How Plants Get Their Names

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SYNOPSIS OF THE BOOK

which is written for those who may wish to read it but with the horticulturist and garden-lover particularly in mind

CHAPTER

I. ON MY TABLE: admiration of two colorful potted plants, with inquiry as to how one of them came to be called Pseudocapsicum and then Solanum PseudoCapsicum, and the other Piper indicum, then Capsicum annum and Capsicum frutescens.

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II. LINNÆUS: appreciation of Carolus Linnæus, known also as Carl von Linné, great naturalist of Sweden, who founded the binomial system of naming plants and animals; together with references to various antecessors.

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SYNOPSIS OF THE BOOK

VI. THE NAMES AND THE WORDS: presentation of lists of names of genera and species with suggestions on pronunciation, the usual meaning or significance of Latin adjectives when employed in botanical binomials, preceded by explanations, all to the end that the reader may find more joy in incorporating names of precision in customary speech and more satisfaction in spelling them.

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I

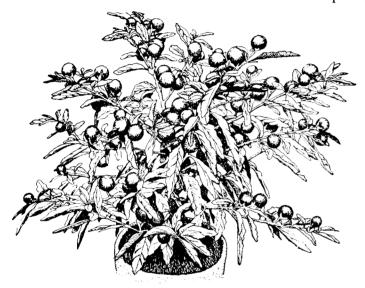
ON MY TABLE

ON my table stands a plant richly laden with orange-red cherry-like berries against smooth deep green narrow leaves, a pleasant object on this first day of November when foliage has fallen from the great elms and from the soft maple tree and when signs of approaching winter are on the landscape. It is a stocky arresting plant, good to see. Although only one foot high and about as far across, it holds more than one hundred berries standing boldly upright or sidewise on short stout stalks. The largest oldest berries are about one inch across, nearly globular but slightly flattened endwise; and there are younger berries to make succession. Each berry is held in a fingered cup closely pressed to its rondure.

On the seventh day of last January, in the genial warmth of the greenhouse, a kidney-shaped tomato-like seed was put in the earth; soon a sprout appeared, then aspiring green leaves, and steadily the plantlet grew. Shortly it was pricked off into a two-inch pot, then into a three-inch, then turned from the pot into the open field where it remained in the summer weather; when the cool of autumn came it was lifted from the field and placed in the five-inch pot where it now stands, as I write, erect and handsome.

How and why this plant made itself out of the inert soil and the transparent air I have no way of

knowing. It might not be difficult to understand the main physiological processes, but that would not answer the question; we could talk learnedly about heredity and yet not know why it bears orange berries rather than purple, and trough-like leaves rather than flat ones. I do not know why that seed knew how to produce this plant and not a tomato plant,



On my table.-Jerusalem Cherry.

utilizing the same soil and water and atmosphere and sunlight in which, in this same pot, a tomato might have made itself.

Yet I accept the plant for all that. It is mine until its berries fall from age. It is a cheering contrast to the books on the table, the pictures at the side, the calendar that marks the speeding days, and a relief from the ink and paper whereby I write. A mystery is in it that does not pertain to books and tables and deft utensils, an other-worldiness at which we would

marvel were it not so familiar. The books stand here year by year with no change except that the bindings loose their grip and fall in shreds by force of gravity, but if I do not water this plant today it will be a wilted wreck tomorrow. I must not let it freeze. For all its apparent ruggedness it is a tender thing, needing the care I give it. Thereby do I have a partnership in it, and a quiet satisfaction.

Despite the regularized treatment it has had, the plant has taken its natural course, with an open horizontally branching informal habit, quite unlike the upright close shapes one sees in the pictures. These formal shapes may be result of clipping or of pinching back, and of other manipulation. There are, indeed, dwarf compact forms that of themselves take a more symmetrical shape, but my plant is not one of them.

It is a woody plant and if I were to grow it as a shrub in the cool greenhouse it would probably become three or four feet high and bear its cherry-berries annually; but the abundance of berries is emphasized on these young pot plants.

On a packet of seeds is the name Jerusalem cherry. It is fitting that the plant should be called "cherry", but why "Jerusalem" should be attached to it I do not know. This part of the name appears not to be very old. I have not come across it in writings of more than about fifty years ago. The plant is not native to Jerusalem and is not mentioned in Post's Flora of Syria, Palestine, and Sinai. Seeds or plants may have been brought from a garden there by someone and the fact recorded in the name. Anything having been picked up in Jerusalem would be likely to bring the name with it.

The name Jerusalem attaches to other plants without special significance. Jerusalem cowslip is a pulmonaria not known in that region except as a cultivated plant. Jerusalem oak is a pigweed with more or less oak-like leaves, native or wild in Africa, Europe and Asia. Jerusalem sage is a phlomis from southern Europe. Two trees are called Jerusalem thorn, one native from southern Europe to China and the other is probably tropical American. Jerusalem corn is a form of sorghum from the Nile region. Jerusalem artichoke is North American, the first name in this case supposed to be a corruption of an Italian word. Of the Jerusalem oak Dr. Prior, authority on names of plants, wrote that "the 'Jerusalem' here seems as in other cases to stand as a vague name for a distant foreign country."

Geographical names frequently go with plants that are native in far distant and different regions. The African marigold of the gardens is from Mexico, as also the Portugal cypress. Cherokee rose, naturalized and widespread in the South, is from China. Arabian jasmine, as well as the Spanish, is native in India. Spanish cedar is native in the West Indies and is not a cedar or a conifer. Peruvian squill is from the Mediterranean region. California pepper-tree and California privet are not Californian. Bethlehem sage is not Judean, Virginian stock is not Virginian, English walnut is not English, Himalaya-berry is not Himalayan, French mulberry is not French nor yet a mulberry.

These various examples testify to the inadequacy of great numbers of English or "common" names of plants. Many of them, as those just cited, are erroneous and misleading. Some of them are duplicates and few

of them designate the same plant the world around. Perhaps it is time to start a reformation in vernacular names, or at least to drop many of them from catalogues and books. One cannot "make" common names, although one may coin an English name. A name is not common until it comes into general use. Most plants do not possess true common names.

The plant before us has no good or reasonable accepted common name in English. Florists often cut the matter short and speak of these plants as "cherries". An old English name is "winter cherry", recording the resemblance of the fruits to the cherry and the fact that they persist in winter; it was so known to John Parkinson three hundred years ago; this name is applied also to alkekengi or Chinese lantern-plant as well as to other kinds of physalis, but with less reason. Our plant has also been called "cherry shrub." In other languages the plant has received vernacular names, testifying to its popularity as an ornamental and its long period of cultivation.

One of the interesting old names is "Amomum Plinii", meaning the Amomum of Pliny the Elder who perished in the eruption of Vesuvius in the year 79. Amomum is a Latin (and Greek) name of an aromatic shrub of undetermined identity. Pliny in his Naturalis Historia describes such a shrub, but it is apparently not the winter cherry, as was supposed by the early modern writers. Apparently neither Dioscorides or Theophrastus knew the plant or recorded it.

On a seed-packet is another name than Jerusalem cherry. It is Solanum PseudoCapsicum. This sounds formidable but it has reason and is easily understood.

As soon as one finds the word Solanum one knows something about the relationship of the plant, that it has kinship with all other Solanums which include true bittersweet, eggplant and potato, of the night-shade family. The berry of this Solanum is very like the berry or "ball" of the potato.

The item PseudoCapsicum means, of course, false Capsicum; and Capsicum is red-pepper, a closely related plant. The history of the name PseudoCapsicum is long and interesting; although this record is of course somewhat technical, it will reward the reader to follow part of it if he is interested in understanding the delightful old and new art of naming plants.

On my table also is a pepper or capsicum. It is a bonny plant, with brighter livelier colors than the winter cherry. This particular plant has a horticultural history similar to that of the other, and now, in a five-inch pot, it stands nine inches high and about eighteen inches spread, the branches somewhat drooping at the end. The numerous long-conic berries or peppers, about one inch in length, all stand erect above the bright broad leaves, greenish-white at first, then yellowish-white, finally glossy scarlet, the composite making a brilliant contrast; buds and small white flowers are at the end of the twigs. Two good winter window-plants are these, near of kin and closely linked in name.

These New World peppers, very different from those of the eastern tropics from which we obtain the table pepper of commerce, were early introduced to Europe. Peter Martyr writes in 1493 that Columbus had brought a "pepper more pungent than that from Caucasus." In due time these western peppers as a class acquired the name Capsicum, probably from capsa, Latin for box, because of the box-like soft fruits. To Basil Besler, however, in 1613, in Hortus



On my table also .-- Red Pepper.

Eystettensis published probably in Nuremberg, most glorious of horticultural books, they were known as Piper. As botanical names came more and more to be regularized, the word Capsicum was adopted, and it appeared in connection with these plants in the standard work of the great Frenchman, Joseph Pitton de Tournefort, Institutiones Rei Herbariæ, in 1700; from Tournefort the name was taken by Linnæus and is now the accepted nomen of the red-pepper group.

It is pleasant to grow these capsicums, so promptly do they produce their brilliant durable hollow fruits in many shapes and colors. As a garden and field crop they are important, the great puffy kinds for the making of "stuffed peppers" and the smaller more acrid

ones for various pickles and seasonings. Of late we have come to grow certain of them in pots for table ornament, and have produced kinds with erect very brilliant peppers that lend lively color to the room; we are indeed clever; yet I find essentially the same kind pictured in Besler more than three centuries ago as Piper Indicum minimum erectum, a name that records the supposed origin of these plants in India. Soon are the histories lost; or, more likely, there was no real history, and in those days geography was not exact. Piper Indicum minimum erectum, the small erect Indian pepper, was apparently prized in the time of Besler, which we think to have been so long ago; and these plants were known to other faithful writers of that period.

There had also come to the gardens of Europe another pepper-like plant but clearly different; this was distinguished from the true Capsicums as Pseudocapsicum or false Capsicum: it is apparently the plant on my table that we call Jerusalem or winter cherry. A very early account of this plant, with picture, was published by the Dutch botanist Rembert Dodoens, Latinized Dodonæus, in his ponderous Stirpium Historiæ Pemptades, published in Antwerp, which in its revised edition of 1616 was quoted by Linnæus. He describes the plant, speaks of its cultivation, explains its name, mentions its medicinal virtues as far as they had been discovered. The full account in Dodonæus is here reproduced, and a free translation of the Latin:

Pseudocapsicum is taller and more shrubby than Capsicum; its stalks are sometimes two cubits long, woody, with numerous branches; leaves oblong, not very broad, smooth, longer and narrower than those of the garden Solanum; flowers white; fruit rounded, red, but paler than that of Capsicum; seed flat, with little or no taste.

An exotic species, cultivated in pots by the Belgians. It is longer lived than Capsicum and can survive for several years if protected from the cold in the winter months.

Pseudocapsicum gets its name from its likeness to Capsicum; there are those who would call it Solanum rubrum or Solanum lignosum but it is not a species of Solanum. The Spaniards call it Guindas de las Indas.

Further, it does not agree in temperature with Capsicum; not warming indeed but cooling. What its useful properties are, moreover, has not yet been discovered.

To Basil Besler (if it was indeed Besler who wrote the luxurious Hortus Eystettensis as the titlepage avers) a winter cherry was Strichnodendron or nightshade tree; he gave a good description and a picture. The picture is too large to reproduce on this page, for Besler's illustrations are in natural sizes (and thereby do we have a measure of the degree of improvement of garden plants more than three hundred years ago). To Johann Bauhin in 1650 to 1651, the plant was Strychnodendros; and the picture, same size as in his Historiæ Universalis Plantarum published at Yverdun in Switzerland, is shown on page 12. Linnæus recognized the plant as one of his genus Solanum; bringing it into the genus he had the privilege to choose any name for the species itself, but he preferred that of Dodoens: so the plant became Solanum PseudoCapsicum, and this name is now known to all botanists of the world; Linnæus chose to indicate the two elements in the word by writing Capsicum with a capital initial.

ON MY TABLE

That the reader, if he is so inclined, may know how carefully the names and records of plants were built up, even in the time of Linnæus, we may pause to look at his account of Solanum Pseudo Capsicum. In Species Plantarum ("Species of Plants"), 1753, is the following entry:

PseudoCapsicum.

3. SOLANUM caule inermi fruticoso, foliis lanceolatis repandis, umbellis sessilibus.

Solanum caule inermi fruticoso, foliis ovato-lanceolatis integris, storibus solitariis. Hort. cliff. 61. Hort.

ups. 48. Roy. lugdb. 424.

Solanum fruticoso, foliis ovato-lanceolatis integris, storibus solitariis. Hort. cliff. 61. Hort.

ups. 48. Roy. lugdb. 424.

Solanum fruticoso, foliis lanceolatis integris. Hort. cliff. 61. Hort.

Habitat in Madera. 5

It will be noted that his Solanum no. 3 is described in two lines of Latin, with the specific name Pseudo-Capsicum in the margin. The Latin means that Linnæus had a Solanum with shrubby or woody spineless stem, lanceolate repand or undulate leaves, and flowers in a sessile umbel.

Then follow references to literature. Hort. cliff. is Hortus Cliffortianus, a quarto volume by Linnæus, published in 1737, being an account of the plants in the gardens of George Clifford in Holland. Hort. ups. is Hortus Upsaliensis, by Linnæus, 1748, an inventory of the plants in his garden at Upsala. Roy. lugdb. is Royen, Floræ Leydensis, 1740, an account of plants at Leiden, Holland. In these three works this Solanum was described in similar Latin phrase.

It was named Solanum fruticosum bacciferum (shrubby fruit-bearing Solanum) by Bauh. pin., which means Caspar Bauhin's Pinax, published at Basel in 1671. It was Pseudocapsicum of Dod. pempt., which is Dodanæus' Pemptades, as we have already discovered.

718 R. DODONAEI STIRP. HIST. PEMPT. V. LIB. IV.

De Pseudocapsico.

CAP. XXVII.



PSEVDOCAPSIOVM altius ac fruticofius est quam Capsicum: caules eius quandoque bicubitales, lignosi, ramosi: folao oblonga, latiuscula, lauia, longioraangustioraque quam hortensis Solam: shores candidi: fructus rotundus, rubens, dilutius tamen quam Capsici: semenin hoc planum, nullus aut exqui sussibus.

tamen quam Capitei: temenin noc pianum, nullius aut exigui gustus. Peregrina etiam surps, quæ & in sichlibus à Belgis alitur. Diuturnioris autem quam Capiteum vitæ est, & pluribus annis superesse potest, si hibernis mensibus à fri-

A Capfici similirudine Pseudocapsicum nomen inuenit: sunt qui Solanum rubrum, aut Solanum lignossum esse velinte sed Solani non est species. Hispani Guindas de Lu Indas appellant.

Temperie autem Pseudocapsicum cum Capsico non conuenit: non excalsaciens siquidem est, sed refrigerans Quæ autem prætereà eius sint facultates, nondum exploratum



Pseudocapsicum page of Dodonæus. 1616.

If we go back to Hortus Cliffortianus we find that Linnæus cites other books, but we need not follow these references except perhaps to mention Casalp. syst. This reference is to Andrea Cesalpino, Tuscan, whose De Plantis was published in 1583. Cæsalpinius



Strychnodendros or nightshade shrub of Bauhin, 1650-51.

(as his name is Latinized) was a prophetic man; he was apparently the first to propose a system of classification of plants on the structure of fruits and seeds. He recognized, also, that fossils are organic in origin, and that the heart discharges blood into arteries, in advance of Harvey. In De Plantis, page 215, as cited by Linnæus, is an entry about Solanum arborescens

nuper inter peregrinas allata est, and then follows a description. This introductory clause or name means a tree-like Solanum that had been recently introduced, among others; Linnæus supposes it to have been the plant he called Solanum PseudoCapsicum.

