*.

\| The lightface vertical bar is used occasionally to assist understanding of variant pronunciations. It is placed just before or just after a variation to serve as a point of reference. In the entry **zuppa inglese** \tsüpə·in'glä|(),zā, 'zü, -in'g-, |(),sā, |sē, |zē\ the vertical bar appears before each of the four variant final syllables of the compound. This device makes it possible to show economically a number of variant pronunciations for *zuppa inglese*.

\= A slanted double hyphen is used frequently in this book to represent all the sounds of a syllable. The syllable or syllables to be supplied may be those of a preceding entry but more often are those of an entry in the body of Webster's Third. An example of the first kind is **saluretic** \salyə'red·ik\ *n* . . . — **saluretic** \!s!s!s!s\ *adj*. An example of the second kind is **one-up** \!s!s!s!s\ Solid or hyphenated compounds whose parts are entered in Webster's Third are typically represented in this dictionary by a combination of slanted double hyphens and stress marks.

\“ A ditto mark in a pronunciation stands for the sounds of the nearest preceding pronounced entry. The pronunciation of **macho** \“\ is thus the same as that of **macho** \mä(),chō\.

\+ When a word is composed of a combining form or prefix and a whole English word, the pronunciation often consists of a transcription of the first part followed by a plus sign. The plus sign means that the sounds for the second element will be found at the entry for that word in Webster's Third. If other compounds with the same first element follow, their pronunciation may be shown by a ditto mark followed by a plus sign, e.g., **bioenvironmental** \biō + \, **bioethics** \“ + \, **biofeedback** \“ + \. The plus sign also appears in the formula “+V,” which means “when a vowel sound follows without a pause,” e.g., **watergate** \'wɔd·ə(r)gāt, 'wä, |tə(-, usu -äd· + V\.

\R, -R The first of these symbols indicates the pronunciation of speakers who consistently pronounce postvocalic \r\; the second indicates the pronunciation of speakers who consistently have no \r\ sound where educated usage sanctions its absence, e.g., **martin luther king day** \R ,mɑrt'n,lüthər'kiŋ-, -R ,mɑt'n,lüthə'k-\.

\... The three-dot ellipsis is sometimes used after a plus sign to stand for the second part of a three-part compound of which the first two parts form a solid unit. In this use it is a space-saving device, and the part represented by the ellipsis will be found at its own place in Webster's Third. Thus, in the pronunciation shown at **para influenza virus** \'parə + ...-, the dots stand for \,in,flü'enzə\, found at **influenza** in Webster's Third.

\÷ The symbol \÷\ preceding a variant indicates that although the variant

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occurs in educated speech many people consider it unacceptable, e.g., the variant \ ÷ -kyələ,riz\ at the entry for **denuclearize**.

Functional Labels

An italic label indicating a part of speech or some other functional classification follows the pronunciation or, if no pronunciation is given, the main entry. The eight traditional parts of speech are abbreviated thus: *adj* (adjective), *adv* (adverb), *conj* (conjunction), *interj* (interjection), *n* (noun), *prep* (preposition), *pron* (pronoun), *vb* (verb).

Other italicized labels used to indicate functional classifications that are not traditional parts of speech include these: *vi* (verb intransitive), *vt* (verb transitive), *abbr* (abbreviation), *comb form* (combining form), *prefix*, *service mark*, *suffix*, *symbol*, *trademark*. Functional labels are sometimes combined.

In entries for verbs that have both transitive and intransitive uses, a boldface swung dash ~ appears before the second functional label to stand for the boldface entry word (as **²shuck** . . . *vi* . . . ~ *vt* . . .).

Inflected Forms

NOUNS

The plurals of nouns are shown in full in this dictionary when the noun has an irregular plural or a zero plural (i.e., one whose form is unchanged from the singular) or a foreign plural, when the noun is a compound that pluralizes any element but the last, when the noun has variant plurals, and when it is believed that the dictionary user might have reasonable doubts about the spelling of the plural.

dong . . . *n*, *pl* **dong**
granum . . . *n*, *pl* **grana**
prelate nullius . . . *n*, *pl* **prelates nullius**
halala . . . *n*, *pl* **halala** or **halalas**
bialy . . . *n*, *pl* **bialys**
goofy-foot . . . *n*, *pl* **goofy-foots**

A noun that has only a regular English plural has its plural indicated by the suffixal cross-reference -s or -es following the label *n*. Asterisked entries and compounds whose final element is regular and is entered in Webster's Third have no plural shown in this dictionary.

