Chapter 8

1. Old English sound changes.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | Change(s) |
| a. crabba [kraba] → crab | 1. The vowel [a] became [æ]. |
|  | 2. The word-final [a] was lost. |
| b. fisc [fɪsk] → fish | 1. The [s] became [ʃ]. |
|  | 2. The final [k] was lost. |
| c. fūl [fuːl] → foul | 1. The long vowel [uː] became [aʊ]. |
| d. gāt [gaːt] → goat | 1. The long vowel [aː] became [o]. |
| e. lǣfan [læːvan] → leave | 1. The long vowel [æː] became [i]. |
|  | 2. The [an] ending was lost. |
| f. teþ [teːθ] → teeth | 1. The long vowel [eː] became [i]. |

2. Great vowel shift. Answers will vary. Sample answers:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| [i]/[ɛ] | [aɪ]/[ɪ] | [e]/[æ] |
| a. clean/cleanse | deride/derision | vain/vanity |
| b. thief/theft | rhyme/rhythm | sate/satisfy |
| c. feel/felt | crime/criminal | flame/flammable |
| d. keep/kept | precise/precision | nation/national |
| e. please/pleasure | line/linear | page/paginate |

3. Changes in English. In the answers given below, only syntactic changes are discussed. Lexical changes (e.g., hath to has) are not noted.

a. It nothing pleased his master.

ModE (Modern English): Nothing pleased his master.

Change: In Old English (OE) the expletive subject it co-occurred with the logical subject (in this case, nothing). In ModE this is not possible: expletive it appears only when there is no other subject available.

b. He hath said that we would lift them whom that him please.

ModE: He has said that we would lift those who please him.

Change: 1. In OE, pronouns like them can take a relative clause, while in ModE they generally cannot—they are replaced in ModE by demonstratives like those. 2. In OE the wh- phrase whom and the complementizer that both occurred in the complementizer position, while in ModE only one of them may occur there. 3. In OE the object him can go before the verb please, while in ModE the verb must precede the object.

c. I have a brother is condemned to die.

ModE: I have a brother who is condemned to die.

Change: It appears that in OE a relative pronoun (the pronoun occurring in the complementizer of a relative clause) corresponding to the subject of the relative clause may be null. In ModE a subject relative pronoun cannot be null.

d. I bade them take away you.

ModE: I asked them to take you away.

Change: In OE a verb-particle pair could be followed by a pronoun. In ModE if the verb and the particle are separable, the particle must follow the object if the object is a pronoun. Additionally, ModE would require a to before take.

e. I wish you was still more a Tartar.

ModE: I wish you were even more of a Tartar / I wish even more that you were a Tartar.

Change: 1. The verb be must agree in ModE with the subject.

2. Depending on what the meaning is interpreted to be, either of must be inserted into the phrase more a Tartar because more cannot modify a predicate nominal in ModE; or the phrase still more, modifying wish, must precede the embedded sentence.

f. Christ slept and his apostles.

ModE: Christ slept and his apostles did too.

Change: In OE a verb phrase could be entirely missing if identical to the preceding verb phrase. In ModE an auxiliary verb (did, in this case) must remain.

g. Me was told.

ModE: I was told.

Change: In OE the subject of a passive clause appeared with accusative case, while in ModE it must have nominative case.

4. Recent and archaic words in English. Answers will vary. Sample answers:

a. 1. fronting: putting on a front that you are something you’re not or have something you don’t.

2. bromance: an especially close friendship between two men. From bro (clipped from brother) + romance.

3. occupy: from the “occupy Wall Street” movement in 2011, but which took on it’s own life and can now be used as a noun, verb, or in other compounds such as Occupy TV. (This was the voted the Word of the Year by the American Dialect Society in 2011.)

4. cloud or in the cloud: the use of online space for storage or processing.

5. app: an application for a smart phone or tablet computer. (This was the voted the Word of the Year by the American Dialect Society in 2010.)

b. 1. slide rule: a handheld instrument the size of a foot-long ruler used to calculate square roots and other mathematical relations; fast becoming obsolete with the advances of computer technology.