In the Species Plantarum account, that we have reproduced, the last line says that the habitat or place of Solanum PseudoCapsicum is in Madera (Madeira Islands); the odd type-character at the end means that the plant is a tree or shrub. The plant grows in Madeira but is said not to be native there; nor do we yet know its nativity. It is ascribed to Brazil, India and other regions. It has been so long in cultivation that it is difficult to say whether occurrences of the plant in fields or open places represent native or runwild stock. For our purposes, not being here interested in the indigenous habitat, we may well adopt the designation in Index Kewensis (a vast continuing work listing the names of flowering plants of the world), as amphigean, "around the earth."

We have traced the name Solanum PseudoCapsicum but on another seed-packet before me are the names Jerusalem cherry and Solanum Capsicastrum. If we were to plant the Capsicastrum seeds we should undoubtedly obtain plants like those from the Pseudo-Capsicum packet. Here we are thrown completely off the track and we may not get back on it again by the discussion on page 63.

Now may we return to our capsicum, still standing on the table, unmindful of all this ink. We left it as Capsicum Indicum of Besler. Linnæus accepted the genus Capsicum in Species Plantarum, and described two species, *Capsicum annuum* (annual capsicum) and C. frutescens (shrubby capsicum). The former he ascribes to tropical America and the latter to India. The two species are published together in the one account, but annuum stands first, and in case of doubt this name, under the rules, is to have precedence over the other. It has been the custom to call the peppers of northern gardens C. annuum, assuming them to be distinct from the shrubby or woody kinds. The shrubby kinds look distinct enough when one sees them in the wild in hot countries; once I cut a durable cane from the hard dense wood of a pepper bush that was higher than my head; yet the herbaceous and the ligneous kinds, I am convinced, are all one thing. Much experience in growing them confirms me. To this effect I wrote some years ago, and the paragraph explains another change of names of the kind that bothers the plant-grower:

"I am convinced that the horticultural kinds are all forms of one species, and that the species is shrubby, the herbaceous or so-called annual kinds being races that develop in a short season and do not become woody before killed by frost. In the Capsicum shrubs of the tropics one finds puffy fruits of the bell-pepper type as well as the slender finger-like and the berrylike kinds; and when the northern kinds are grown in the tropics they become shrubs. Leaf variation also has equal range. I therefore propose to arrange the most significant forms of this multifarious species under C. frutescens rather than under C. annuum. In doing so, I accept the second rather than the first of the two names proposed by Linnæus in Species Plantarum; but when no question of authority or priority is involved, I cannot allow the accident of precedence on pages to obscure a biological fact."

On my table the two plants stand, one at my left hand, one at my right. Beyond the window-pane the chill of late autumn frost is in the air. Proud herbs of summer are collapsed. Brilliant lilac colchicums are gone. The crimson habranthus by the door has passed another year. Wilted petunias still hold a waning bloom. A clump of autumn bugbane tries to defy the frost, and the faint yellow of little-flowered chrysanthemums I found many years ago on far hills of China yet shines in the border. Insects are covered or gone. Birds of summer have flown. Sparrows will chipper at the eaves; the small flock of starlings will gather in the top of the great hickory tree. Soon the twigs of bushes will be laden with snow. Yet here my potted plants are lively and brilliant with the sunshine of milder climes. Centuries ago the seeds were brought by somebody from somewhere, and in all the eventful generations the plants hold true to their type; one is still a solanum and one is still a capsicum; they carry the peculiar features that were developed in untold cycles of time.

The plants represent the round world to me. They are reminders also of careful observers hundreds of years ago who left good records in aristocratic Latin when the common vernacular language was considered not to be sufficient medium for such learning. Centuries are tied together.

II

LINNÆUS

IT is profitless to go farther in quest of names until we know Linnæus.

Carl Linnæus was born in southern Sweden in 1707. His father, Nils Ingemarsson, took a Latin surname when he began his school and university career to become a scholar and eventually a churchman, adapting it from a certain famous lind, the lime-tree or linden. It was custom in those days for persons to choose a Latin name or to Latinize the patronymic. The family of the cousins of Linnæus chose the name Tiliander from the same tree, Tilia being Latin for the lindens. Another branch of the family became Lindelius. The particular lind tree, it is written, "had acquired a sanctity amongst the neighbours, who firmly believed that ill-fortune surely befell those who took even a twig from the grand and stately tree." Even the fallen twigs were dangerous to remove, and they were heaped about the base of the tree. It had perished by 1823.

To the people the name Linnæus was rendered Linné, the accent preserving the essential pronunciation of the word. Linnæus wrote that "Linnæus or Linné are the same to me; one is Latin, the other Swedish." His great Latin books were written naturally under the name Linnæus, and thus is he mostly known to naturalists. In later life a patent of nobility was



LIMMARUS.

granted him and he was then Carl von Linné. We find him signing himself as Carolus Linnæus Smolander, his province or "nation" being Smoland and Carolus being the Latin form of Carl or Charles; also as Carl Linnæus, Carl Linné, and Carl v. Linné. This much is by way of preface to explain the forms in which the name of this marvellous man appear.

Our interest in Linnæus is in relation to natural history. This relationship cannot be fully appreciated without knowing something of the state of natural science in his day, and of the social expression of the people. It would be too much to undertake such an inquiry; but it may be said that there was scarcely an independent science of botany in that epoch pursued for its own sake but only as a department of medicine; and public opinion was not free to allow the pursuit of knowledge in any or every direction.

The young Linnæus, therefore, made his way with difficulty and with few established aids. Yet he became outstanding authority in what were called the three kingdoms of nature—plants, animals, minerals. He was an extensive field naturalist, and skilled also as an assayer. His chosen profession in early life was medicine, not considering himself qualified for the church; but he became professor in the university at Upsala and there attracted great numbers of students from many parts of the world and trained naturalists who traveled to far parts for natural history specimens, as Thunberg to the Cape of Good Hope and Japan, Kalm to North America, Loefling to Spain and South America, Forskal to Egypt and Arabia. As his knowledge was comprehensive so was his enthusiasm unbounded, and the influence on students was commanding.

Linnæus was interested primarily in botany, not only in the kinds of plants but in their distribution and natural history. The knowledge of plants had been accumulating for some centuries and it was preserved in many tomes largely, of course, in Latin which was the language of learning. Yet the knowledge lacked system because there was no adequate plan of arrangement and no simple set of names. It was in these two fields that Linnæus made his outstanding contribution to biological science—in classification and in nomenclature.

Before his time the classificational schemes of Ray and Tournefort were in vogue. The work of Tournefort was nearly contemporaneous with Linnæus, his great Institutiones Rei Herbariæ, in three volumes, having appeared in 1700; he died the year after Linnæus was born. The title of this important Tournefortian work is hardly translatable into current English; perhaps it will suffice, for descriptive purposes, to call it "Principles of Botany" (herbaria: knowledge of plants, or botany). Two of the volumes are devoted to engravings of plants that in precision and beauty would do credit to books of our own time. Tournefort knew about 10,000 plants. These could be divided into trees (or big woody plants) and herbs, and these divisions separated into groups that bore petals and those that did not (petaliferous and apetalous) and further on the shape of the corolla. He had no names for plants in the modern sense but called them mostly by Latin phrases or clauses, as we shall presently see. He established the concept of the genus, that in maturer form has come down to the present day.

Sexuality in plants was not accepted by Tournefort, although the idea had been cogently advanced. It was taken up by Linnæus, however, who, in his examination of stamens and pistils in verification of the proposition, hit upon the plan of using them as a basis of classification. This great Linnæan system, although destined to be overthrown as the author of it himself had foreseen, enabled the plants of the world to be ranged in definite classes and orders, and it at once brought confusion into symmetry. There are thirteen classes based on the number of stamens, from 1 to 11, then 20, then many; two on relative lengths of stamens; four with connected stamens; one in which stamens and pistils (or styles) are consolidated; three with imperfect flowers, as monœcious, diœcious, polygamous; one without these organs, the cryptogams; this makes twenty-four classes. The classes are further divided into orders on the number of pistils or of styles.

This "sexual system," as it has been inappropriately called, actually brought together great numbers of plants closely related, and, on the other hand, it also divorced many natural relationships. By bringing order from scattered records it made the kinds of plants more available for study and comparison, and prepared the way for the natural families perfected by the Frenchmen Jussieu, uncle and nephew, and by Adanson, and by others to our own day.

The literary labors of Linnæus were phenomenal. He wrote about one hundred and eighty books, some of which were published after his death which occurred in 1778. The books that interest us particularly in the present narrative are Genera Plantarum ("Genera of Plants") which appeared in 1737 and went through several editions, and Species Plantarum ("Species of Plants") in 1753. "Some 7300 species are diagnosed in this work," according to Ellison Hawks in his Pioneers of Plant Study, "with their synonymy and localities-arranged, of course, according to the Sexual System. Although the number is less than those described by Tournefort or Ray, almost all had been examined by Linnæus himself and were represented in his herbarium." The work runs to 1200 pages, aside from indexes, bound in two compact octavo volumes, published in Stockholm. It is now rare, but a facsimile reproduction by photo-engraving is available. Subsequent editions of the Species by himself appeared in 1762-3 and 1764.

In the Genera, the concept of the genus was defined and recorded essentially as we know it at the present day; in the fifth edition, 1754, which is the most important issue for purposes of nomenclature, 1105 genera are described. In the second work, Species Plantarum, all the species of plants known to him at that time were described under the appropriate genera; and in the margin he gave a specific or indexing name, as we have observed in the case of Solanum PseudoCapsicum. He also developed the concept of varieties subordinate to species and entered varietal names in the margin in a different type. Subsequently he did similar service for animals.

Genera, species, varieties, these are the three categories of the forms of life, definitely stabilized by Linnæus, and these denominations we must under-

HOW PLANTS GET THEIR NAMES

stand before we can undertake the study of the kinds of plants and animals or approach the subject of nomenclature.

Pyrus is the genus of the pome fruits.

Malus is the apple species.

paradisiaca is a variety of the apple.

In writing this becomes

Pyrus Malus, the apple.

Pyrus Malus var. paradisiaca, the paradise apple. If we omit the species-name (or specific name), Malus, and write Pyrus paradisiaca we commit two errors: we make a new name, and we assert that the paradise apple is not a variety of the apple species but a separate species by itself, of distinct genesis in nature. It is exceedingly important that we do not confuse the concepts of species and variety, else we cannot speak and write of plants with discrimination.

It is impossible accurately to define what is meant by species. The naturalist gradually acquires the idea and it becomes an unconscious part of his attitude toward living things. Nature is not laid out in formal lines. Perhaps it will aid the inquirer if I repeat the brief definition I wrote in Hortus: A kind of plant or animal that is distinct from other kinds in marked or essential features, that has good characters of identification, and that may be assumed to represent in nature a continuing succession of individuals from generation to generation.

Even as simple a statement as this cannot be understood merely by reading it. The meaning gradually comes to one. The apple is one species, pear another, belonging to what Linnæus considered to be a single

genus or group; they are not varieties. If the reader wishes to go farther in this subject he may look up in Hortus the entries family, genus, variety. Let it be said, before we leave the subject, that the word species is either singular or plural: we speak of one species or of six species. When only one is meant, I have seen it written specie: but that is quite another affair, representing certain interesting pieces of metal I have known other persons to have in their pockets.

To the pre-Linnæans plants had no accepted or uniform short definite technical names. Thus to Gronovius (1739–43), Royen (1740) and others catnip was "Nepeta floribus interrupte spicatis pedunculatis," which is a brief description of the plant; Linnæus described it under Nepeta and put cataria in the margin, making the name Nepeta cataria, as we have it now (cataria, a late Latin word, "pertaining to cats").

To Johann Bauhin the watermelon was entered as "Citrullus folio colocynthidis secto, semine nigro"; Linnæus placed it in his genus Cucurbita with Citrullus in the margin, and the plant to him was Cucurbita Citrullus. The carnation in several works was written "Dianthus floribus solitariis, squamis calycinis subovatis brevissimis, corollis crenatis," which is a beautiful characterization; Linnæus made it Dianthus Caryophyllus.

These descriptive phrases as designations of plants seem strange enough to us, and bungling. But not all of them were so long. Before me is a pre-Linnæan designation of a maple: Acer orientalis, hederæ folio, oriental ivy-leaved maple. Then I pick up a current American nursery catalogue and find: Acer polymorphum dissectum pendulum. I have grown a flower-garden poppy under the name Papaver

Rhæas coccineum aureum, and a phlox as Phlox Drummondii rosea alba oculata. Perhaps the botanists of a few centuries ago did not have so much trouble with the titles as we imagine, particularly as they knew Latin.

It came that plants acquired two names, one representing the genus or family group, as Johnson is a family name, and the other the particular species. This is binomial nomenclature, by means of which all plants and all animals are known by all people in all countries who speak or write of them with precision. As a system it begins with Linnæus in Species Plantarum in 1753: that date is the starting-point for the naming of plants; the starting-point for animals is 1758, in the tenth edition of Linnæus' Systema Naturæ ("System of Nature"). In fact, however, Linnæus had employed specific names as early as 1745 in the index of a Swedish book recording his travels in the provinces Oland and Gothland, but they had not then become a system; and there are descriptive paragraphs in his Hortus Cliffortianus, 1737, headed with a binomial: Capsicum annum and Capsicum frutescens are examples. Again, a single word was used as a specific or trivial name in volume two of his Amænitates Academicæ, 1749.

We must not conclude from the foregoing discussion that two-word designation of plants was unknown before Linnæus. Open on my table is a choice vellum book of the Frenchman Carolus Clusius (whose name in French was L'Ecluse or L'Escluse or Lescluze), printed in 1576, on his botanical observations in Spain; here is a picture named Genista tinctoria, another

titled Dorycnium Hispanicum, and many others. These names were not part of an organized system, however; many of the plants were known by numbers, as Cytisus I, Cytisus II, Cytisus III, Cytisus IIII. These cases, and others that might be cited, show that nomenclature began to take form early in the modern historical period.

Then, as now, were there earnest enthusiastic students of plants, whose devotion would do credit to the best intentions of this our luxurious day. Read the paragraph about Clusius by Benjamin Daydon Jackson, recent master historian of botany: He "was almost as much distinguished by his personal misfortunes as by his sterling botanical merit. He travelled through Spain to observe the plants of that peninsula, and Hungary and Bohemia for alpine plants; in doing so he suffered greatly from accidents which one after another happened to him, and at length quite crippled him, but failed to quench his unappeasable ardour in the pursuit of the knowledge of plants. His Latin style is much praised for its purity, and as he was first to describe a very large number of new plants, his books are of great interest. He ended his days as professor of botany, at Leyden, in 1609."

A binomial is not only a name of a plant: it also places the plant in a system, and adds associated interests. Thus, when Linnæus named the winter cherry he related it to the potato, tomato, and the nightshades by placing it in the genus Solanum; he also associated with it the old Pseudocapsicum history: so that Solanum PseudoCapsicum is much more than a nom. This is true of all binomials by whomsoever made. When Michaux in 1803 "made" the species Rhododendron catawbiense he classified it by the act of put-

ting it in the genus Rhododendron and also recorded the Catawba region where he collected it,—"in montibus excelsis Carolinæ septentrionalis juxta originem amnis *Catawba*," in the high mountains of North Carolina near the head waters of the Catawba River.