Nouns that are plural in form and that regularly occur in plural construction are labeled *n pl* (as **granny glasses** *n pl*). Nouns that are plural in form but that do not always take a plural verb are appropriately labeled:

cliometrics . . . *n pl* but *sing in constr*
cardiodynamics . . . *n pl* but *sing or pl in constr*

VERBS

The principal parts of verbs are shown in full in this dictionary when suffixation brings about a doubling of a final consonant, when the inflection is irregular, when

there are variant inflected forms, when it is desirable to show the pronunciation of one of the inflected forms, and when it is believed that the dictionary user might have reasonable doubts about the spelling of an inflected form.

²rap . . . *vt* **rapped; rapped; rapping; raps**
epoxy . . . *vt* **epoxied or epoxyed; epoxied or epoxyed; epoxy-**
ing; epoxies
beaver . . . *vi* **beavered; beavered; beavered; beavered; bea-**
vers
yo-yo . . . *vi* **yo-yoed; yo-yoed; yo-yoing; yo-yos**

Verbs that have only regular inflected forms (including those whose past-tense formation involves dropping a final *-e* or changing a final *-y* to *-i-*) have their inflected forms indicated by the suffixal cross-reference *-ED/-ING/-S* or *-ED/-ING/-ES* following the functional label. Asterisked entries and compounds whose final element is regular and is entered in Webster's Third have no inflected forms shown in this dictionary.

If one or more inflected forms cannot be recorded for lack of evidence, the ones recorded are identified with italic labels (as **²MIRV** . . . *vb, past or past part MIRVed; pres part MIRVing*).

ADJECTIVES & ADVERBS

The comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs are shown in full in this dictionary when suffixation brings about a doubling of a final consonant, when the inflection is irregular, when there are variant inflected forms, and when it is believed that a dictionary user might have reasonable doubts about the spelling of an inflected form.

bad* *adj* **badder; baddest**
dicey . . . *adj* **dicier; diciest**
dyke or **dike** . . . *n* . . . — **dykey** or **dikey** . . . *adj* **dykier or**
dikier; dykiest or dikiest
kooky also **kookie** . . . *adj* **kookier; kookiest**

Adjectives and adverbs that have only regular inflected forms have their inflected forms indicated by the suffixal cross-reference *-ER/-EST* following the functional label. Asterisked entries and compounds whose final element is regular and is entered in Webster's Third do not have their comparative and superlative forms shown in this dictionary.

The inclusion of inflected forms in *-er* and *-est* at adjective and adverb entries does not mean that *more* and *most* cannot be used with these adjectives and adverbs; their comparative and superlative degrees may be expressed in either way.

Inflected forms whose spelling puts them alphabetically more than a column away from the main entry are also entered at their own alphabetical places (as **makuta** *pl* of **LIKUTA** *herein*).

Capitalization

Most of the entries in this dictionary are set entirely lowercase. Exceptions are trademarks and service marks, some abbreviations and symbols, and some words (as nouns and verbs) derived from such abbreviations.

Dumpster . . . *trademark*
CAD *abbr*

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Lr symbol
MIA . . . n
²OD . . . vi

For lowercase entries the extent to which usage calls for an initial uppercase letter is indicated by one of four italic labels.

cap = almost always capitalized initially
usu cap = more often capitalized than not; capitalized approximately two to one
often cap = as likely to be capitalized as not; acceptable one way or the other
sometimes cap = more often not capitalized than capitalized; not usually capitalized

Absence of a label and of an initial capital indicates that the word is almost never capitalized except under irrelevant circumstances (as beginning a sentence).

yinglish . . . n . . . *cap*
mahlerian . . . adj, *usu cap*
verdicchio . . . n . . . *often cap*
tabbouleh . . . n . . . *sometimes cap*
freebase . . . vb

When an entry has more than one letter in question, the label specifies the capitalization indicated by usage.

steak diane . . . n, *usu cap D*
creutzfeld-jacob disease . . . n, *usu cap C & J*
zip code . . . n, *often cap Z & I & P*
totten trust . . . n, *usu cap 1st T*

For a word that is capitalized in some senses and lowercase in others, variation from the form of the main entry is shown by the use of an italicized label at the appropriate sense (as **kwanza** . . . n . . . **3** *usu cap*).