2. phonograph: record player, turntable.

3. floppy disk: this was a recent word in the fifth edition of this book. With floppy disk drives now becoming more obsolete, this term is fast fading from the language.

4. icebox: refrigerator; now nearly obsolete since ice hasn’t been used to refrigerate for decades.

c. 1. credit card meaning “to buy with a credit card,” e.g., I can’t really afford this, but I’m just going to credit card it.

2. trend meaning “to be popular on twitter,” e.g., McKayla Maroney’s near perfect vault is trending like crazy.

3. timeline meaning “to produce a schedule of subgoals for a task,” e.g., We’ll need to timeline the project.

d. 1. sextant: Once used for navigation, it is now becoming obsolete with the advent of electronic positioning systems and computerized sky charts.

2. rural free delivery: Once used to express the special attention given to rural areas by the U.S. Postal Service but now obsolete due to improved transportation technology. (Note: though it appears to consist of three words, it is really a single compound word.)

3. shortwave: Special radio waves that traveled a long distance by reflecting off the ionosphere, now becoming obsolete owing to satellite communications.

4. phaeton: A light, four-wheeled open carriage, usually drawn by a pair of horses. Need we say more?

e. Answers will vary.

1. PowerToy from Microsoft. “PowerToys are additional programs that developers work on after a product has been released.” (from http://www.microsoft.com/windowsxp/Downloads/powertoys/Xppowertoys.mspx)

2. PowerReporting. Website on resources for journalists. (http://www.powerreporting.com/)

3. Power Proofreading. An educational website for children. (http://www.eduplace.com/kids/hme/k\_5/proofread/proof.htm)

4. PowerBar. “a brand of bar-shaped food intended for use esp. by athletes, having a high carbohydrate and low fat content with protein and vitamin supplements.” (from dictionary.reference.com)

5. power broker. “a person who wields great political, governmental, or financial power.” (from dictionary.reference.com)

f. Answers will vary.

1. blogzilla. A blogger who goes easily loses his/her temper and goes off on rants.

2. pre-blog. To blog about an event before it happens.

3. blogosphere. The blogging world; the set of all blogs.

4. blogonomics. The study of how information is traded on blogs.

5. Latin–French correspondences.

a. False. The modern French word for “thing” shows that a /k/, which occurred before the vowel /a/ in Latin, became [ʃ] in French.

b. True. As kor → kœr “heart” shows us, /k/ before /o/ in Latin remains a /k/ in modern French. But kawsa → ʃoz “thing” shows us that /k/ before /aw/ in Latin changes to a /ʃ/. Since the modern French word for “tail” starts with a /k/, we would predict that it did not derive from a Latin word that started with kaw because then we would expect the modern French word to start with a /ʃ/.

c. False. The modern French words [kã] “when” and [sã] “hundred” show that [s] is not an allophone of /k/ in modern French, but rather a distinct phoneme.

d. True. We have evidence that Latin kervus became modern French [sɛr], so a change of kertus to [sɛr] seems probable, since the k is in the same phonetic environment (before the [e]).

6. Indo-European. The Indo-European languages are the ones numbered 1, 2, 4, 8, 10, and 11.

7. Etymology. The answers below come from the Random House Dictionary of the English Language, 2nd edition (unabridged). Only the etymological information associated with each word is given below; the student may speculate freely on how each word was borrowed.

a. size: From Old French assiser (“assize”), which has as one of its meanings “a statute for regulating weights and measures.”

b. royal: From Middle French from Latin regalis (“kingly”).

c. aquatic: From Middle French from Latin aqua (“water”) + -aticus.

d. heavenly: From OE heofenlic; akin to Old Norse himinn; Goth himins; German Himmel.

e. skill: From Old Norse skil (“distinction, difference”).

f. ranch: From Spanish rancho (“camp”).

g. blouse: From French vêtement de laine blouse (“garment of short (uncarded) wool”).