The generic name is always part of the binomial: PseudoCapsicum is not sufficient to designate the winter cherry nor does catawbiense alone identify the rhododendron. If the plant is subsequently placed in another genus (for reasons yet to be disclosed), then the acquired genus lends its name: thus Pursh in 1814 described the species Azalea arborescens, the arborescent or tree azalea; but Torrey thought the azaleas should not be botanically separated from the rhododendrons and in 1824 he made the binomial Rhododendron arborescens; if this disposition is accepted, Pursh's name becomes a synonym. In 1894 I founded the species Prunus Besseyi, the western sand cherry, until that time not recognized as distinct from other native cherries, naming it in compliment to my illustrious friend and mentor, the late Charles E. Bessey; in 1898 Smyth put it over into the genus Cerasus as C. Besseyi, thinking the cherries to be so distinct from the plums as to merit a genus of their own, Cerasus having good history as a generic name: if one places all these stone-fruits in Prunus, Cerasus Besseyi becomes a synonym; if one prefers to adopt Cerasus, then Prunus Besseyi becomes a synonym.

As the species is subordinate to the genus, so is the variety subordinate to the species. Fraxinus excelsior is the European ash; F. excelsior var. asplenifolia is a form or kind of excelsior; sometimes such names are written without the abbreviation var., and we have then a straight trinomial, as Fraxinus excelsior

asplenifolia, but the sense or significance is not altered thereby.

The system of binomial nomenclature is one of the best inventions of men. It is effective; it is beautiful in its simplicity. It serves all men and women. It is endlessly extensible. It answered the purpose of Linnæus and his associates when the number of known plants was few; it is in daily use one hundred and eighty years later, when plants are numbered in the hundreds of thousands. It is similarly in use in the animal kingdom; the system served for the 4,236 animals named and described by Linnæus; it applies today for all the animals known to men, including the hundreds of thousands of insects.

Every binomial has meaning; it is significant. To know the names of the forms of life is one of the keenest of satisfactions; it brings one into relationship with living things, in endless variety; it multiplies the contacts.

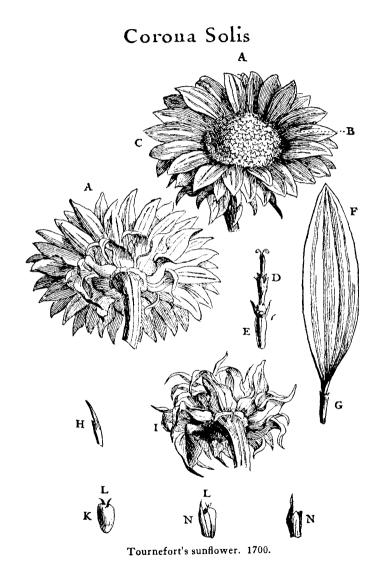
We have seen how Linnæus harvested the extensive records of his predecessors. Most of these antecessors are known to us as herbalists, persons who wrote of plants primarily in respect to their virtues in the art of healing. But some of them, as Tournefort, were interested directly in the study of plants with a view to identification and characteristics, much as the modern scientific spirit impels. Thus, in his account of Geranium in Classis VI, which includes herbs and subshrubs with rosaceous flowers, the genus is described in six Latin lines, and then follow eighty-one "species" (rather, kinds) as described but not named in preceding literature, all without reference to "vertues."

When Linnæus established his genus Geranium he cited Tournefort's plate, and then proceeded with a regular written diagnosis; he accepted thirty-nine species, some of which are now placed in Erodium and others in Pelargonium. Linnæus did not always accept the generic names of Tournefort.

The reader may wish to see some of the plates in Tournefort. We may begin with Corona Solis. It will be recognized that here we have the sunflower; Linnæus did not adopt Corona Solis although he cites the plate; he makes the genus Helianthus, Latinized from the Greek *helios*, sun, and *anthos*, flower; and thus do we say it to the present hour.

Tournefort's explanation of his plate of Corona Solis will interest us. At A is the radiating flower, the disc indicated by B; one of the many florets or flosculi is at D, with the embryo (fruit) at E; a neutral floret is at G, with its great corolla or ray F; at I is the calyx (involucre), and below are details of floral parts. At C is the true corona, the crown of Sol the sun.

Again, we may choose Avena, the oat, a beautiful picture; Linnæus accepted the name from Tournefort. At A are shown the many flowers in the "calyx" D; BC is a stamen, E pistil, and G the "seeds"; at I are fascicles, and they are combined in the long spike marked midway by HH. Once again, we may look at Lycopersicon the tomato, well shown in detail of fruit and flower; note that the flower, even in that early day, carried more than the normal five corollaparts and calyx-parts, seen entire in CA, with corolla removed in CD, back view at AB, front view at A. The whole fruit is at E, in section at F (and the many cells may be noted), seed at G.



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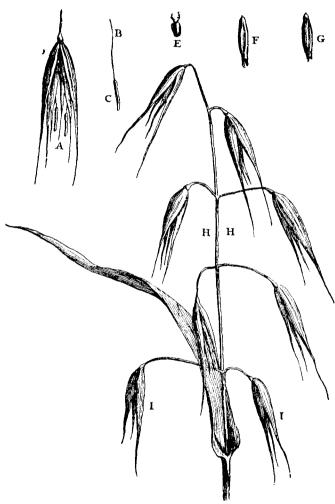
HOW PLANTS GET THEIR NAMES

Linnæus placed the tomato in Solanum, along with Tournefort's Melongena or eggplant, one becoming Solanum Lycopersicum and the other S. Melongena. Philip Miller, contemporary of Linnæus, kept the tomato and a few related species in a separate genus and under his treatment the plant became Lycopersicon or Lycopersicum esculentum; and this is the binomial under which it is now known although one of the current authorities re-unites it with Solanum. The lobulate tomato fruit in Tournefort is now seldom seen in the United States, the larger or more uniform "smooth" fruit being preferred; but this flat creased tomato was frequent when I began work on tomatoes now well-nigh fifty years ago; I still see it commonly in the tropics. It was not until Waring introduced the Trophy in 1870 that the modern race of North American tomatoes began rapidly to displace all others, with the development of commercial vegetablegardening. I remember the interest it aroused.

Thus, now, have we made brief acquaintance of Linnæus, sometimes known to moderns as the "father of botany" because plants cannot be conveniently studied and records made of them, whether in anatomy or physiology or genetics or taxonomy, until we can call them by name. His was a systematic synthetic mind. He united the scattered essentially unclassified records of centuries. He brought order into the study of plants. This order was particularly needed at that epoch when the expansion of trade had begun to bring strange and numerous plants from many parts of the world.

From this small account it is evident that Linnæus

Avena Aveine

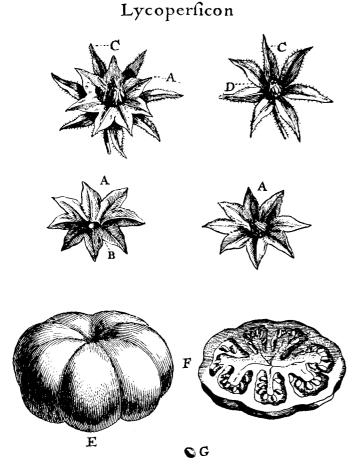


Tournefort's oat. 1700. Latin, Avena; French, Aveine (Avoine).

had a passion for arrangement or system. He systematized everything, a necessary process to bring together the accumulated records of centuries and to place them in orderliness. He was a synthesist, as Darwin in quite another field was a synthesist.

Linnæus was a systematist in natural history. When we speak of a systematist in zoölogy or botany we designate one who studies the kinds of animals and plants, naming and classifying them. In plants this field is called systematic botany, a cumbersome dubious term that should fall into disuse. Sometimes the subject is known as taxonomy, but this term signifies classification only. Perhaps we would do well to speak of this science as systematics, as we have mathematics, and the devotee of the subject is a systematist.

Systematics is oldest of the botanical sciences, and also, as we shall see, still new and commanding. The subject is as fresh and compelling as when Linnæus tramped the fells of Lapland or strode the fields of Sweden.



Tournefort's Lycopersicon or tomato. 1700.

IDENTIFICATION

A binomial or trinomial is of consequence only when applied to the plant to which it belongs and to none other. That is, nomenclature follows identification.

The first problem, then, in clarifying the names of cultivated plants is to identify the plants to be named. This fact is not sufficiently appreciated by plantsmen. We may make endless rules and standardized lists and yet names of plants may lie in confusion because

the plants are confused.

Identification is a primary necessity to the understanding of the world. We must accurately identify heavenly bodies before we can chart and study them. We must identify clouds if we are to understand the atmosphere and meteorology. The engineer identifies every element in a machine. The geologist knows his rocks by name. Chemists know and name the substances and reagents with which they work. The entomologist actually knows his insects before he attempts to combat them with much hope of success. The zoölogist knows his animals without guessing, and the botanist his plants; then only can he give them names. The historian identifies his events and the records of them. The physician is skilled in identifying symptoms. Any competent person is able to identify emotions and perhaps to classify them. To identify is a fundamental educational process.

So, then, if the plant-lover wishes to have accurate stabilized names for his plants he must be sure that his plants are the ones to which the names apply. He acquires this knowledge by experience; but it is a sad fact that error is acquired as rapidly as verity; per-

III

IDENTIFICATION

FROM a catalogue I ordered seeds of *Cleome gigantea*, spider-flower. The seeds produced *Polansia trachysperma*, clammy-weed.

Both these binomials are correct; they have regular botanical standing. They are accepted nomenclature; but identification of the plant was erroneous.

Seeds were purchased at cassabanana, that bears an ornamental gourd-like fruit; binomial name of cassabanana is Sicana odorifera. The seeds yielded wax gourd, Benincasa cerifera. Again both names are correct and the plants were correct, but the seed-packet was in error. Systems of nomenclature do not correct seed-packets.

Two plants are known as babys-breath. One is Gypsophila paniculata, of the pink family. The other is known in horticultural literature as Galium Mollugo, of the madder family. Both are in common cultivation. But it now transpires that the galium has been misidentified and the plant in gardens as G. Mollugo is really Galium aristatum; but that is not the fault of nomenclature.

The columnar Greek juniper is Juniperus excelsa var. stricta; but the plant sold under this botanical name in the North is Juniperus chinensis var. pyramidalis. Both names are correct by all the systems and rules.

haps it is acquired more readily because it does not demand proofs. A person may grow a plant for years under a given name and yet he may have the wrong plant. Gardeners rely on the label by which the plant is received; yet the label may not be reliable.

All this is not to suggest that plants commonly are erroneously determined; yet error in this respect is common enough in horticulture to present a real problem. The first requisite on the part of the grower is to know plants critically, to see differences and the minor marks of identification and to be able also to test his observations against technical descriptions in reliable books. This means a desire to know plants thus intimately; this is an essential preparation for real gardening; it yields one of the best of satisfactions, when one is able to see.

It is by no means always the nurseryman's or the seedsman's fault that his plants or seeds are misnamed. He, in turn, accepts the stock as he receives it from reliable sources. Some kinds of plants are very difficult to distinguish from related kinds. In many cases botanists themselves are not certain. There are cases in which plants have been in cultivation for generations under erroneous names, and have been so accepted in the best books. Thus, for example, the common little narrow-leaved flowering-almond of gardens and yards, in many double forms, was long known as Prunus japonica, but it now transpires that it is mostly Prunus glandulosa, the true P. japonica being less frequent. It is worth pausing a moment to see how this case works out.

In 1784 Thunberg the Swede, successor to Linnæus

and who, as we have noted, had travelled in Japan, described two dwarf prunuses, Prunus japonica and P. glandulosa. Subsequent authors supposed them to be the same, and the stock in cultivation came to be called P. japonica. When Emil Koehne took up the study of the prunus specimens collected in the Orient by the late E. H. Wilson he wrote in 1912 of Prunus glandulosa: "For a century this species has been always confused with P. japonica Thunberg, but it is very distinct and not connected with the latter by any intermediate forms." He therefore pointed out the differences between the two species. In the Cyclopedia of American Horticulture, 1901, the plant is entered as P. japonica; in its successor, the Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture, 1916, both species are entered and contrasted; subsequent observation indicates that P. japonica is apparently not as common in cultivation, at least not in the East, unless in test-grounds and botanical collections. If the gardener is distressed because names have been changed he should also be comforted by the fact that we have learned something: we have two of this type of dwarf flowering-almonds rather than one.

If the reader is not in too great haste to be up and away we shall pause still another paragraph on this interesting prunus case. It is simple enough for a plant-grower to call any prunus coming from Japan Prunus japonica; thus it unfortunately happens that the name has been applied in horticulture to the Japanese plum, for which the correct binomial is perhaps Prunus salicina; also to the pendent form of the rosebud cherry, P. subhirtella var. pendula: that is to say, P. japonica, Hort. is a synonym of both these names, but P. japonica, Thunb., is a good species by itself.

Also the name P. glandulosa is confused: Torrey and Gray applied this name in 1838 to the little "wild peach" of Texas, probably unaware of Thunberg's nomen. In 1840 Hooker placed this Texan plant in Amygdalus, a genus we shall meet again before we leave this book in connection with the peach. In Amygdalus the name glandulosa may stand, there bring no earlier glandulosa in this genus; but in Prunus the name cannot hold for the Texan plant because of the earlier glandulosa of Thunberg; to avoid the duplication in Prunus, Camillo Schneider in 1906 proposed the binomial P. Hookeri for the Texan plant, but it turns out that as early as 1843 Dietrich had made the name Prunus texana for the species, and by priority this binomial must hold if the bush is retained in the genus Prunus. Yet again: to Asa Gray in his long-popular Field, Forest and Garden Botany, 1868, our little flowering-almond was known as Prunus nana; when I revised that book in 1895, I was able to say that the true P. nana is quite another plant, and entered the narrow-leaved flowering-almond as P. japonica, "generally, but erroneously, called P. nana in gardens." We may add, also, that in gardening literature the name Prunus sinensis has been unauthoritatively applied to the species-group glandulosa. Let us hope that we finally have it correct: from 1784 to 1912 is not a long epoch for error to be in the process of solution, seeing that the world is yet ever so young.

In some cases a species started in confusion, without clear concept of a unit or type. *Iris germanica* is an example. It is a mixture or at least indefinite, probably even in the time of Linnæus a series of garden forms. There is no specimen in the herbarium of Linnæus bearing his identification, although there is one by his son. It is unknown in a native state. What to do in a case like this is to do the best we can. In some cases the nom is disregarded, as a nomen incertum or nomen dubium (uncertain or doubtful name). Sometimes it may be accepted for a certain plant by common consent, even without typification, but this practice is allowable, if at all, only in historic cases.

When errors are discovered and corrected as the result of identification, the horticulturist is not to complain that names have been changed: the plant has finally been properly determined, and he should be thankful. The accumulation of knowledge is a process of eliminating errors. We hope the process will not fall into disuse.

The naming of plants under rules of nomenclature is an effort to tell the truth. Its purpose is not to serve the convenience of those who sell plants or write labels or edit books; it is not commercial. Serving the truth it thereby serves everybody. In the end, nomenclature rests on the plants rather than on printed regulations.

In many or even in most cases the gardener himself cannot make sure of the identity of doubtful plants. He refers the case to one who knows. Unfortunately, there are none too many persons who are critical students in this field, and there seems to be no general desire in the United States for accurate determination of horticultural plants. This desire is active in wild or native plants.

There are two great aids to the determination of

plants, the botanic garden and the herbarium. Botanic gardens may abound in horticultural plants and herbaria usually lack them; yet the competent herbarium is indispensable so far as identification is concerned.

Plants subject to removal, to death and the substitution of others in their places, to carelessness of workmen with labels, to interference by visitors, to loss of numbers and tags, may readily become mislabelled. Botanic gardens exercise great care to keep plants properly labelled, but shifts and accidents occur in spite of oversight. Moreover, not nearly all the kinds of plants can be grown in any one botanic garden or be in condition for study at the same moment. Limits are set by acreage, cost, soils and climate. Of course the botanic garden has other great merits aside from accurate naming, if it is a scientific institution, but with these services we are not for the moment concerned.