Etymology

The matter in square brackets preceding the definition is the etymology. Meanings given in roman type within these brackets are not definitions of the entry, but are meanings of the italicized words within the brackets.

The etymology gives the language from which a word borrowed into English has come. It also gives the form or a transliteration of the word in that language, if the form in that language differs from that in English.

Many abbreviations are used in etymologies. Their meanings will be found in "Abbreviations in This Work" on page 24a.

Whenever a language name appears in an etymology without an expressed form or without an expressed meaning, the form or meaning of the etymon in that language is the same as that of the word immediately preceding. If a language name which begins an etymology has no expressed form or meaning, the form of the word in that language is the same as the form of the entry word, or the meaning is the same as that of the first definition of the entry. When an italicized word appears in an etymology with no language label, that word belongs to the same language as the word immediately preceding.

ekistics . . . *n pl but sing in constr* [NGk *oikistikē*, fr. fem. of *oikistikos* relating to settlement, fr. Gk, fr. *oikizein* to settle, colonize, fr. *oikos* house . . .]

In the example above, the unglossed New Greek noun *oikistikē* has the same meaning as that defined for the entry word **ekistics**; the unlabeled adjective *oikistikos* is, like *oikistikē*, a New Greek word; the unspecified Greek word from which New Greek *oikistikos* descended was also spelled *oikistikos*; and the unlabeled words *oikizein* and *oikos* are both Greek.

When no language label at all appears ahead of a word, it is assumed to be English. English words that are entered in the body of Webster's Third are not specially marked when they appear in an etymology, but those that are entries in this book are followed by "(herein)." Superscript numbers preceding forms in an etymology identify them in each case as a numbered homographic entry in Webster's Third or, if followed by "(herein)," in this book. Such numbers are normally used with unlabeled (Modern English) forms; but sometimes, for convenience, they are used with forms that are labeled (as with ISV or NL), provided these are identical in spelling with the corresponding Modern English form.

reverse transcriptase . . . *n* [*transcription* (herein) + *-ase*]

brushback . . . *n* . . . [⁶*brush* + *back*]

high-riser . . . *n* . . . [¹*high-rise* (herein) + ²*-er*]

graviton . . . *n* . . . [ISV *gravity* + ²*on*]

Small superscript numerals following words or syllables in an etymology refer to the tone of the word or syllable which they follow. They are, therefore, used only with forms cited from tone languages, e.g., **chiao** . . . *n* . . . [Chin (Pek) *chiao*³].

An etymology is often not given for a word formed in English especially by compounding of free forms. Such an absence indicates that the etymology is expected to be self-evident. When the source of a word is not known, the formula "origin unknown" is used.

At some entries an etymology gives cognates from other Indo-European languages. Such cognates are introduced by the phrase "akin to." A special application of this phrase occurs when it is preceded by the name of a group of languages rather than the name of a particular language and a form from that language. Then it indicates that a word was borrowed from some language belonging to the indicated group but that it is not possible to say with confidence that the word in question is a borrowing of a particular attested word in a particular language of the group. The words following "akin to" are, in this situation, attested cognates of the word in question. Considerations of space preclude a full display of cognates at every possible entry; usually the reader is directed by a "more at" cross-reference to an entry in the body of Webster's Third where such a full display of cognates is given.

spiedino . . . *n* . . . [It, lit., skewer, fr. *spiedo* spit, spear, fr. OF *espiet* lance, fr. (assumed) Frankish *speut* lance; akin to G *spies* spit, Sp *espeto* skewer . . .]

kalimba . . . *n* . . . [of African origin; akin to Bemba *akalimba* zanza, Kimbundu *marimba* xylophone]

circadian . . . *adj* [L *circa* about + *dies* day + E *-an* — more at CIRCA, DEITY]

Usage

Two types of status labels are used in this dictionary—regional and stylistic—to signal that a word or a sense of a word is not part of the standard vocabulary of English.

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A word or sense limited in use to one of the other countries of the English-speaking world has an appropriate regional label:

shortlist . . . *vt* . . . *Brit*

The stylistic label *slang* is used with words or senses that are especially appropriate in contexts of extreme informality:

ralph . . . *vb* . . . *slang*

There is no satisfactory objective test for slang, especially with reference to a word out of context. No word, in fact, is invariably slang, and many standard words can be given slang applications.