h. robot: From Czech, coined by Karel Capek in the play R.U.R. (1920) from the base robot-, as in robota (“compulsory labor”), robotnik (“peasant owing such labor”).

i. check: From Old French eschec, var. of eschac from Arabic shah (“check”) (in chess); from Persian: lit., king (an exclamation: i.e., “look out, your king is threatened.”)

j. banana: From Portuguese (perhaps via Spanish); akin to various words for banana or plantain in West African languages (e.g., Wolof, Malinke banana; Vai bana), but ultimate source and direction of borrowing uncertain.

k. keel: From OE ceol, from Gothic kiel (“ship”).

l. fact: From Latin factum (“something done, deed”).

m. potato: From Spanish patata (“white potato”), var. of batata (“sweet potato”), from Taino.

n. muskrat: Alteration by folk etymology of musquash, Massachusett cognate of Western Abenaki mòskwas.

o. coyote: From the Nahuatl coyotl, borrowed through Spanish.

p. chocolate: From Nahuatl *xocolatl*, which probably meant “bitter water,” borrowed through Spanish.

q. hoodlum: probably from dialectal German; cf. Swabian derivatives of Hudel (“rag”), e.g., hudelum (“disorderly”), hudellam (“weak,” “slack,” etc.).

r. filibuster: From Spanish filibustero from Middle French flibustier, var. of fribustier; see FREEBOOTER.

s. astronaut: From French astronautique, *astro* + -naute from Greek naútes (“sailor”), on the model of aéronaute (“aeronaut”).

t. emerald: From Old French esmeraude, esmeralde, esmeragde, from Latin smaragdus, from Greek smáragdos; probably ultimately from Semitic b-r-q (“shine”) Sanskrit marak(a)la (“emerald”).

u. sugar: From Middle English and Middle French sucre, from Middle Latin succarum, Italian zucchero, Arabic sukkar; obscurely akin to Persian shakar, Greek sákcharon.

v. pagoda: From Portuguese pagode “temple,” from Persian butkada—but “idol” + kada “temple, dwelling.”

w. khaki: From Urdu, from Persian khaki (“dusty”), equivalent to khak (“dust”) + i (suffix of appurtenance).

x. shampoo: Earlier champo (“to massage”), from an inflected form of Hindi campna (lit., “to press”).

y. kangaroo: From Guugu Yimidhirr (Australian Aboriginal language spoken around Cooktown, N. Queensland) /gaN-urru/ “large black or gray species of kangaroo.”

z. tomato: from Nahuatl tomatl “tomato,” borrowed through Spanish.

8. Analogic change. Sample answers:

1. In common usage, it is considered nonstandard to say it’s me, I’m her, etc., as opposed to it is I or I am she. In standard English, pronouns in the accusative case form are typically in a non-initial position in a sentence, while subject pronouns (which are in the nominative case form) are usually initial. Speakers for whom it’s me is well-formed have generalized (or reinterpreted) the distinction of subject vs. object to one of initial vs. non-initial.

2. In standard English, you can be either singular or plural. “Tim saw you” can mean that Tim saw one person or more than one person. However, some speakers have extended the -s plural of English to be used with this pronoun. For these speakers, “Tim saw you” can only describe Tim seeing one person. “Tim saw yous” (pronounced [juz]) would refer to Tim seeing more than one person.

3. Verbs in English typically fall into two categories: (1) verbs where the past tense and the past participle are the same (examples: “I sit.” “I sat.” “I have sat.”) (2) verbs where there are three distinct forms (examples: “I see.” “I saw.” “I have seen.”). Some speakers have generalized the pattern seen in Type 1 to the verbs of Type 2. For example: “I see.”   
“I seen.” “I have seen.”

9. Regularity and irregularity. Sound change is regular because every affected sound in a particular environment is changed to another sound. For example, the Great Vowel Shift in English regularly caused all [iː]s to become the diphthong [aɪ]. This change, together with the Early Middle English Vowel Shorting Rule, created an irregularity in lexical pairs such as divine/divinity. Analogical change, in contrast, is not regular. It does not affect all the sounds in a particular environment. Rather, the change is irregular, affecting only certain words and in non-regular ways, such as kine → cows. But while the change itself is irregular, it creates more morphological regularity. For example, cows follows a regular morphological rule for creating the plural from cow, while kine did not.