An herbarium is a collection of dried plants. The plants are dead, perhaps for a hundred years; therefore the horticulturist may hold them in high contempt. Persons always ask whether such subjects keep their color; perhaps not; they are not made for looks in the gardener's sense: they are records. Yet they have a fitness and beauty all their own if properly prepared, preserved and housed; and anything not thus conscientiously wrought is likely to have slender value and certainly no attractiveness. Herbarium specimens are not souvenirs.

When an herbarium specimen is once properly placed on adequate paper and determined as to species or variety, it constitutes a practically unchanging record or evidence by means of which other plants,

living or dead, may be compared and verified. For be it known that the essential marks of difference between plants are retained in these cabinet specimens.

The specimens are "mounted," in the large herbaria, on sheets of strong white paper by being glued fast; the paper size in North America is $11\frac{1}{2} \times 16\frac{1}{2}$ inches, called "sheets." These sheets are placed mostly several together in strong heavy folders known as "covers." The covers are filed flat in inclosed pigeonholes. Nuts, cones, and the like are kept in boxes or other containers, and big soft fruits in liquid or represented by photographs.

The reader is already asking how long herbarium specimens will keep. We cannot yet answer that question because they have been made only a few centuries. The herbarium of Cæsalpinius, who died in 1603, is preserved in Florence. The question is, how long the paper will last. Bugs like these specimens and spend all their lives in them, becoming pulpy and juicy on materials that have been as dry as a manuscript for no end of time. If bugs are kept away, and damp and dust, and other proper care extended, these records are as permanent as most others that men make laboriously. Recently I received mounted specimens made by John Stuart, third Earl of Bute, Prime Minister, who died in 1792; plants and paper are attractively preserved.

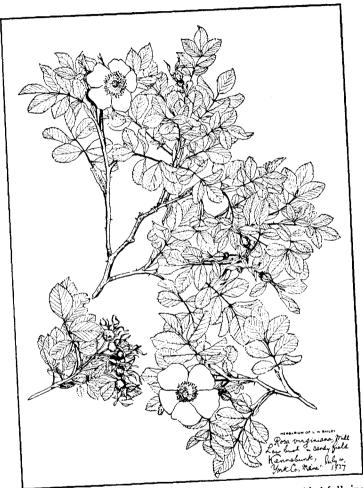
The herbarium is for identification and record. If there is a growing collection in connection with it, much will be gained; and a library is essential. It is at such places or institutions that the horticulturist as well as the botanist may expect accurate determinations to be made.

How to send material for identification requires a few paragraphs. At the start it is to be understood that many species of plants are so much alike that ample specimens are required to expose the differences. These dissimilarities may be in foliage, flower-bearing habit, flowers, pods, seeds; often the underground parts are characteristic. The larger the piece sent to a botanist, within decent limits, the easier it is for him to make determination and the more certain will be his findings. It is not fair to ask a person to spend time on fragments and unrelated pieces.

Specimens should be flat. Do not roll them; by the time folded fresh material reaches its destination it is likely to be in pieces or so curled as to be impossible of straightening out. Do not wrap in cotton or in excelsior or in moss; it is not right to impose on the recipient to pick out the stuff and to get the specimens untangled and straight.

The best material is that which is pressed flat, so that it may go on an herbarium sheet if necessary. The size need be no larger than an herbarium sheet (roughly 12 × 17 inches). It may be sent green, unless the distance is very great, between good thicknesses of soft paper (as newspaper), with stiff flat cardboard top and bottom, tied tight, kept flat, wrapped securely and sent by mail. Be sure that the living specimens are dry when put in the papers.

If the distance is so great or the material so soft or fragile that it is likely to mold in transit, specimens should be regularly pressed and dried, with frequent changes, before shipment is made.



Herbarium sheet of Rosa, in flower and fruit. Nearly one-third full size.

There may be exceptions to this procedure. Stiff things, like pine and spruce branches, may be sent in boxes, with the cones. Big fruits and nuts are also mailed in boxes. If it is desired to show blossoms in full natural condition, the material may be dispatched as cut flowers or pot plants are handled, but this is seldom necessary.

Put labels or tags with the specimens. The recipient will be aided by any information about the plants, as dates, stature, whether wild or cultivated, and if native then the habitat.

In other words, take pains in procuring and sending the material.

New species of plants are founded on dried specimens. When a botanist returns from collecting in some far place persons ask him at once whether he found any new (undescribed) species. He does not know. He must unpack his dried specimens and assort them; these specimens must be studied by special students of the groups, orchids being sent to one person, ferns to another, sedges to another, grasses to still another. Comparisons must be made with all other similar plants already preserved somewhere; literature must be consulted. Weeks or months or years afterwards the collector may be able to answer whether he has novelties.

If a species new to science is fortunately found among them, the description is drawn from the dried material, and the particular specimen is preserved as a "type," available for any competent person to examine in any of the years to come. No man or woman now "makes" a new species without preserving a type specimen as evidence.

In some cases, however, the process is reversed.

The person may be a student of a particular group of plants, knowing them all. He visits a new locality, and practically at sight recognizes undescribed species of the group or genus. But just the same he makes specimens and securely preserves them, all the more religiously because they are his favorites and he carries special responsibility.

Often new species are discovered in the herbarium itself. In these days one specimen of a species is not sufficient. The genus must be represented by material from many different regions to show range and geographic distribution and to exhibit variation. If a botanist says that a certain singular plant is native in Michigan or Alabama, it is expected that he has a specimen to prove it. When many specimens are assembled of a supposed single species it may be found that very distinct plants are involved, with consistent ranges. My first species, published in 1884 along with others, was a sedge discovered in mounted herbarium specimens; the plants were so much alike that two species were mounted on a single sheet; I separated one as Carex multicaulis, and it was years later that I first saw it in nature from the saddle on slopes of Mt. Shasta. Strangely enough, my latest species is also a segregate from scores of herbarium sheets (although I know it also in the field) "made" this very day and named Rubus abactus, not published as this is written, native in many places, as the specimens disclose, in the northeastern United States.

Confronted with a new species, the botanist or zoologist has choice of any name not before applied in that genus. It should, of course, agree with its genus in verbal Latin form; he may choose to commemorate a person who aided him, a fellow collector, or record the place or habitat; he may prefer an adjective descriptive of some feature or "character" of the plant. Once made and published, the name cannot be changed by himself or anybody else although it may not be adopted by others.

The herbaria of the world are the records of the plants so far as known. They are huge card indexes, with the plants glued on the cards. They are the conservators of the knowledge of the vegetation of the earth. Every year their value naturally increases.

The value and also the interest in these herbarium sheets lies in no small degree in the labels that accompany the plants. They make note of many lands; they are reminders of many collectors, dates perhaps long ago, lands on which the plants grew, all at one's command equally in the height of summer or the deeps of winter, in days of driving storm when one may travel indoors. In no way, perhaps, in such small compass does one condense so much human interest.

Before me is a cover of *Thymus Serpyllum*, an aromatic ground-cover known to gardeners as mother-of-thyme. We may pause to enjoy the name Serpyllum: related to a Greek word signifying creep or creeping, allied to serpent, taken into Latin as a name for the wild thyme, employed by pre-Linnæans as a generic name or substantive for a group of plants, in English still preserved as serpolet which is a name for creeping thyme, and given us permanently by Linnæus as the specific name of this particular Thymus; suggested in later time by names of small-leaved or thyme-leaved plants in other genera, as in the weedy sandwort *Arenaria serpyllifolia*, one of the bluets

Houstonia serpyllifolia, well-known synonym for the artillery-plant of greenhouses Pilea serpyllifolia. Here are reminders of histories, of men who collected the plants and perhaps grew them centuries past, fragrances of old books in calfskin and vellum.

If we are interested in the word Thymus we will find it in the Greek, associated with *incense* as one might suppose from the pungent aroma, taken into Latin for the thyme plant; it has no connection with the English word *time*.

Our Thymus Serpyllum is native abundantly in many parts of Europe and in central Asia as well as northern Africa. It is extensively naturalized in parts of North America, in some places in the East giving the landscape a purple tinge. It is also variable, and several binomials have been applied to the forms which are sometimes regarded as distinct species and are in gardens under separate names.

Now may we look at the specimens, as I take the cover in hand. First we see a plant from Mount Athos in Greece collected by Ballalas; then from Ingria, old district of Russia, 1860, "in locis arenosis siccis hinc inde copiosissime," which means that it was found in a dry sandy place and was very abundant; two localities in Denmark; chalk cliffs facing the sea at Freshwater in England; at Wagner Bay in the Island of Guernsey; open meadows and moors in Ranettan in Banffshire, Scotland; open field in Province Quebec; dry soil in Dorset, Vermont; three sheets from the Berkshires of Massachusetts, in meadows and low grounds; covering miles of fields and hillsides at Grand Gorge in the Catskills by myself in New York, and in Michigan introduced nearly fifty years ago; seven sheets in a botanic garden in Germany in variety,

one in the botanic garden in Edinburgh, six from similar institutions in North America; specimens of my own grown from French seeds and from American seeds, others cultivated by an American nurseryman, grown in southern California, hybrid with *Thymus pulegioides* wild in Spain at about 4,000 feet elevation. Here is a sweeping fragrant journey. Here also are indisputable records of distribution and identification.

Unfortunately, not many herbaria attempt to incorporate adequate material of carefully determined cultivated plants. These plants have received far too little systematic study. Nor is there a recognized need for keeping the plants in domains and gardens true to name as there is for wild plants. Too great dependence is placed on the label. There is, to be sure, demand for registration of horticultural varieties, but that is quite another subject in a separate field. Some day cultivated plants will be recognized to be worthy of record as showing our resources in different epochs and regions. Descriptions and printed notes are not real records of species of plants. But when that day comes, some of the species will have passed from cultivation and records cannot be obtained. The best records are contemporary.

Fortunately, Linnæus made an herbarium. It is preserved by the Linnean Society, in London. It shows what was had, at the beginning, although some of his material was early destroyed. It is naturally the most important single personal plant record in the world. In cases of doubt as to what he meant by a given species, competent persons may go to the

specimens themselves or have them examined by the custodians. This does not mean that he made specimens of all the species he described; some of the species are founded on descriptions and plates in previous books, and these become evidences, but of course they are not as infallible as the plants themselves.

Linnæus left instructions about his herbaria, meaning that there were two. "Let no rats or moth injure them. Let no naturalist steal a single plant. Be firm and careful to whom they are shown. Invaluable as they are, they will increase in value as time goes on." He stated that they comprised the greatest collection in the world (Jackson). "Do not sell them for less than 1,000 ducats," which would be approximately \$2,300. Yet the collection became greatly damaged.

Index to the Linnean Herbarium as it is now very carefully preserved discloses 13,832 sheets. This is indeed small as compared with the hundreds of thousands, or even millions, in the leading collections in our acquisitive and recording days. These contrasts indicate the growth of knowledge in two hundred years; and one wonders what will be the astonishing treasures in two centuries to come. Perhaps ten centuries hence persons will know so much as to be confused of their knowledge.

There are those who suppose that such treasures will not need to accrue as rapidly in the coming years seeing that the world is now explored. This is a precious fallacy. We may be able to place names all over the map of the world, but this does not mean that the areas are really known. Relatively few regions, even the oldest ones, have yet been completely

explored for plants; in fact, some of the oldest regions historically are among the least known. More critical exploration is disclosing overlooked species of plants in New England and New York and other territories long ago well mapped and contoured and taxed. Probably the world is not yet half really known; and I doubt whether we have collected and named one-half the kinds of plants. Vast regions of abounding vegetation are yet untraversed by the collector. New species are not discovered by airplane.

As the number of the known species of plants increases the more critical does the identification and description of new ones become. When Linnæus described and named his nine species of Cratægus (hawthorn), it was simple enough to distinguish between them, and the accounts were brief; now when we know 900 species, it is evident that greater pains must be taken to separate one from another, with closer study, more detail, greater care not to duplicate and confuse names. This increasing complexity requires the clearest records both in herbarium specimens and in literature. Moreover, the species formerly described must ever be subject to greater scrutiny, and be more and more clearly defined.

The naming of plants is increasingly much more than making an enumeration. The present-day systematist knows plants both in the field and in the herbarium; he takes into account their ranges or distribution, habitats and soils, ecological relations, variations, behaviors, and as far as possible the heredity: his problems are biological.

Moreover, the literature or written record of the subject is rapidly increasing. It is scattered in many books, proceedings, journals, separate contributions,

in many parts of the world in many languages. The worker must acquire skill in bibliography and citation as well as in observation. The mere problem of keeping the names straight, clearly defined, adequately published, assumes large proportions, that the future may have less trouble with our work than we have had with that before us. It may seem a simple thing to name and describe a new species of plant, but the effort takes one far afield and away into the past.

In the seed-plants or sporophytes something like a million recognized binomials have been applied. There are other great numbers in the "flowerless plants," as the ferns and allies, mosses, fungi, liverworts, lichens, algæ, bacteria. Perhaps half or more of these names are synonyms or duplicates. Great numbers of new species are being described every year. In fact, probably there has never been such great activity as now in the founding and naming of species and natural varieties, nor ever before such painstaking and critical work. I suppose the same may be said in zoölogy. The approach to the subject has changed radically in the last quarter century. In all this excellent work the central problem is identification.

For horticulturists and botanists alike, the primary problem is not nomenclature but identification.

The usual interest in plants is associated with stature, shape, texture, color, fragrance, season, habit, habitat, tractability to cultivation, and this is correct; if to this response is added something of the life history and also a sensitive knowledge of differences, one is led into the larger beauty.

IV

RULES OF NOMENCLATURE

Nomenclature means the naming of things under a system. Its root is Latin, nomen, name, a word also taken over into English. To plant-growers, nomenclature is likely to represent a nightmare of names. The word itself is apparently difficult, if one may judge by the different ways of mispronouncing it. The word is accented on the first syllable, with a long o: no-menclature.

Common, vernacular, English names of plants do not constitute a method. Each name is a law unto itself; it may originate without reference to any other name; it may be an old folk-name, or a chance appellation; it may be a degenerate form of another word, as "markery" is of "mercury." It may be merely a translation of a Latin binomial, as "spotted begonia" for Begonia maculata: these transfers, being merely verbal, are not likely to become common. Another class of cases includes Latin generic names that have become vernacular, or technical and common names that coincide, as begonia, aster, acacia, spirea, clematis, geranium, magnolia, smilax, weigela, asparagus.

Vernacular names are of all kinds and degrees of usefulness as well as of origin. Some of them are in process of becoming obsolete, and in time will be only historic. Common names represent a growing more or less changing vocabulary.

It is a fascinating quest to trace the real living vernaculars, those that have become embedded in language. They have interesting relations with habits, ideas and practices in times past. They do not constitute a connected procedure, however, and do not come within an orderly system for the naming of plants.

If a person is interested in a given vernacular name, he goes to the dictionary for its orthography, origin and meaning, not to a code of nomenclature. Perhaps he can trace it through several languages. Its root may be Anglo-Saxon, Old German, Danish, French, Latin, Chinese, American Indian. Value of a common name is determined by usage rather than by priority.

For common names of plants, therefore, the reader is referred to an unabridged dictionary, particularly if he is skilled in tracing origins as given just after the entry of the word. Every word is an historical story. If the reader wants lists of English names, he will find them in the indexes to the different botanical manuals, and they are given in the text along with the Latin binomials. There are also special books devoted to the common names of plants. A book of critical value for general reference is the Dictionary of English Plant-Names, J. Britten and R. Holland, published about fifty years ago by the English Dialect Society. There are a number of smaller books in England and America. Standardized Plant Names, 1923, prepared by American Joint Committee on Horticultural Nomenclature, is replete in English names of cultivated plants, old and new. A monumental work of international character is the two-volume Dictionary of Plant Names by H. L. Gerth Van Wijk published at Haarlem in 1911 and 1916 by the Dutch Society of Sciences, giving lists in English, French, German and Dutch. The student will find many aids if he enters the fertile field of the common names of plants.