When the application of a word or sense is very limited, the definition may be preceded by an italic guide phrase that points out the limitation:

scramble* *vi, of a football quarterback*

Definitions are sometimes followed by usage notes that give supplementary information about such matters as idiom, syntax, and semantic relationship. A usage note is introduced by a lightface dash:

factor* . . . *vt* . . . — used with *in* or *into*

mao . . . *adj* . . . — usu. used of a jacket

sweep* *n* . . . — usu. used in pl.

Definitions are frequently followed by illustrative quotations and verbal illustrations that show a typical use of the word in context. These illustrations are enclosed in angle brackets, and the word being illustrated is either represented by a lightface swung dash (to which an italicized suffix may be added) or is spelled out in italics.

bit-mapped . . . *adj* : being or produced on a computer display in which each pixel of the display is controlled by a bit in the computer's memory (*bit-mapped* graphics)

giveback . . . *n* . . . : a previous gain (as an increase in wages or benefits) given back to management by workers (as in a labor contract) <union workers . . . agreed to ~s to avoid layoffs—Lawrence Ingrassia>

Definitions

A boldface colon is used in this dictionary to introduce a definition; it is also used to separate two or more definitions of a single sense. If there is no boldface colon, there is no definition. At some entries a usage note may take the place of a definition:

gangle . . . *vi* . . . : to walk or move with or as if with a loose-jointed gait : move like a gangling person

no way . . . *adv* — used interjectionally to express emphatic negation

Boldface Arabic numerals separate the senses of a word that has more than one sense, boldface letters separate subsenses, and lightface numbers in parentheses indicate further division of subsenses.

A particular semantic relationship between meanings is sometimes suggested by the use of one of the italic sense dividers *esp.*, *specif.*, *also*, or *broadly*.

The sense divider *esp* (for *especially*) is used to introduce the most common meaning included in the more general preceding definition. The sense divider *specif* (for *specifically*) is used to introduce a common but highly restricted meaning subsumed in the more general preceding sense.

The sense divider *also* is used to introduce a meaning that is closely related to the preceding sense but that may be considered less important. The sense divider *broadly* is used to introduce an extended or wider meaning of the preceding definition.

lander* *n* : one that lands; *esp* : a space vehicle that is designed to land on a celestial body (as the moon or a planet)

vital signs *n pl* : signs of life; *specif* : the pulse rate, respiratory rate, body temperature, and sometimes blood pressure of a person

dreamscape . . . *n* . . . : a dreamlike usu. surrealistic scene . . . ; *also* : a painting of a dreamscape

hang-up* *n* : a source of mental or emotional difficulty; *broadly* : PROBLEM

The order of senses is basically historical: the sense our evidence shows to have been first used in English is usually entered first.

When an italicized label follows a boldface numeral, the label applies only to that specific numbered sense. It does not apply to any other boldface numbered senses. Thus, only the first sense of **clean*** *adj* is slang; the second and third senses are standard.

Cross-References

Five different kinds of cross-references are used in this dictionary: directional, synonymous, cognate, inflectional, and suffixal. Suffixal cross-references are discussed in the section on Inflected Forms above. In each instance a cross-reference is readily recognized by the lightface small capitals in which it is printed. In most cases the occurrence of small capitals refers the reader to an entry in Webster's Third. A cross-reference followed by the word *herein* in italics, however, refers the reader to an entry in this dictionary.

A cross-reference following a lightface dash and beginning with either *compare* or *see* is a directional cross-reference. It directs the dictionary user to look elsewhere for further information.

plateglass . . . *adj* . . . —compare OXBRIDGE *herein*, REDBRICK *herein*

ekuele . . . *n* . . . 1 . . . —see MONEY table in the Dict

A cross-reference following a boldface colon is a synonymous cross-reference:

triple jump *n* : HOP, STEP, AND JUMP

apocynthion . . . *n* . . . : APOLUNE *herein*

A synonymous cross-reference indicates that a definition at the entry cross-referred to can be substituted as a definition for the entry or the sense in which the cross-reference appears. A lightface numeral following a synonymous cross-reference refers to a sense number at the entry cross-referred to. A superscript numeral preceding a synonymous cross-reference refers to a numbered homographic entry.

genetic map *n* : MAP 1 *herein*

flak* *n* . . . 3 : ³FLACK

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A synonymous cross-reference sometimes accounts for a usage note introduced by "called also" at the entry cross-referred to.

spin wave *n* : . . . —called also *magnon*
magnon . . . *n* . . . : SPIN WAVE *herein*

A cross-reference following an italic label that identifies an entry as an inflected form is an inflectional cross-reference, e.g., **maloti** *pl* of LOTI *herein*.