10. The English of Hamlet.

Line 1: hath eat of a king is now has eaten a king.

Line 1: eat of the fish is now eat the fish.

Line 2: hath fed of that worm is now has fed on that worm.

Line 3: what dost thou is now what do you.

Line 4: may go a progress is now may progress.

Line 7: send thither is now send someone there.

Line 7: if your messenger find him not is now if your messenger does not find him.

Line 8: i’ is no longer contractible and is now in.

Line 8: if you find him not is now if you do not find him.

Line 9: you shall, with the same meaning, is now you will.

Line 9: nose as a verb with the same meaning is now smell.

11. Spanish dialects.

a. Correspondence sets:

i. k-k

ii. a-a

iii. s-θ

iv. s-s

v. i-i

vi. g-g

vii. j-ʎ

viii. o-o

ix. d-d

x. e-e

xi. p-p

xii. j-j

xiii. m-m

xiv. ŋ-ŋ

b. Protosounds:

i. k-k \*k

ii. a-a \*a

iii. s-θ \*θ

iv. s-s \*s

v. i-i \*i

vi. g-g \*g

vii. j-ʎ \*ʎ

viii. o-o \*o

ix. d-d \*d

x. e-e \*e

xi. p-p \*p

xii. j-j \*j

xiii. m-m \*m

xiv. ŋ-ŋ \*ŋ

c.

Dialect 1: \*[ʎ] → [j]

and \*[θ] → [s]

Dialect 2: none

d. **Dialect 1 Dialect 2 Gloss Earlier Form**

[kasa] [kaθa] hunt (noun) \*[kasa]

[si] [si] yes \*[si]

[gajo] [gaʎo] rooster \*[gaʎo]

[dies] [dieθ] ten \*[dieθ]

[pojo] [pojo] kind of bench \*[pojo]

[kaje] [kaʎe] street \*[kaʎe]

[majo] [majo] May \*[majo]

[kasa] [kasa] house \*[kasa]

[siŋko] [θiŋko] five \*[θiŋko]

[dos] [dos] two \*[dos]

[pojo] [poʎo] chicken \*[poʎo]

12. Proto-Polynesian.

a. Correspondence sets:

i. p-p-p-b

ii. o-o-o-o

iii. u-u-u-u

iv. t-k-t-t

v. a-a-a-a

vi. ŋ-n-ŋ-ŋ

vii. i-i-i-i

viii. k-ʔ-ʔ-k

ix. e-e-e-e

x. r-l-l-l

xi. h-h-f-v

xii. n-n-n-n

xiii. m-m-m-m

xiv. h-h-s-s

b. Protosounds:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| i. p-p-p-b | \*p | p → b in Fijian |
| ii. o-o-o-o | \*o |  |
| iii. u-u-u-u | \*u |  |
| iv. t-k-t-t | \*t | t → k in Hawaiian |
| v. a-a-a-a | \*a |  |
| vi. ŋ-n-ŋ-ŋ | \*ŋ | ŋ → n in Hawaiian |
| vii. i-i-i-i | \*i |  |
| viii. k-ʔ-ʔ-k | \*k | k → ʔ k in Hawaiian and Samoan (though the inverse answer should be accepted as well, given that there isn’t enough data) |
| ix. e-e-e-e | \*e |  |
| x. r-l-l-l | \*l | l → r in Maori |
| xi. h-h-f-v | \*f | f → h in Maori and Hawaiian  f → v in Fijian |
| xii. n-n-n-n | \*n |  |
| xiii. m-m-m-m | \*m |  |
| xiv. h-h-s-s | \*s | s → h in Maori and Hawaiian |

c. Reconstructed words in Proto-Polynesian. These proto forms are the same as in Samoan.