Common names lack precision; therefore, their practical utility is limited. Sage-brush may mean several kinds of plants; soft maple means different species of maple, depending on the region; in fact, maple itself may mean Acer or Abutilon, or in Australia something different from either; huckleberry has no definite application; dogwood is one thing in North America, another thing in England, and still another in the tropics; cowslip is a swamp plant in the United States, an old garden flower in England; pine is Pinus in the northern hemisphere, Araucaria, Callitris or other things in Australia; even the familiar old word hollyhock includes two species, and the pumpkin may mean three; potato is one product in New England and another in Alabama; yam of Louisiana is a very different commodity from that of the island of Trinidad; almond is a familiar nut of commerce, or a little garden ornamental bush, or in the tropics neither one; nasturtium of horticulturists is one plant, of botanists quite another plant; examples could be multiplied indefinitely.

Botanical binomials are exact. They apply to one kind of plant, critically distinguished from all other kinds. They are employed by writers in any language. Two difficulties confront the plant-grower in respect to them: they are "hard," and they themselves are likely to change.

It is true that many of the Latin names are difficult and "big": examples are Chrysanthemum, Gladiolus, Pelargonium, Gypsophila, Hemerocallis,

Amaryllis, Hydrangea, Delphinium, Aquilegia, Narcissus, Philadelphus, Pyrethrum, Ranunculus, Dahlia, Cratægus, Coreopsis, Petunia, Sempervivum, Viburnum, Calceolaria; perhaps the toughest of the lot is Rhododendron. Curious case of preference is that of Rhododendron, which seems not to be displaced by the English name rose-bay.

It will profit us to pause yet another moment to emphasize again the fact that the Latin binomial classifies the plant as well as names it. The binomial carries relationships and leads to understanding. Common names not only avoid relationships but many of them suggest false kinships: asparagus fern is not a fern, and the name should be transposed to read fern asparagus; pineapple is neither a pine nor an apple; calla lily is not a lily nor does it even belong to the lily family; pepper-grass is not a grass; horse-chestnut has nothing to do with a chestnut; grapefruit has no relation to grapes; alligator pear, an absurd name still in use, is no kin with a pear; castaneas of commerce (Brazil-nuts) have no connection with the genus Castanea (chestnut). Recently my attention was called to a man who grew tobacco from seeds obtained from Indians; desiring to know its Latin name he looked in the indexes of books for Indian tobacco and then called his plant Lobelia inflata, but in fact it was a true tobacco or Nicotiana.

Difficulties in the change of names may now be considered; and this brings us to the Rules of Nomenclature, the nature of which must be apprehended before one can understand names of precision. Discussion of changes and their reasons comprises the

remainder of this chapter; but the botanist thinks of them not as changes but as results of procedure: he applies the rules; if a change arises it is secondary in the process. We shall try to understand the usual methods in their simple elements.

A basic principle in nomenclature is priority of publication, although the application of this law may be modified or in certain cases withheld, under proper authority, to allow of more important gains. It is agreed to begin binomial nomenclature of higher plants with the first edition of Linnæus' Species Plantarum, 1753, with which is associated the support of the fifth edition of his Genera Plantarum, 1754.

There was not a general adoption of Linnæan binomial nomenclature immediately following the publication of Species Plantarum. Thus the famous Gardeners Dictionary of Philip Miller, begun in 1731, did not adopt Linnæus until the seventh edition, 1759, and then incompletely; the great eighth edition, 1768, is his perfected use of binomials. Nor did the binomial system have the importance for many years after Linnæus that it has assumed now, with the greater number of recognized plants and the more critical care given to identification, diagnosis, and bibliography. Modern libraries are much more complete in books and periodicals dealing with the kinds of plants, and comparisons can be made more accurately than ever before. It has become necessary to formulate precise rules to eliminate old duplications and disharmonies and to prevent them in the future.

These rules, on an international basis, are recent, and we are yet in the midst of the changes resulting

from the application of the latest of them although probably past the worst of the difficulties. The varying practice of nearly two centuries is to be assorted and harmonized. Before the formulation of comprehensive and careful rules, the practices in the use of binomials were largely personal or on the pattern of prominent authorities.

Authority in botanical nomenclature proceeds from international conventions of persons pursuing science. Such conventions are congresses composed of delegates or representatives of regional or departmental scientific bodies. That is, binomial nomenclature is a problem in science.

A code was adopted by a Botanical Congress held in Paris in 1867, but it did not acquire the authority attained by more recent enactments. American systematists formulated rules late in the past century, and a Nomenclature Commission was established. This Commission at a meeting in Philadelphia in 1904 approved a set of canons. This code was radically different in principle from that of the Paris Congress. There was activity in other parts of the world. An International Botanical Congress was held in Vienna in 1905, at which a set of International Rules for Botanical Nomenclature chiefly of Vascular Plants was adopted. This formulation was based on the Paris code of 1867. The American set of principles was presented at Vienna but not adopted, whereupon the adherents declined to accept the Vienna formulation and established the American Code of Botanical Nomenclature. Other Americans accepted the International Rules. Thus it came about that in the United States there have been two codes of nomenclature for a quarter century. The two sets agree in many particulars. At the Second International Botanical Congress in 1910 at Brussels, modifications were made in the Rules, and again at the Fifth Congress at Cambridge, England, in 1930; and at the latter Congress adjustments were effected and certain of the American-code position accepted.

The relative merits of the International and American rules or codes are not under discussion here; they are naturally technical and of little interest to the general inquirer. Certain features essentially common to both may be mentioned for the purpose of explaining how binomials are made and changed, and also two provisions in which they radically differ. If phraseology is quoted it is from the International Rules, to which the writer has adhered, in part just because they are international and because he has worked with cultivated plants that are native in various regions of the world and have been described in many countries.

"Natural history can make no progress without a regular system of nomenclature, which is recognized and used by the great majority of naturalists in all countries" is the opening statement of the International Rules in the English version; and the Rules are "destined to put in order the nomenclature which the past has bequeathed to us, and to form the basis for the future."

We have already learned that the Latin appellation is in two parts, the generic name and the specific; and there may be a varietal name subordinate to the species: in *Prunus Persica* (peach) Prunus is generic and Persica specific; in *P. Persica* var. nucipersica (nectarine) we add a varietal name. With this basis

and the principle of priority in mind, we may proceed.

Each natural group (as species) can bear in science only one valid designation, and that the oldest. When a species is moved into another genus, the first specific epithet must be retained. That is, the first species-name follows the plant into whatever genus it may be placed by different authors, unless there is some special obstacle. The peach was named Amygdalus Persica by Linnæus in Species Plantarum; when subsequent authors combined Amygdalus with Prunus, the peach became Prunus Persica. Several writers in early days brought the peach over into Prunus, as that genus was enlarged to cover the pomological stone-fruits. Apparently the earliest regular transfer was by August Johann Georg Karl Batsch in 1801, Weimar, in Beyträge und entwürfe zur pragmatischen geschichte der drey naturreuche nach ihren verwandtschaften: Gewächsreich. Tournefort called the peach Persica (the word peach is derived from Persia, whence it was then supposed to have come) and Philip Miller in a post-Linnæan edition of his Gardeners' Dictionary adopted the name as generic, and the peach became Persica vulgaris; this disposition has not been accepted in recent time. The synonymy of the peach, if one prefers to keep it in Prunus, becomes:

Prunus Persica, Batsch in Beytr. und Entwürfe Pragm. Geschichte, i, 30 (1801).

Amygdalus Persica, Linn. Sp. Pl. 472 (1753).

Persica vulgaris, Mill. Gard. Dict. ed. 8 (1768).

The var. nucipersica must follow the peach in whatever binomial it may acquire. Of course the name Persica cannot be applied to any other species in Prunus, but may be written in other genera, as it is in Syringa persica (Persian lilac). These two uses of the word persica as a specific name we shall meet again.

Frequently it happens that a species must have a new diagnosis (technical description), the original account having been found to be insufficient or even in part erroneous; or what was considered to be one species (as in the case of *Prunus japonica* mentioned on page 41) may turn out to be two or more species. These changes in definition, however, do not change the name; one must only be sure what plant was intended in the original name and diagnosis, and the name holds for that plant, even though the definition of it was imperfect. That is, a name is a name, not a description.

To determine just what plant the author meant by his name and definition, his original specimen is consulted, as we have already learned: that herbarium plant is the type. In case (as often with the early authors) there was no type specimen, recourse is had to a picture he may have cited; the record of nativity may aid in identifying the subject. To identify the plant intended in such cases often requires clever detective work, with good knowledge of the group to which the plant belongs and the assorting of probabilities. These subjects are full of delightful puzzles.

Good example of the misinterpretation of the name of a conspicuous tree for more than a century and a half is the case of the cottonwood of the eastern United States. One of the several kinds of poplar in eastern North America is the tacamahac or so-called balsam poplar, a narrow-topped tree with very sticky bal-

samy buds and long leaves whitish underneath, growing mostly in the northern parts; another poplar is the cottonwood, a very broad-topped tree with little balsam odor and very broad leaves, widely distributed. (Poplar of the lumber trade is not a poplar at all but tulip-tree or liriodendron). Linnæus in 1753 founded the species Populus balsamifera (balsam-bearing) with "Habitat in America septentrionali" (North America). He did not describe the tree except as he quoted phrases from earlier works, one of the references being the full definition by Mark Catesby in the illuminated Natural History of Carolina, Florida and the Bahama Islands, 1731-1743. The name P. balsamifera was confidently applied to the northern balsameous poplar for more than a century, yet it would be strange if Catesby meant that species when writing of the plants and animals of Carolina, Florida and the Bahamas. Meantime Aiton in his Hortus Kewensis of 1789, being a catalogue of the plants growing in the gardens at Kew near London, had described Populus monilifera from eastern North America; this was plainly the cottonwood, and so the name was long applied in this country. It was discovered, however, that Humphrey Marshall had described the cottonwood in his Arbustrum Americanum, the first American publication on trees and shrubs, as early as 1785, under the name Populus deltoide. Presuming his name to have been a misprint, the cottonwood came later to be known as P. deltoides, Marshall. It was apparent that something was wrong in the nomenclature of these poplars, but it was only recently that the Catesby specimen preserved in the British Museum was examined and correctly identified, with the result that Sargent in 1920 authoritatively applied the Linnæan P. balsamifera to the cottonwood, and both monilifera and deltoides became synonyms of it. This left the northern poplar theretofore known as balsamifera apparently nameless; but the tireless gardener-botanist, Philip Miller, in an edition of his Gardeners Dictionary in 1768 had described that tree as Populus tacamahacca, adapting an Indian name; and so this balsamaceous poplar is latterly known. Other specific and several varietal names are involved in these confusions but they need not be recorded here; perhaps the reader is himself by this time confused, but this is a simple case as compared with others that might be reviewed for his benefit. Question now remains whether the name balsam poplar shall still be applied to the balsam poplar, or transferred to the cottonwood (which is balsamifera) or dropped altogether; this I leave to the entertainment of the reader. These changes may seem grievous to the nurseryman, but are in the interest of truth.

Now may we return to consideration of the rules, about which this chapter is more or less concerned, although the poplar case shows how rules apply themselves when identification becomes finally clear. Yet it is not amiss if we pause to examine two statements in the Linnæan account of Solanum Pseudo Capsicum, on page thirteen. In the first sentence Linnæus speaks of sessile umbels of flowers, the umbel-like clusters being without peduncle or stalk; in the second sentence, taken from his Hortus Cliffortianus, the flowers are said to be solitary. The pictures he quotes do not show the flowers to be umbelled nor are they so in the plant on my table. Descriptions of the leaves

are not harmonious. There is a specimen in the Linnean herbarium in London but I have not seen it or a photograph of it. What these differences signify I do not know nor shall I now inquire; perhaps the natural variability of the plant accounts for these statements: but these are the kinds of disagreements that must be resolved when one comes to critical study.

On page 5 of this book we discovered the nomen Solanum Capsicastrum on a seed-packet of Jerusalem cherry. That name is in good standing, having been published a hundred years ago in a German horticultural magazine, as native in Brazil. It is reckoned a grayish plant because of thick pubescence whereas PseudoCapsicum is accounted green and smooth, and there are other recorded differences. These differences seem to vanish in cultivation; it has been suggested that the garden plants may be hybrids, but this point cannot be determined by surmise. Question is, whether plants grown as Jerusalem cherry are one species or two, or whether PseudoCapsicum and Capsicastrum are really distinct. We have here again a definite problem in identification to be worked out by careful study; in the meantime and until the question is determined I know the common Jerusalem cherry as Solanum Pseudo-Capsicum as others have known it before me.

A binomial long applied to a plant and appearing continuously in the literature is subject to displacement if an older adequately published name is found. Example is the common greenhouse heliotrope. This is always known in horticulture as *Heliotropium peruvianum*, so named by Linnæus in the second edition of Species Plantarum, 1762. It turns out, however, that Linnæus had founded a species *H. arbor-*

escens as early as 1759 in the tenth edition of his Systema Naturæ. The two plants are the same, and Heliotropium arborescens comes up and H. peruvianum goes down into synonymy.

Whether a genus shall be divided into two or more (as Pyrus into Pyrus, Malus, Cydonia) or whether two or more genera are combined into one (as Azalea included in Rhododendron) is not a question of rules or codes. Regulations provide the procedure when segregations or combinations are to be made. Such changes depend on the judgment of the worker.

Similar remarks may be made in reference to species. Thus Regel described the honeysuckle Lonicera Alberti from Turkestan; Rehder thinks it is not specifically distinct from spinosa and makes it Lonicera spinosa var. Alberti. The Swiss botanist, the first DeCandolle, called kohlrabi Brassica oleracea var. caulo-rapa; the Italian Pasquale thought it a good distinct species and named it Brassica caulorapa. All these authors were within their rights.

What constitutes a species is again to be judged or decided by the person, as we have learned. No one single mark or feature determines the point. Usually the systematist relies on a combination of differences; one character, as shape of seed-pod, must be found to be associated or correlated with other characters (perhaps of flowers or leaves or habit) before he is ready to describe the plant as a separate species. The tendency is to consider the plant as a whole before deciding to call it new, in respect also to range, habitat, and field characters. More characters are available than a few years ago by which to check up on specific dif-

ferences. Recently aid is provided in the chromosomes, which are bodies in the nucleus recognized at time of cell-division, revealed under microscope technique. The number of chromosomes is usually constant in each pure species, as far as investigations have proceeded. This evidence is welcomed by systematists, but to base species on chromosome character alone would not be convincing. Of course we must ever be ready for any new concept of species or genus resulting from study. At present, the work in cytology (the ology of cells) is making great headway.

Two general schools of thought are in evidence in respect to natural limits of genera, some students preferring to keep related groups together in large genera and others to segregate them under special generic names. Whether the currants and gooseberries shall be kept together in the single genus Ribes, as has been the prevailing custom until contemporaneous time, or divided into Ribes (the currants) and Grossularia (the gooseberries) rests on the choice of the investigator which again is largely determined by the theory or concept of a genus. The privilege of dividing or uniting cannot be denied. Plantsmen are likely to ask why agreement cannot be reached on such questions: yes, when we agree on politics, art, economics, religion, and all else; but the larger compensation considers it to be undesirable that all persons shall be of one mind. Yet, nevertheless, when certain systematic questions have run their course, our successors may find themselves concurring in certain opinions of secondary importance that today are troublesome.

When old species-names attach themselves to a novel genus-name, what is called a "new combination"

results. If, for example, the native grapes are considered to be of two natural genera, Vitis proper, and Muscadinia comprising the muscadines, then rotundifolia (to which the Scuppernong belongs) leaves Vitis and makes a new combination as Muscadinia rotundifolia. The shifting of names from genus to genus, or from species to variety and variety to species, as may follow with different personalities and closer study, results in many novel combinations. The nomenclature expresses the facts in nature as the particular author interprets them.