Abbreviations & Symbols

Abbreviations and symbols are included as main entries in the vocabulary. What follows is an expansion rather than a definition. No boldface colon is used. If the expansion is followed by the word "herein" in italics, the expansion is also an entry in the vocabulary of this book.

ICU *abbr* intensive care unit
p* *symbol* 1 momentum of a particle . . .
EER *abbr* energy efficiency ratio *herein*

Abbreviations have been normalized to one form. In practice, however, there is considerable variation in the use of periods and in capitalization (as *bpi*, *b.p.i.*, *BPI*, *B.P.I.*), and stylings other than those given in this dictionary are often acceptable.

The Recent Growth of English Vocabulary

The vocabulary of English, like that of every other living language, is constantly growing. This growth is certainly not new. Always, as people have met with new objects and new experiences and have developed new ideas, they have needed new words to describe them. New words and new meanings for old words are the reason for this book. In the sections that follow, we will indicate some of the areas that produce new words, the ways in which new words are formed, and how new words get into the dictionary.

Where Do They All Come From?

Science and technology are probably the most prolific providers of new words today. Most spectacularly, perhaps, they have combined to make possible the flights of *space shuttles*, to take men to the moon and bring them back, and to send robot craft even farther into space and to planets. The exploration of the moon has given us words for novel experiences: *moonshot*, *moonwalk*, *earthrise*.

It is not only the more direct exploration of *deep space* which adds to our extraterrestrial vocabulary. Earthbound astronomers continue to make new discoveries and formulate new theories. We hear about *quasars*, *pulsars*, *neutron stars*, *black dwarfs*, and the mysterious *black hole*. The *big bang theory* and the *steady state theory* offer us alternative explanations of the origin of the universe. We learn that the earth moves in a mysterious way, *Chandler's wobble*, not yet explained. And on a more terrestrial scale, we find *plate tectonics* gaining increasing acceptance on the basis of geological observations.

Other fields of scientific study are also adding to the English vocabulary. For all the years men have lived on the earth, they have not exhausted the study of the earth's natural history. It is true that discoveries of undescribed and uncataloged animals and plants are not as frequent as they were in earlier ages, when whole continents were being opened up for scientific exploration. Nor have we yet discovered living things in our exploration of outer space. But we shall probably never feel confident that we know all the forms of life. Few new discoveries are as striking or as controversial as that, as yet unconfirmed, of a large nonhuman primate in the Pacific Northwest. Whether or not he exists, the animal's names, *Sasquatch* and *bigfoot*, are now a part of our language. Other animals, although not new to science, are new to America. For example, two immigrants from abroad, the *walking catfish* and the *imported fire ant*, are making their presence felt in the southeastern United States, and their names have become established in American English.

The discovery of the mechanism of protein synthesis has made genetics a fertile provider of new terms, giving us the *Watson-Crick model* of DNA, the *genetic code*, *messenger RNA*, and a new meaning for *template* among many others. And as physicists pry deeper and deeper into the atomic nucleus they have discovered more subatomic particles: *kaon*, *lambda*, and the several varieties of *quarks*, for example. They have discovered *antiparticles*, studied *isospin*, and used *spark chambers*. Medicine too is a major contributor of new terms such as *AIDS*, *busulfan*, *Legionnaires' disease*, *open-heart surgery*, the *sudden infant death syndrome*, *toxic shock syndrome*, and the famous *pill*. Mathematics has become more noticeable especially since the revising of the subject as taught in school. *Open sentence*, *onto*, *truth set*, and *category* are among the mathematical terms that will be found herein.

High-tech sophistication seems to make things faster or smaller, as such terms as *computerize* and *microminiaturization* attest. Programmers communicate with computers in *Logo*, *C*, or *Pascal*, and computers talk to each other in *ASCII* or *EBCDIC*. Other computer-related terms include *bubble memory*, *number crunching*, *printwheel*, and

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spreadsheet. Technical improvement in *microforms* has made possible the business of *micropublishing*. Tiny *microchips* make the pocket calculator and the *microcomputer* possible. And in even more familiar applications technology has supplied the *flashcube*, the *microwave oven*, the *videocassette*, the *compact disc*, and the *solar collector*.