\*pou

\*tapu

\*taŋi

\*takele

\*fono

\*malama

\*kaso

13. Reconstruction of American Indian languages.

a. Correspondence sets:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Consonants | | Vowels | |
| i. | m-m | i. | u-u |
| ii. | p-p | ii. | i-i |
| iii. | t-t | iii. | a-a |
| iv. | m-w | iv. | ɨ-ɨ |
| v. | w-w | v. | o-o |
| vi. | s-s | vi. | a-e |
| vii. | ʔ-ʔ |  |  |
| viii. | n-n |  |  |
| ix. | h-h |  |  |
| x. | k-k |  |  |

b. Protosounds:

(1) Reconstruction:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| p-p | \*p | u-u | \*u |
| t-t | \*t | i-i | \*i |
| s-s | \*s | a-a | \*a |
| ʔ-ʔ | \*ʔ | ɨ-ɨ | \*ɨ |
| n-n | \*n | o-o | \*o |
| h-h | \*h | a-e | \*e |
| k-k | \*k |  |  |

(2) The only protosound listed above that underwent a change is \*e, which became a in Yerington Paviotso.

c. (1) Whenever a w appears in Yerington Paviotso, the sound in the corresponding position in Northfork Monachi is also w.

(2) Whenever an m occurs in Yerington Paviotso, the two sounds that may correspond to it in Northfork Monachi are m or w.

(3) Yes, the correspondence is predictable. An m in Yerington Paviotso corresponds to an m in Northfork Monachi word-initially, and a w in Northfork Monachi between vowels.

d. (1) Two protosounds should be reconstructed.

(2) If you chose three, they would have to be \*m, \*w, and an abstract sound representing both of them, perhaps \*b. Then \*m corresponds to m in both languages, \*w corresponds to w in both languages, and \*b corresponds to m word-initially and w between vowels in Northfork Monachi. But this solution is unmotivated; the simpler solution below is better.

(3) The protosounds are \*m and \*w. Proto \*m becomes m in Yerington Paviotso. In Northfork Monachi, proto \*m becomes m word-initially and w between vowels. Proto \*w becomes w in both Yerington Paviotso and Northfork Monachi.

e. The proto forms are the same as those in Yerington Paviotso except for the words with a proto \*e sound.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| “nose” | \*mupi |
| “tooth” | \*tama |
| “heart” | \*piwɨ |
| “a feminine name” | \*sawaʔpono |
| “liver” | \*nɨmɨ |
| “springtime” | \*tamano |
| “aunt” | \*pahwa |
| “husband” | \*kuma |
| “Indians living to the west” | \*wowaʔa |
| “porcupine” | \*mɨhɨ |
| “throat” | \*noto |
| “sun” | \*tape |
| “jaw” | \*ʔatapɨ |
| “older brother” | \*papiʔi |
| “daughter” | \*peti |
| “man” | \*nana |
| “bow,” “gun” | \*ʔetɨ |

14. Proto-Egglish.

a. Correspondence sets:

i. ʃ-k

ii. u-u

iii. r-l

iv. v-v

v. e-e

vi. Ø-t

vii. r-r

viii. ɔ-ɔ

ix. Ø-k

x. ʒ-g

xi. Ø-p

xii. l-l

xiii. p-p

Proto-Egglish words from which the cognates descended:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| \*kur | “omelet” |
| \*vet | “yoke” |
| \*rɔk | “egg” |
| \*ver | “egg shell” |
| \*gup | “soufflé” |
| \*vel | “egg white” |
| \*pe | “hard-boiled” |

b. Sound changes.

i. velar stops → palatal fricatives, word-initially, in Big-End Egglish. This sound change is more likely than the opposite, because a change similar to this took place in French, as discussed earlier in the chapter. It is possible that this change is also conditioned by the high back vowel, so that the rule is velar stops → palatal fricatives word-initially before /u/, or possibly even before /u/ in non-final position. The data are insufficient to determine this.

ii. voiceless stops → Ø, word-finally, in Big-End Egglish. There are no final voiced stops in the data set, so we cannot determine whether voiced stops underwent the same change. However, the more general statement that stops were deleted word-finally would also be acceptable.

iii. r → l, word-finally, in Little-End Egglish.