To avoid disadvantageous changes in nomenclature of genera by the strict application of the principle of priority, the International Rules provide a list of generic names that must be retained in all cases. The retained or conserved names are by preference those that have come into general use in the fifty years following their publication or which have been used in monographs and similar works up to the year 1890. A long list of such nomina conservanda was appended to the International Rules enacted in 1905, and a smaller list was added as a result of the Congress of 1910.

It is in the nomina conservanda that probably the greatest differences in practice occur between the International Rules and the American Code so far as horticultural nomenclature is concerned. Thus, Zinnia is a retained name (nomen conservandum), Linnæus, 1759, as against Crassina, Scepin, 1758; Carya as against Hicoria; Ardisia as against Icacorea; Shepherdia as against Lepargyrea; Desmodium as against Meibomia; Dicentra against Capnoides; Smilacina rather than Vagnera; and many more.

Not every nomen conservandum turns out, on investigation, to be an exact equivalent of the nomen rejiciendum or rejected name. A case in point is the palm name Chamædorea, Willdenow 1806, as against the rejected name Nunnezharia, Ruiz & Pavon, 1794. The Willdenovian genus is founded on a Venezuelan palm, the Ruiz-Pavonian on a Peruvian palm. If further studies should disclose marked differences between the two groups, so much so as to constitute distinct genera in the opinion of a competent investigator, it would be allowable to retain Nunnezharia for the genus of Peru but it is estopped from displacing Chamædorea.

Another series in which strict application of the priority rule is halted by the International Rules but not by the American Code is when two identical names come together to form a binomial. Catalpa is an illustration. To Linnæus this tree was Bignonia Catalpa, thereby preserving the American Indian name. In 1771 Scopoli separated the catalpas from the bignonias as another genus, and when Thomas Walter published his Flora Caroliniana in 1788 he made the common American species Catalpa bignonioides (bignonia-like). Under the strict rule of priority the earliest specific name follows the plant into whatever genus it may go and the tree becomes, in that case, Catalpa Catalpa. The International Rules prohibit such duplication of names, and under that procedure the name of the tree is Catalpa bignonioides. Subsequently John A. Warder recognized another catalpa in the eastern United States, Catalpa speciosa.

Similar case of duplicate names is Sassafras, which we shall soon meet again. This was Laurus Sassafras to Linnæus, perpetuating the vernacular name. Under the practice of the American Code the name of this tree automatically becomes Sassafras Sassafras if separated from Laurus in the genus Sassafras; under the International Rules another name must come up. Other examples are Malus Malus, apple, if taken out of the genus Pyrus; Citrullus Citrullus, watermelon; Lagenaria Lagenaria, white-flowered or sugar-trough gourd, if retained in the genus Lagenaria; Barbarea Barbarea, winter-cress; Vitis-Idæa Vitis-Idæa, mountain cranberry, when separated from Vaccinium.

Publication of a new species is in a scientific journal or proceedings or authoritative book or contribution available to the public. Communication of new names at a public meeting, or the placing of names in collections or gardens open to the public, or at exhibitions, do not constitute publication, as allowed by the regulations and accepted by botanists. The International Rules require that a diagnosis, at the time of original publication, shall be in Latin, that it may be equally understandable by competent persons in all lands; this article was reaffirmed at the Fifth Congress, 1930, in England. Latin to the systematist, as to many others, is a living language; it may be very different from the classical language, however, in its vocabulary.

A new name not associated with a diagnosis or description is a nomen nudum (sometimes abbreviated as nom. nud.) or naked name, and has no standing; sometimes in lists the entry nomen indicates a name

only and therefore not tenable. Many names long more or less current in lists and catalogues and journals must be discarded for this reason; in that case, the next name in succession of date, regularly published and not otherwise disbarred, must be adopted.

Sassafras was named Laurus variifolia by Salisbury in 1796, and this name has been brought over into Sassafras as S. variifolium (the Linnæan specific name Sassafras making a tautological binomial); but Salisbury's name is a nomen nudum and therefore does not count. The later name Sassafras officinale, 1831, is the next name in order, not barred by the International Rules. Pineapple was named Bromelia comosa by one of Linnæus' students in 1754 and the adjective has been brought into the present genus Ananas, but the nom is a nomen nudum and the much later name Ananas sativus of Schultes, 1830, is current.

Many floating nomina nuda are in horticultural literature. They originate as names on exhibition specimens, in reports of meetings, in trade lists, and become current; but as they have never been published they cannot be identified as of a given date. Thus the plant known in the United States as Boston ivy and in England as Japanese ivy was long called Ampelopsis Veitchii; but that is an unpublished trade binomial, and must become a synonym of A. tricuspidata even though we know in fact what plant was intended. The synonym is recorded as A. Veitchii, Hort., that is, of horticulturists or gardens. The old genus Ampelopsis was not homogeneous, and it has now been divided, as we define the categories more exactly; Boston ivy becomes Parthenocissus tricuspidata.

Repeatedly has it been said or indicated in this writing that names of species and botanical varieties once regularly published cannot be changed, not even by the authors of them. In the language of the Rules, no one is authorized to reject, change or modify a name because it is badly chosen, or disagreeable, or another is preferable or better known. Of course the name may not be adopted by subsequent writers, but its dismissal would be on other grounds and its form would not be changed.

Moreover, the original spelling of a name must be retained, except in cases of manifest typographical error. One may not correct them because they are etymologically incorrect; these names are technical terms. The case of Penstemon is in point. It is commonly written Pentstemon, but the earliest post-Linnæan form is Penstemon, and this spelling may be favored. Linnæus described these plants, such as he knew, under Chelone. It is said that Penstemon is linguistically incorrect, inasmuch as the name means "five stamens" and Pent- must be the first element; so is Pentstemon inexact; the proper form in etymology is Pentastemon, and this spelling has been revived in recent time. The simplest way is to follow rules in this case, and go back to the earliest form. Endless names would have to be changed if we tried to correct them all on the basis of linguistic form; and even then in many cases the doctors would not agree.

One of the most troublesome of the nomenclature regulations in respect to horticultural practice is the so-called "homonym rule." A species-homonym, in botanical usage, is an earlier use of the same name

in the given genus. Thus, we have had before us the case of *Prunus glandulosa* of Torrey, applied to the wild Texan peach; the name *glandulosa* is a duplicate in Prunus of the earlier *P. glandulosa* of Thunberg and therefore cannot be employed in the genus as Torrey proposed. "Two species of the same genus cannot bear the same specific name" in the language of the Rules.

Nevertheless, to avoid unnecessary changes the International Rules as first adopted provided that a name need not be rejected "because of the existence of an earlier homonym which is universally regarded as non-valid," that is, dead and buried, improperly made or published, or otherwise out of use. The American Code, however, allows no exceptions: "A name is rejected when preoccupied (homonym)," and a specific homonym is defined as a name that has been published for another species under the same generic name. This provision has now been incorporated in the International Rules.

The difficulty in the operation of this regulation in horticultural subjects is not alone the fact that many well-settled names may be upset because an older but perhaps unused name may be discovered to have been employed in the genus, but because new combinations may have to be made in names of any number of cultigens with the shift in species-names, thereby complicating citations and literature without appreciable gains. The perplexing case of the Douglas fir is an example. Cases of this kind lend weight to the horticultural demand that certain names, as of important plants, be accepted and standardized by agreement and thereafter not be subject to change.

If the indication of the binomial is to be accurate

and complete, and in order to verify the date, it is necessary to quote the author who first published the name: Parthenocissus quinquefolia, Planch. (Virginia creeper) means that the combination of these two words to represent a particular plant is on the authority of Planchon. The addition of the authority is a form of book-keeping.

It was not always so. Linnæus did not cite authorities for binomials; his references were to literature. So with Willdenow, his editor who extended Species Plantarum into many volumes as a fourth edition (Linnæus made three). Thus Monarda fistulosa (common horse-balm of eastern North America) is not accredited to Linnæus although named by him. As phytography (the description of plants) became more exact and the literature expanded, it was necessary to keep closer track. Authorities came to be quoted with every binomial in all technical or floristic work.

This book-keeping has now gone a step farther. Virginia creeper, for example, was first described by Linnæus as Hedera quinquefolia (five-leaved). To give clue to both events, the original publication and the transfer to another genus, it is now customary to write Parthenocissus quinquefolia (Linn.) Planch. The name in parentheses, in case of such double citation, is the author of first or original publication. The International Rules allow such double citation: "the original author can be cited only in parenthesis"; the American Code is more mandatory: "the name of the original author should appear in parentheses."

This author-citation is of course essential in technical floristic works and similar writings; but the general public, horticulturists, nature-lovers, should not

be asked to remember such citations although they ought to know what they signify when names are to be traced. The assumption that the authority is undetachable has led to the pedantry of carrying it in popular writings, even to the extent of the double citation, where the additional element becomes cumbersome, is of no significance to the reader, and may introduce a confusing distraction. It is necessary to endeavor to make binomials attractive in general writings, that their value may be more widely recognized; and this requires simplicity of presentation.

The whole subject of botanical and horticultural nomenclature is therefore well in hand in international organizations and in societies representing particular classes of plants. Standing committees of the International Botanical Congress carry the subject in the interregnums. The present organization on nomenclature comprises an executive committee of seven members, editorial of four members, general committee representing sixty-one countries and certain ex-officio members, eight special committees on the main subdivisions of the plant world.

If any cultivator has had the patience to follow this book to the present point it is undoubtedly because he has hoped for at least a paragraph about horticultural nomenclature; and we now come to this subject. It is evident that cultivated plants cannot be separated from wild species in their nomenclature seeing that they were once wild and probably are still wild somewhere. Moreover, the nomenclature of a genus cannot be divided as between cultivated and feral subjects. For example, the great genus Astragalus, with several

hundred species in the northern hemisphere and many of them ornamental, is barely represented in cultivation; naturally there could not be a separate system of naming for these fortunate few. Again, rules of nomenclature must regularize the naming of new species as they are discovered, many of which are sooner or later brought into cultivation; and the names of all species, old and new, must follow the regulations.

There are horticultural varieties of species, however, and hybrids, that may not be covered by the regular rules for binomials. Both the International Rules and the American Code provide for the naming of hybrids, and the former carry a general statement on the names of "forms and half-breeds."

The Second International Botanical Congress was held in Brussels, Belgium, in 1910. At that time a subsection considered the subject of horticultural nomenclature, representing the Royal Horticultural Society of England and other similar bodies. A set of Rules of Horticultural Nomenclature was adopted by the Congress, consisting of sixteen articles. Article I provides that horticultural nomenclature is based on the rules of botanical nomenclature adopted by the Vienna Congress of 1905 "so far as they apply to names of species and groups of a higher order," but the Congress adopted modifications and additions for horticultural varieties, and hybrids of cultivated plants. Omitting the regulations on hybrids, the following declarations may be briefly noted: In naming horticultural varieties the complete name of the species to which they belong should be given; Latin should not be employed in names unless the character of the plant is expressed in such name, as nanus, fastigiatus, and the use of Latin proper names is proscribed;

names of horticultural varieties must be printed in Roman letters. When vernacular names are transferred to other languages they must not be translated. Varietal names should be a single word and not more than three words. Publication of a description of a variety in a dated catalogue is valid, but the mention of a variety without description in a catalogue, or in the report of an exhibition, is not valid publication even if a figure is given. It is desirable that descriptions of new varieties published in horticultural catalogues should also be published in periodical horticultural papers. In order to be valid, the description of a new variety or of a new hybrid must be drawn up either in German, English, French, Italian, or Latin.

Horticultural nomenclature on an allied basis is now in the hands of a permanent committee appointed by the last two International Horticultural Congresses. This committee will pass on scientific botanical names and also on the vernacular names of horticultural varieties. A preliminary list of adopted generic names has been issued. The report of the Ninth International Horticultural Congress, held in England in 1930, has been published by the Royal Horticultural Society.

In North America important rules of horticultural nomenclature have been adopted by organizations for the particular class of plants in which they are interested. Prominent codes of long standing are those of the American Pomological Society for fruits, and of the Committee on Nomenclature of the Association of American Colleges and Experiment Stations for kitchen-garden vegetables. Agencies for registration of varieties also provide for protecting the name although perhaps not for constituting it.

Most important part of the rules adopted at Brussels in 1910 is in the first article, specifying that in naming horticultural varieties the complete name of the species to which they belong should be given. This implies discrimination between species and varieties, an attitude none too common, but unless one has this primary knowledge the subject of nomenclature cannot be understood. It is common practice to omit the specific name altogether and to place the varietal name directly against the generic name. Before me is a catalogue listing Prunus grandiflora. There is no such plant as that. It is, I suppose, a form of one of the recognized species of Prunus. Here are species and Latin-named varieties of azaleas all listed as of equal rank, with no information to the reader as to natural relationships. Such cases may not be the fault of the nurseryman who propagates and sells the stock; he in turn takes the plants with the names under which they come to him; but somewhere along the line names have been loosely or inaccurately made or applied, very likely at or near the point or origin.

Horticulturists complain of the difficulties in botanical nomenclature: very well; here is one of the reasons for the confusions. As long as this practice is continued of treating varieties as if they were species there is no use in asking for a stabilized nomenclature. This problem of the proper usage in Latin-named cultivated varieties should receive careful consideration by competent horticultural societies. These varieties may be much more important to the grower than the type of the species itself, but nomenclature should not be confused by them.

Let it be explained, however, that there are marginal cases in which the omission of the specific name

is allowable; they are those in which there has been variable botanical practice. Thus the beautiful florist orchid Cattleya gigas was regularly described as a species by Linden and André in 1873; others have referred it to C. labiata as one of the variants of a polymorphous species, along with C. Warscewiczii, C. Luddemanniana and others. Other authorities prefer to keep Warscewiczii distinct as a species and to refer gigas to it as a variety. Orchid growers retain the original name C. gigas, for which they have perhaps ample authority even though the plant may have the characteristics of a variety rather than sufficient marks to constitute a species. Such cases are few enough to be exceptional, and they are defended in the fact that they follow a recorded procedure so that confusion does not result.

Another class of horticultural cases may be described. These examples are properly part of the discussion of identification in the preceding chapter, but they are brought up here to show that rules of nomenclature may give us no help. I am fond of pinks. From seeds and roots I have grown Dianthus caucasicus, D. cruentus, D. erythrocoleus, D. graniticus, D. procumbens, D. Sternbergii, D. strictus, all of which turned out to be maiden pink, Dianthus deltoides. I like the maiden pink and was glad to have the testimony of so many names.

Now it happens that all these Dianthus names represent supposed separate species; then how? Maiden pink is a hardy persistent creeper; very likely patches of pinks of several species were grown in nurseries side by side; one by one they died out, except the maiden and this one covered the territory: the stake labels remained. I have had similar experience with

Thymus, Veronica, Campanula, Sedum. I have recommended to plantsmen that they do not grow their stock plants of the same genus together or side by side.

Horticulturists are prone to over-estimate the importance or at least the terrors of the nomenclature question, or to expect too much from rules and codes. Many of our most difficult problems with the names of plants are not clarified by regulations, as we have learned in the preceding chapter. Let us consider other cases, lest we forget.

In all the great groups of cultivated plants we are troubled by the multitude of names of horticultural varieties. There are thousands and hundreds of varieties of apples and peaches and pears, of potatoes, onions, of dahlias, sweet peas, chrysanthemums, strawberries. Many of the names are duplicates; that is, the same or essentially identical variety may receive two or more names, perhaps a dozen. It is desirable to eliminate these duplications and reduce the names in authoritative lists. It is by investigation that these duplications are discovered, sometimes by extended tests in trial-grounds. With the accumulation of evidence, the duplicate names may be discarded; rules may be required to facilitate the editing of names, but the problem is identification.