Some technological advances are less benevolent than these, however. Our capacity for military destructiveness is constantly increasing, and with it our military vocabulary. We have *ABMs*, *SAMs* and *MIRVs*. We have *cruise missiles*, *smart bombs*, and *AWACS*. We have *overkill*. We can talk almost casually about the possibility of nuclear war, and we have a new unit of measurement to use in such discussions, the *mega-death*. Our long military involvement in Vietnam also increased our vocabulary. We sought to justify our actions by the *domino theory*. We disparaged the *Cong* by calling them *dinks*. The *Green Berets* became a household word, and the common foot soldier became a *grunt*. The division of American opinion on our undeclared war gave us *doves* and *hawks*. And the words we brought out of the war were not only military: the appearance in American English of such words as *ao dai* and *hootch* was a by-product of our military involvement in Southeast Asia.

But science and technology are not the only sources of new words. The two decades since the publication of Webster's Third has seen considerable political and social ferment, and this ferment has left its mark on the language. Besides *hippies*, *teenyboppers*, and *flower people* we have *preppies*, *pro-lifers*, and *whistle-blowers*. *Hare Krishnas*, *Moonies*, and *yuppies*. We have been exposed to *skyjacking* and *ayatollah*, to *white flight* and *gentrification*, to *redlining* and *supply-side economics*, to *culture shock*, and *future shock*.

So many people have become involved with the drug subculture that the jargon of drugs has won a prominent place in the consciousness of contemporary America. We talk of *uppers* and *downers*, *acid*, *free base*, *jays*, *dexies*, and *smack*, of people who have *OD'd*, and of people *busted* by *narcs* for trying to smuggle in a couple of *keys*.

Minorities have also made themselves heard. The civil rights movement that began with *freedom rides* has made us all more aware of black culture. Black culture itself have given us many new words. A new academic subject, *black studies*, has been added to the curriculum of many schools. And *Afro*, *dashiki*, the *Black Panthers*, the *Black Muslims*, and *soul* are familiar to most of us. Other minorities have also become more politically active and more visible: we are now familiar with both *Chicanos* and *Native Americans*. From the women's movement we get such terms as *Ms.*, *sexism*, and *chairperson*. Rounding out the group are politically active *golden-agers* who call themselves *Gray Panthers* and fight *ageism*.

The changing attitude of Americans toward sexual matters and materials has also contributed to the language. Movies are now rated *G*, *PG*, *PG-13*, *R*, or *X*, and people may be *AC/DC*. The homosexual subculture has become more open, bringing into general use such terms as *homophile*, *gay*, *butch*, *drag queen*, and *camp*.

Education is another source of new vocabulary, giving us *underachiever*, *open classroom*, *TA*, *grade point average*, *CAI*, and *pass-fail grading*. Increasing interest in the consumer has given us *consumerism*, *callback*, *unit pricing*, and *generic*.

Entertainment has always been a source of new words. We have *sitcoms*, *docudramas*, *videos*, and *shoot-'em-ups* on television and *call-in* programs on radio; at the neighborhood movie theater we might watch a *spaghetti western*. We might see *break dancing* or listen to *salsa*, *punk rock*, *rap*, *reggae*, or *zydeco*. Sports continues its steady production of vocabulary with new sports such as *roller hockey* and new ways of playing old ones, such as baseball's *designated hitter*. Television coverage of football fills weekends with *blitzes*, *play-action passes*, *square outs*, and *squib kicks*. Those who care *zilch* about football may go to the track and play the *perfecta*, *superfecta*, or *trifecta*. The *martial arts* of the Far East have given us *aikido* and *kung fu* along with *dan*, *dojo*, and *black belt*.

Cooking too has added to the English vocabulary. From *aioli* to *zuppa inglese* English has borrowed a host of terms from foreign cuisines, including *caldo verde*, *frijoles refritos*, *souvlakia*, *tabbouleh*, and *wok*. The vocabulary of food has also been increased by such domestic contributors as the *corn chip*, *lane cake*, *green goddess dressing*, and *sloppy joe*.