15. Greek and Latin roots. Answers will vary.

*Greek*

a. pente “five”: English pentagram, pentagon, pentacle

b. anthropos “man”: English anthropology, anthropomorphic, anthropogenic

c. arche “beginning”: English archaic, archaeology, archetype

d. pathos “feeling”: English empathy, sympathy, pathetic

e. morphe “shape”: English anthropomorphic, morphology, morphed

f. exo “outside”: English exoskeleton, exogamy, exorcism

g. sophos “wise”: English philosophy, sophomore, sophist

h. gamos “marriage”: English exogamy, gamete, bigamy

i. logy “word”: English analogy, logarithm, logo

j. gigas “huge, enormous”: English gigantic, gigabyte, giant

*Latin*

k. acer “sharp”: English acrimonious, acerbic, acrid

l. mater “mother”: English maternal, matriarchy, matricide

m. bellum “war”: English rebel, belligerent, bellicose

n. arbor “tree”: English arboretum, arbor, arboreal

o. positus “put, place”: English position, dispose, transpose

p. par “equal”: English parity, pair, compare

q. nepos “grandson”: English nepotism, nephew, nepotal

r. tacere “to be silent”: English tacit, taciturn, tacitness

s. scribere “to write”: English scribe, script, scribble

t. lingua “tongue, language”: English linguistics, language, lingual

16. Post-nominal adjectives in English.

a. All the adjectives that occur post-nominally in data begin with a- and are related to a form that does not have the a-; i.e., the a- seems to be a morpheme.

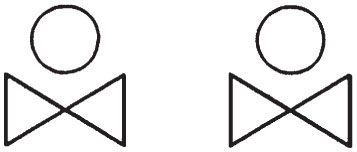
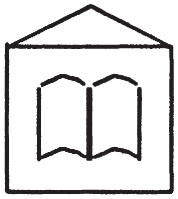
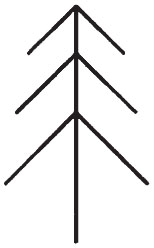
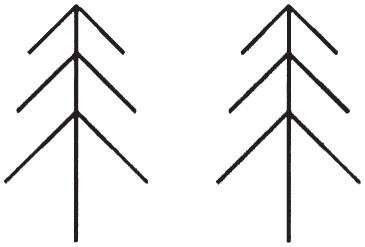
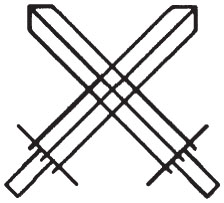
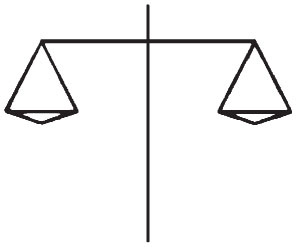
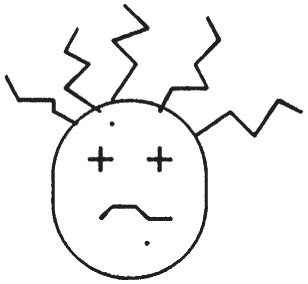
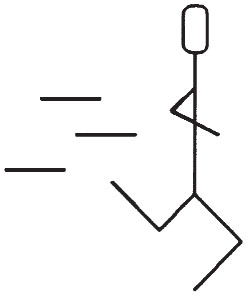
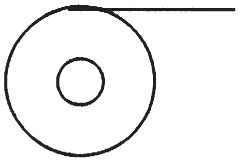
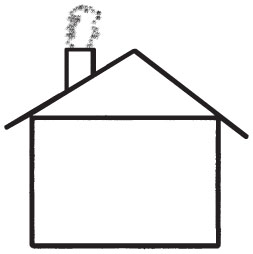
b. Other examples include:

i. aglow: her face aglow / \*her aglow face / her glowing face

ii. afloat: a boat afloat / \*an afloat boat / a floating boat

c. Yes, the expressions in column C have the same meaning as their respective items in column A.