In every new edition of a book dealing with the flora of a region or with a group of plants, certain changes in names appear. Mostly these changes are results of new evidences on the identity of the plants. I may cite an example that has recently been in the horticultural press. It is the case of the so-called "Chinese evergreen" or "Chinese water plant" in-

troduced obscurely within recent years and now employed as an indestructible window-plant. It had not bloomed for some time after introduction, and although plainly an aroid, its genus was not recognized. It was entered in Hortus as Aglaonema simplex. Now the plant has bloomed in different places and it is determined that the species is Aglaonema modestum. This is not a problem in nomenclature or a question of rules. Both A. simplex and A. modestum are approved names for two species in Malaya, but, so far as we know, only A. modestum is grown in this country; it is a case of mis-determination, to be corrected in a forthcoming edition. Such cases are frequently arising in all classes of plants. Were it not so, the situation would be evidence that we are not alert.

Demanding an invariable nomenclature in plants, we may yet habitually accept the opposite in other fields or subjects. The nomenclature of human beings is particularly troublesome, with the change of names by marriage and remarriage, by pen-names and stage-names, combinations of paternal and maternal surnames, emphasis of middle names, by the bestowal of titled ranks, and the varying practices with different peoples; yet we make no complaint. The nomenclature as well as the terminology of all the sciences, as well as of arts and industries, has changed and extended radically within the span of the older of us. It must be a very good world in which so much novelty constantly appears.

Even with all the congresses, rules and committees the names of plants cannot be finished. They may be regularized. Many of the changes in names lie beyond all rules and codes of nomenclature. Linnæus founded the genus Pyrus for the pear, apple, quince and other pomes. Philip Miller separated the apples in the genus Malus, a segregation long disregarded but now accepted by many students. Names follow these separations. In the one case the native eastern crab-apple is Pyrus coronaria; in the other it is Malus coronaria. It is a difference of opinion as to what constitutes a genus in a particular case; this opinion rests on study of the plants not on study of rules. No one or no body can or should attempt to control such opinions, founded on research. These are biological problems, and scientific findings must have free interpretation.

When I began the study of plants, there were two species of Antennaria, interesting little everlastings of the fields now sometimes colonized as ground-cover, A. margaritacea and A. plantaginifolia. Soon the former was placed in Anaphalis, where it ought to be. Now about a dozen species of true Antennarias are known in the same territory. We have learned much since then, we have explored the country; we have become more exact in field work as in everything else. All these Antennarias must have names, and rules cannot prevent it. New knowledge must be recorded.

Field work is more extensive, more thorough, more critical, and therefore more useful and delightful, than ever before. We are seeing things long overlooked. We re-define species supposed to be well understood. We are more and more convinced that we understand nothing in the sense of finality. Our successors will disagree with many of our findings; we wish them well. The world, we have found, is very young so far as our knowledge of it is concerned.

These field studies are biological problems of the highest interest and importance. In them are physiography, ecology, and many things we cannot name. Every group of plants needs re-study at least every twenty-five years. What we now know about the hawthorns, wild blackberries, panic-grasses, dogbanes, pondweeds, irises, bears little resemblance to what we thought we knew twenty-five years ago.

Nature has no strait-jackets. Plants are plastic. They vary, often for reasons we do not know. We could not have a stable invariable nomenclature even for buttons unless for all time we could control the materials from which they are made, the machines that make them, the persons who want them. Those who look for a changeless nomenclature should change their notions quickly to avoid disappointment.

The reader should now be prepared, if he is still awake, to be told that systematists are not jugglers of names. They are as much entitled to their findings as are chemists, physicists, economists, archeologists, or philosophers. The names follow investigation. They follow under regular rules of procedure, but the necessity of them precedes the rules.

This does not mean that the binomials are confused. It is impossible to have general confusion when the work proceeds under regulation and all the steps and processes are recorded. Some cases are intricate and complex, and there may be difference of opinion on the application of even the most precise rules, in harmonizing the historical complications of centuries and in making contact with very variable elements in nature. The application of any workable rules of nomenclature is technical and can be fully understood only by years of experience. This means that the

application must be left to competent persons. The regulations provide an interesting system, with which it is a pleasure to work.

It is desirable, naturally, to have botanical names as uniform and understandable as possible; that is what rules and codes attempt to accomplish. Probably the regulatory changes will not be as great in the coming years as in the last twenty-five. To put into effect the systems adopted in 1904 and 1905 necessarily required many rapid changes in the interest of ultimate harmony. Changes due to biological study will necessarily continue, to record discoveries and progress. There should be no fear of change: it is stimulating.

If we do not acquire uniformity, we nevertheless arrive at orderliness in nomenclature, with recognized and recorded practices; perhaps this is as far as we should expect to go. Nomenclature is not a subject separate by itself, but a concommitant of the study of plants.

While binomials should follow regularly accepted authoritative procedure, it is nevertheless legitimate for any responsible body of persons to adopt a set of such nomials to be employed for trade purposes for a specified period. This is standardization rather than nomenclature.

Zealous growing of plants requires knowledge of them; also knowledge of weather, soils, seeds, manual practices, fertilizers, diseases, pests. It is satisfaction in itself to acquire this education by study and experience. It is good to be up-to-date. The horticulturist should also wish to understand names. It is not difficult to acquire a sufficient practical and reading knowledge to make the subject interesting. This is the way to overcome fear of them; they will always be present. Forms of life begin to arrange themselves. Thereby garden and field assume fresh significance.

V

A FEW MORE

A FEW more examples of how plants get their names may be presented, as a matter of interest to the horticulturist. The binomial of every cultivated plant is in itself a history.

To the plant-grower busy with his operations, intent on the care of beautiful plants under glass, interested in the great fields of nursery stock grown to perfection of uniformity, to the plant merchant in the market, the superintendent of parks and estates, to the home gardener concerned in making the most of a small area, to the fruit-grower, florist, all the discussion in this book may seem to be foreign, trouble-some and tiresome, of no relation to living things. What to him is a musty old tome in cryptic Latin, or a set of rules about names, or complicated puzzles, or dead plants secreted in cabinets?

So be it: let us consider further cases. But in advance it may be noted that the naming of horticultural plants is only a very small part of the nomenclature problem. Probably less than one per cent of the known plants in the world are in cultivation at any moment outside botanic gardens, and a relatively small number is domesticated. The main subsistence plants of the world are probably not more than about one hundred species. We have really made limited use of the possibilities of the vegetable world.

Moreover, changes so troublesome to us in 1932

will not bother those of 1950 or later because they will have been accepted; our successors may have other difficulties, worse than names.

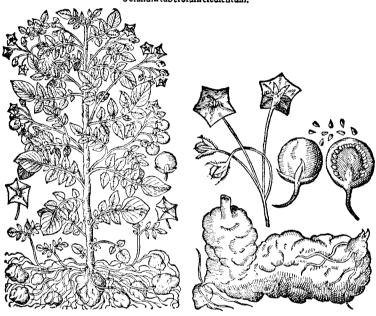
Potato has been Solanum tuberosum from the first, 1753. Linnæus cites Solanum tuberosum esculentum of Caspar Bauhin, who in his Prodromus of 1620 gives an extended account of the plant, and a picture; the engraving is reproduced overleaf. There are further citations in Hortus Cliffortianus to which Linnæus refers; one of them is to Robert Morison, Plantarum Historia Universalis Oxoniensis, in the third volume published at Oxford in 1699 after the author's death. Morison's picture of Solanum tuberosum esculentum is reproduced on page 87; resemblance will be noted to the habit sketch from Bauhin. In his own characterization of the plant in Species Plantarum, Linnæus makes no mention of tuber-bearing; and probably the utility was not then great if one may judge by the curious tubers shown in the pictures; he was not discussing the uses of the plant. He gives the nativity as Peru; long before this time, 1613, Besler had described the plant as Papas Peruanorum.

The aboriginal word variously rendered papas, batata, batatas, and adopted into modern languages, appears twice also in binomials of tuberiferous plants. Once by Linnæus it is used as Convolvulus Batatas, supposed to be native in India. Probably Linnæus did not know the flowers. Later by Poiret it was placed in the Linnæan genus Ipomæa as I. Batatas, as we know it today; in the vernacular it is sweet potato. In 1854 Decaisne described a yam as Dioscorea Batatas, a Chinese twiner producing large under-

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ground tubers, in the North known only as an ornamental under the name cinnamon-vine.





Caspar Bauhin's potato. 1620, the year the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock.

This history is simple enough, but the difficulties with the nomenclature of common potato are just beginning and from a different direction: is the potato one species or several? We are more and more in doubt as to the identity of even the potato, and the problem is now being studied from the point of view of genetics and plant pathology as well as geographic distribution in the wild. Explorers have recently been in the field in tropics to discover original forms of tuber-bearing solanums.

As indication of departures in the understanding

of long-domesticated plants we may cite the work of the Russians, Juzepczuk and Bukasov, 1929, in



Robert Morison's potato. 1699. In the superscription is the reference to C. B. P. (Caspar Bauhin's Pinax) and to the Papas Peruanorum of Hortus Eystettensis.

separating Solanum tuberosum into the following species as a result of chromosome studies:

Solanum tenuifilamentum Solanum Juzepczukii Solanum stenotomum Solanum phureja Solanum ahanhuiri Solanum goniocalyx Solanum Rybinii

Most of the ancient staple crop-plants have a simple nomenclatorial history inasmuch as they were named by Linnæus and there has been relatively little inquisitiveness about them until recent time: examples are rice, wheat, oats, rye, maize, banana, cabbage, lettuce, alfalfa, date, coconut, wine grape, pea, onion, pear. Recently, however, under the closer study of variation, distribution, and heredity doubt is beginning to be expressed as to whether some of the staple crops are really one species, whether the accustomed name may represent only one original kind. Is Triticum æstivum (vulgare), wheat, one species, or is it thirteen as Vavilov and his associates recently suggest on the basis of genetic studies? If the latter, then of course the binomials are multiplied. The nomenclature of many of the anciently cultivated plants is likely to be upset on biological grounds; this introduces a new complication. Indeed, it is from this direction that we are to look for some of the greatest upsets in nomenclature.

Some of the groups of cultivated plants have been so much hybridized that the current kinds can hardly be referred to regular original species. Thus Voss proposed the name Begonia tuberhybrida for the confused and crossed tuberous begonias, and comparable names in other groups. The prevailing gladioli (this word is preferably gladi-olus, gladi-oli) are so mixed that I have felt obliged to propose the name Gladiolus hortulanus for them. In cannas I have thought it

necessary to make two names, Canna generalis for the common flowering kinds and C. orchiodes for the orchid-flowered group. Such class binomials are comparable with Pyrus Malus for the apple (which may comprise few or several original stems), Triticum estivum for the wheats, Cucurbita Melo for the melons, Pyrus Lecontei of Rehder for the Le Conte-Kieffer class of pears, Ceanothus Veitchianus of Hooker for a race of garden hybrids, and any number more.

It is not generally realized that the botany of the main cultivated plants is little understood, or that more critical study may make considerable changes in the names applied to them. If we do not know what sugar-cane is, we may have novelty in names when we find out.

Many of the ancient domesticated plants are cultigens,—known only in cultivation, not yet recognized anywhere as native or indigenous. The common garden and field bean, *Phaseolus vulgaris*, is an example; also Indian corn, banana, oats, rye, sweet potato, date. We are not certain of the native place of the coconut. Another example is the florist chrysanthemum, and we may pause a moment with its name inasmuch as names suggest natural histories.

The garden and greenhouse chrysanthemum is a relatively recent plant in the western world, having been introduced to Europe from the Orient in the latter part of century before last; it was figured in Botanical Magazine, England, in 1796, a purple flower much like the strain of hardy border chrysanthemum of the present day. It is to be noted that

the plant had been ameliorated by long cultivation when discovered in the seaports of China and Japan by Europeans. It is probably of ancient domestication in the Orient.

An undeveloped Asian chrysanthemum was known to the herbalists, and it was named Chrysanthemum indicum by Linnæus, although not native of India as we understand that geographic term today. For the most part, at least until recent years, the florist chrysanthemum has been known as C. indicum. Much has been written on its history and origin, gleaned from many printed references. When looking for the wild chrysanthemum back in China some years ago I became convinced that we do not know enough about the native species of that part of the world to enable us to make positive statements on origins; it is a biological rather than historical problem. "It is my conviction," I wrote at the time, "that we should not speculate further on this subject until the wild forms in China are well collected, over a wide range, and are assembled for study."

Before that time, in 1914, I had proposed a class-or species-name for the cultivated plant, Chrysan-themum hortorum, as we have a collective binomial (Prunus domestica) for the common orchard plum, also a cultigen, and likewise Citrus sinensis for the cultivated sweet orange. Two earlier names had been applied to the oriental chrysanthemums, C. morifolium (morus- or mulberry-leaved), 1792, and C. sinense, 1823; these were supposed to represent the wild or native form of chrysanthemum and to be, therefore, synonyms of C. indicum or else morifolium a separate native species and one of the parents (with indicum) of the modern garden races; but on review-

ing the circumstances of publication it was discovered that they also are names founded on the introduced cultivated chrysanthemum and not on an indigenous species. Therefore, the first cultigen name stands, and *Chrysanthemum morifolium* of Ramatuelle is the tenable name for the domestic group, as far as we yet know, with *C. sinense* of Sabine and *C. hortorum* of Bailey as synonyms.

The name *C. indicum* stands separately, by itself, for a wild oriental chrysanthemum. This situation I explained in print about ten years ago. When we have finally uncovered the botanical origin of the florist chrysanthemum we may give it the name of the prototype (if the name is an old one), or if the cultigen proves to be the result of amalgamation of two or more species, the name *morifolium* will probably still hold. Meanwhile, we shall continue to grow chrysanthemums.

Good examples of name changing due to confusion are the pomological blackberries. These fruits have come into cultivation from native wild berries within a century before our eyes, and yet until recently we have not been able to refer the kinds to their species with any degree of certainty, and even now we are not positive of any number of them. The pomological varieties have been given names, to be sure, as Lawton, Kittatinny, Snyder, Taylor, Lucretia, but what species they came from is another matter.

The difficulty in this case is twofold: no records were made of the varieties in the beginning, in the way of herbarium specimens; knowledge of the wild blackberries has lain in utter confusion. Many of the

major groups of native plants have been singularly confused, but probably the blackberries are the worst. Comparable case is Cratægus or hawthorns, which we have already had before us, and there are any number more, as Rosa, Viola, Agrimonia, Brassica, Amelanchier, and others mentioned on preceding pages. When one of the familiar groups is worked over with additional material and extensive field experience and new binomials are introduced, those who know nothing about it are shocked; yet if the chemists discover new elements or the astronomers new stars or the physicists new explanations they are applauded. I remember how certain persons were disturbed when Coulter and Rose, more than forty years ago, presumed to describe new species of umbellifers and to change generic names, and thereby upset the orderly arrangements we had known; yet they did not invent those plants out of mischief but found them in nature and it was not their fault.

We are beginning to find order in the native black-berries and we know that there are many more species than had been supposed. Rubus (blackberries and raspberries) is one of the big genera of the North American flora, comparable in respect of size with Carex, Panicum, Aster, Solidago, Eleocharis, Artemisia, Quercus, Ranunculus; the fact that we have not known it does not change the situation. Still in existence are a good number of important botanical specimens of pomological varieties, forty or more years old, to give us a clue to the actual origins when we are competent to discuss them. This will make no difference in the value of the present cultivated varieties but it will give us information, make us aware of our natural resources, and it should enable us to

plan future breeding with some hope of success.