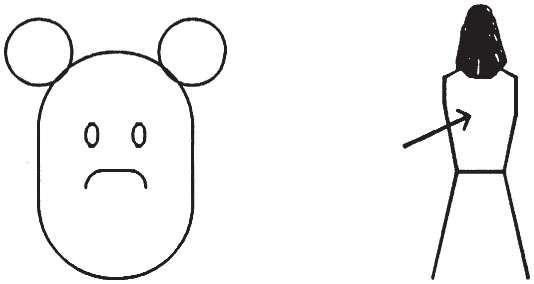
17. Pictograms. Part One: The following are sample answers:

* + 1. eye: 
    2. boy: 
    3. two boys: 
    4. library: 
    5. tree: 
    6. forest: 
    7. war: 
    8. honesty: 
    9. ugly: 
    10. run: 
    11. Scotch tape: 
    12. smoke: 

Part Two. The most difficult words to symbolize are words like *honesty* and *ugly. Honesty* is an abstract word without a physical referent. The picture drawn above is not a good one, since it symbolizes equality or justice but not really honesty. *Ugly* is difficult to picture because the concept is subjective in that what is ugly to one person or culture may not be so to another. It is also difficult to represent the difference between expressions that refer to an exact number of things (like two boys) and words that refer to a large group of things (like *forest*). In addition, it is difficult to distinguish between verbs (like *run*), noun phrases (*running man*), and sentences (*a man runs).*

Part Three. Words whose meanings are abstract concepts such as *internalized, unconscious,* *competence,* etc., are difficult to portray. This is also true of grammatical morphemes such as *of* and *the, is* versus *was, that* or *which,* etc.

18. Rebuses. Part One. Sample answers are given below.

* + - 1. tearing (tear + ring) 
      2. icicle (eye + sickle) 
      3. bareback (bear + back) 
      4. cookies (cook + keys) 

Part Two: Such a system would create problems in attempting to represent, for example, synonyms such as *chair* and *seat.* In addition, as stated above, not all English words can be easily represented in this way. For example, the word *tragedy* is hard to represent as a combination of pictures; how would one symbolize the syllables *tra, ged, y?* It would also be difficult or impossible to maintain consistency so that the same set of pictures always gives the same message. Variation in pronunciation could have a disastrous effect in an attempt to understand the pictures.

19. Non-Roman alphabetic letters. Sample answers:

1. Alphabetic letters:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| t | ! |
| r | @ |
| s | # |
| k | $ |
| w | % |
| ʧ | & |
| i | \* |
| æ | ? |
| f | + |
| n | = |

1. We have used regular alphabetic spelling (not phonetic spelling) for sounds not specified in the new orthography.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1. character | $?@a$!e@ |
| 1. guest | ge#! |
| 1. cough | $a+ |
| 1. photo | +o!o |
| 1. cheat | &\*! |
| 1. rang | @?=g |
| 1. psychotic | #y$o!i$ |
| 1. tree | !@\* |

20. Syllabic systems. Answers will vary. A sample is provided here.

Syllabary:

A = child [ʧaɪld]

B = ish [ɪʃ]

C = ness [nəs]

D = like [laɪk]

E = je [ʤɛ]

F = su (from *Jesuit*) or zoo [zu]

G = wit [wɪt]

H = life [laɪf]

I = less or lous [ləs]

J = le (from *lethal*) or ly [li]

K = thal [θəl]

L = le (from *lesson)* [lɛ]

M = son [sən]

Syllabic representations:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1. child-ish-ness: | ABC |
| 1. child-like: | AD |
| 1. Je-su-it: | EFG |
| 1. life-less-ness: | HIC |
| 1. like-ly: | DJ |
| 1. zoo: | F |
| 1. wit-ness: | GC |
| 1. le-thal: | JK |
| 1. jea-lous: | EI |
| 1. wit-less: | GI |
| 1. les-son: | LM |