Roses are naturally confused in botanical nomenclature because the usual cultivated ones are so much hybridized. Often it is difficult to make out the original species. Horticulturists have classified the kinds into groups without particular reference to the species involved in them, as Teas, Hybrid Teas, Hybrid Perpetuals, Noisettes, Ramblers, Bourbons, Sweetbriars. Rosa is a difficult genus in nature because variable and widely distributed.

It would not profit us to endeavor to reconstruct the origin of roses in a writing like the present: we need an authoritative attractively written book on that subject, in new phraseology, wrought not from the ordinary point of view of history but from that of botanical development; such a book would do much to clarify our ideas about roses.

As in Gladiolus and Canna, collective binomials have been developed to designate main floricultural groups: Rosa borboniana, the bourbon roses, including the hybrid perpetual class; R. dilecta, the hybrid teas to which American Beauty belongs; R. Noisettiana, the noisettes; R. polyantha, the polyantha roses; R. damascena, damask roses; R. Bruantii, Bruant roses; R. Barbierana, Crimson ramblers; R. alba, attar roses; R. Penzanceana, the Penzance briarroses. These names represent roses unknown in a natural or native state, being direct products of domestication or hybrids or mutants of long standing. Other roses, well recognized as parents of cultivated races and known also as wild species, are R. odorata, of China, tea rose; R. chinensis, also of China, China

or Bengal rose; R. multiflora, of Japan, multiflora roses, and the Chinese representative of it, very distinct as seen in the wild, R. cathayensis; R. gallica, Europe and western Asia, French rose; R. centifolia, Caucasus, cabbage rose; R. Banksiæ, banksia roses; and a good number more. For the most part, roses are not known to cultivators in terms of Latin binomials, so that the nomenclature resolves itself into the standardizing of vernacular names of horticultural varieties.

"What's in a name?" cries Juliet; "that which we call a rose by any other word would smell as sweet." Yet Shakespeare might admit that a rose is not less sweet because we know its name. In this later day we wish to make sure that a rose is really a rose: the "bridal rose" of gardens in warm regions and of old greenhouses is a Rubus; I have eaten the raspberry-like fruits of the single-flowered form of it.

Gloxinias are not gloxinias. How this comes about is quickly told. It is a good example of the way such things come to be.

The genus Gloxinia begins with Charles Louis L'Héritier de Brutelle who lived from 1746 to 1800 and who wrote notable systematic works. The genus was founded in 1784 on a Brazilian plant, which L'Héritier named Gloxinia maculata, the generic title being in compliment to Benjamin Peter Gloxin, physician and botanical writer of Colmar near Strassburg. I have not seen this plant in cultivation in the United States, but it is in evidence in the American tropics. It is an attractive perennial rhizomatous herb one foot and more tall but of spreading habit, with large thick heart-shaped ornamental leaves more or less tinged violet on the upper surface and of lighter

color underneath, the erect stalks bearing several or many pubescent deeply bell-shaped lilac flowers more than one inch long and accompanied by large leaf-like bracts.

Early in the past century another plant was introduced from Brazil. It was named Gloxinia speciosa and also pictured by Conrad Loddiges and Sons in the Botanical Cabinet, 1817, with the statement that "this most splendid subject has lately been introduced from South America, a country richly abounding in the most beautiful productions, which unhappily have been till now mostly shut out of the civilized world. The time, however, seems approaching when these treasures will be freely diffused. If the oppressions which men exercised upon each other during the dark ages of ignorance and barbarity were once to cease, all would feel the advantages, and enjoy the comforts of amicable commerce; that source of such incalculable benefits to nations." Now we have the commercial age, and still do we look for something better.

This Gloxinia speciosa soon attracted attention, and it was shown in colored plates. The original strain is pictured with drooping flowers whereas the florists plant produced from it has erect or ascending flowers; it would be interesting to trace the development of the present race of gloxinias step by step through a century, to disclose the art of breeding and to determine whether hybridity has entered into it, as has been said. The present gloxinia, in habit and foliage and bloom, is one of the choicest of pot plants.

In 1825 in a French periodical Christian Godefroy Nees von Esenbeck of the University of Bonn established the genus Sinningia on a Brazilian plant introduced by M. Heller, inspector of the Royal Garden of Wurzbourg, and cultivated in the University garden at Bonn; the plant was named *Sinningia Helleri*. Generic name is in compliment to William Sinning, gardener to the University of Bonn.

In 1848 J. Decaisne founded the genus Ligeria in the great French horticultural journal, Revue Horticole, naming it in honor of Louis Liger, author of many works on agriculture and gardening. He brought Loddiges' name Gloxinia speciosa into his new genus.

When Joannes Hanstein of Berlin wrote the Gesneria family for Martius' monumental Flora Brasiliensis, he retained the three genera and followed Decaisne in placing the Loddiges plant in Ligeria as L. speciosa. This account is dated on the title-page 1857–1864.

When a new study of the gesneriads was made for Bentham and Hooker's Genera Plantarum, and published in 1873, Ligeria was merged with Sinningia as not being sufficiently distinct; and our plant later became Sinningia speciosa, where it now rests.

These various events may be shown in a formal way as follows:

Sinningia speciosa, Nicholson, III. Dict. Gard. iv, 437 (1888).

Gloxinia speciosa, Loddiges, Bot. Cab. i, 28 (1817).

Ligeria speciosa, Decaisne, Rev. Hort. ser. 3, ii, 464 (1848).

Other events are in the records dealing with varieties and plants supposed to have contributed to hybridization, but they do not directly involve the name of the glasshouse gloxinia.

In the foregoing disposition of the case there is no guaranty, however. Any competent investigator, with more material before him, perhaps exacter methods, and a world range of attack, may arrive at other conclusions on the limits of genera and species; and we have learned that names follow identification.

Of Gloxinia there are about a half-dozen species native Mexico to Brazil and Peru. Apparently only G. maculata is much known in cultivation. Of Sinningia there are about twenty species, but only S. speciosa appears to be in general cultivation. Both genera yield subjects of high interest and ornamental value, and several of the species are in horticultural literature. Plants of this kind require careful glasshouse handling and the skill of the trained gardener, and they are not in evidence in the present day of standardization, much to our loss.

Before leaving L'Héritier we ought to know that it was he who broke up the Linnæan inharmonious genus Geranium, separating Pelargonium and Erodium. This was accomplished in his striking folio, Geranologia, published in Paris in 1787-8. The horticultural interest in geraniums was great in the early part of the past century, as witness the many early colored plates in the periodicals, the two-volume treatment by Henry C. Andrews, 1805, and the sixvolume work of Robert Sweet, 1820-30, both published in London. A century passes; open on my table is the heavy technical volume by Knuth on the Geraniaceæ published in Leipzig in 1912. But even though the florist geraniums are pelargoniums, they are still known as geraniums, the old name persisting from the time of Linnæus and before, the same as Sinningia is still popularly known only as gloxinia. Words are only sounds quickly emitted and then lost, yet do they persist century by century.

Sometimes amaryllis is amaryllis, but more often it is not; and thereby hangs another tale.

The amaryllis case, like that of the gloxinia, devolves on the interpretation of genera. At first the genus Amaryllis was conceived broadly, in the days when geography was more or less indefinite and sources of cultivated plants were little understood. At present the genus is interpreted as consisting of a single species (with marked varieties and races) native in the coast region of Cape Province, South Africa, and the name of the species is Amaryllis Belladonna. Levyns, in the recent Guide to the Flora of the Cape Peninsula, states that it grows in "bushy places on the flats and lower slopes; flowering abundantly after a fire." The blooming season is given as February to April. With me at Ithaca, New York, it blossoms in late summer and early autumn. It is a choice subject with its close umbel of shell-pink flowers, when no leaves are showing.

To Linnæus Amaryllis was a genus of nine species in the first edition of Species Plantarum in 1753, and of eleven species in the third edition, 1764. In both editions the Belladonna was ascribed to the Caribbean region, Barbados and Surinam. Philip Miller spoke of it as Mexican. There is an account of Amaryllis Belladonna in Botanical Magazine, 1804, in which it is stated that the plant came to England in 1712 from Portugal, but where native was yet doubtful, but "the channel through which the plant has been received makes it more than probable that it is a Brazil vege-

table." A variety with pale flowers is said to have come from the Cape of Good Hope. It was long before the nativity was cleared up. Even as late as Nicholson's Illustrated Dictionary of Gardening, 1888, it was given as West Indian, perpetuating the old garden tradition.

The plant was correctly stated to be native of the Cape of Good Hope by William Herbert in his standard work on the Amaryllidaceæ in 1837; he wrote that it was naturalized in Madeira, "having been probably disseminated from gardens."

The plant we know as Belladonna lily (which is not a lily) or Amaryllis Belladonna, was apparently widely spread in cultivation before Linnæus wrote. The nativity of the plant was indefinitely stated or taken for granted, as with many other cultivated subjects. Linnæus cites the Lilium rubrum of Merian under his Amaryllis Belladonna, and also a plate in Albertus Seba's Thesaurus of 1734. There is a beautiful plate in Maria Sibilla Merian's delightful work, published at Amsterdam in 1726, being a dissertation on the insects, worms, lizards, caterpillars, serpents, fishes, plants, flowers, fruits and other things of Surinam (Dutch Guiana) all in wonderful colored work; with the great book open on the table I am impressed with the joy the authoress must have experienced in days before there needed to be entomologists and herpetologists and botanists and ichthyologists and all the others and when nature presented itself as a single scene of life and everything was worth recording. Well; this splendid plate No. 22 that Linnæus cites as Lilium rubrum does not have that designation on it or in the text, of the copy before me; it is what we now know as a Hippeastrum, and apparently H. puniceum (or equestre) as is attested by Botanical Magazine, 1804, in the cited account of Belladonna lily.

This Botanical Magazine account throws an interesting sidelight on early geography notions. In speaking of Belladonna it adds: "The older Botanists call its country India, which with them may mean the East-Indies, South-America, or even some parts of Africa."

Western hemisphere plants of this relationship were separated by Herbert in a new genus, Hippeastrum; and it is to this name that the usual amaryllises of florists and of catalogues, the bulbs of which are common in the markets, are to be referred. They have been much modified by cultivation and perhaps by crossing, but most of them are of the Hippeastrum Reginæ class although I see H. puniceum (equestre) in gardens in southern parts of the United States and in the American tropics. It is not commonly known that the amaryllises of window-gardens and pots are a very different kind of plant from the real amaryllis.

In saying that the true amaryllis is South African I am following customary botanical interpretation. Herbert states that Amaryllis Belladonna is the type of the genus, and since his time we have regarded the genus as monotypic and have applied the name to the South African plant. By what process he arrived at that conclusion I do not know. There is nothing in the Linnæan account to singularize this species. Linnæus refers to Hortus Cliffortianus, where are references to Hermann, who died in 1695 and wrote of "Lilium americanum, puniceo flore, bella donna dictum," and to Plukenet, 1720, who had "Lilio Narcissus americanus, puniceo flore, Bella donna dictus." In both these accounts the American source

is indicated as well as the reddish-purple (puniceus) nature of the flowers and the fact that the plant was called bella donna. These references, if they can be identified at all, are very likely what we now know as Hippeastrum puniceum, same as the plate in Merian also cited by Linnæus. This puniceum name comes about in this way: Amaryllis punicea, Lamarck (1783), which is supported by the picture in Hermann's Paradisus and in Merian, and which is Amaryllis equestris of Aiton (1789) and Hippeastrum equestre of Herbert (1821) and which Urban in 1903 brought over as Hippeastrum puniceum to displace the name equestre on the basis of priority. There is no specimen of Amaryllis Belladonna in the Linnean herbarium to identify his plant.

It is not my purpose in this writing to endeavor to determine the proper interpretation of Linnæus' Amaryllis Belladonna, but only to acquaint the reader with the kinds of problems that arise in so many of these old cases.

The word amaryllis is of course a classical name of a shepherdess or country maiden, fancifully applied to these plants. Belladonna, "beautiful lady," is an herbalist name, preserved by Linnæus in the binomial Amaryllis Belladonna. Just why it was given to this plant by Hermann, Plukenet and others I do not know but presumably in compliment to the handsome bloom.

There is another Belladonna, a very different plant and of which there is record of the name. This is Atropa Belladonna, of the Nightshade family, also a Linnæan species. The plant is powerfully poisonous, and well-known drugs are prepared from it. Symptoms of belladonna poisoning are stated by the United

States Dispensatory to be the same as those of atropine poisoning of which it is said the most striking "is the peculiar delirium. In the earlier stages this manifests itself simply by profuse and somewhat incoherent talkativeness, but later there is complete obfuscation often with hallucinations, sometimes more or less maniacal in character." The maniacal and lethal character are suggested in the identificational references quoted by Linnæus: Bauhin, Solanum maniacum multis; Clusius Solanum lethale. The name belladonna comes to the plant from the use of the red sap by women of Italy as a cosmetic.

It is now a favorite notion in some quarters that "systematic botany" has reached its end. This reveals delightful innocence of natural history. It is perhaps born in part of the present devotion to indoor laboratory work, furthered by the remarkable advances in appliances and technique and the stimulating discoveries. All that work is beyond praise. Yet the fields and hills are just outside, teeming with life, much of which is yet little known and all of which requires study in a new way. It is fashionable to deprecate the making of new species: what, then, shall we do with them,—let them go undescribed and unnamed?

Systematic botany and zoölogy, like all other subjects, have quickly responded to the evolution point of view, and life histories acquire new significance. Many of our questions are to be answered, in the end, in the field.

The kind of animals and plants must be distinguished. This is a pre-requisite to the most significant

study in morphology, physiology, ecology, heredity, distribution. In fact, much of the biological work is inexpressible except in terms of species and varieties; and these categories are not cabinet conceptions. Systematics is today one of the freshest and most inspiring of the biological groups. Every advance in physiology and genetics makes it more interesting and important. The monographing of groups in the contemporary spirit is one of the new promising lines of research. More than that, natural history is not outlived, although the outlook of the workers may have changed as it has in geology and psychology. Museum specimens are not mere dead property; they are the records and symbols of living things far and wide.

The earth still has its charm. Plants will be sought and admired, scrutinized and named, to the end of man's time.

First requisite in natural history is to recognize the forms of life. This recognition must be afield, where the organisms live and multiply. Records must be kept. Forms of life are yet imperfectly known. The great laboratory is still out-of-doors; we have no reason to expect it will ever be otherwise.

The chain of life comprises not alone organisms now living on the earth. It connects with the dead and fossil past. From first to last, beginning unto end, the chain is a continuous series, a connected problem. Throughout the vast extent, study of the kinds, taxonomy, nomenclature, systematic speculation, constitute a field of ever-increasing vitality and importance.

Now is this writing finished; there follow only the lists of names, together with the necessary explanations. I hope it has left the reader with some feeling of

respect for the names by which plants are known, and some comprehension of the breadth of the subject and the problems that arise.

The writing falls far short of its purpose if it does not also suggest great ranges of interest and need of investigation in the field of cultivated plants. With all the priceless researches, there still remains an undeveloped domain of biological inquiry into the origins, identities, development and essential characteristics of the plants by which mankind has sustained and comforted itself. The origins lead much farther back than recorded history, into archeology and even geology, and this field is yet little explored.

In the meantime we need records. We have means and agencies for continuous record in any number of other fields, from postage stamps to Indian lore and relics, of birds and mammals and insects and fishes and plants of the field, of books independently of their values, of every kind of device new, old and discarded. Every artifact from excavations is saved. Yet we have no recognized and sufficient archives of cultivated plants. The plants themselves, competently preserved, together with memoranda attached to them and the special experience of them accumulating generation by generation, comprise the major and indispensable chronicle. What will other generations think of us, when they find it necessary to try to pick out origins and courses of amelioration, and positive evidences of introductions and novelties, from these our headlong days?

VI

THE NAMES AND THE WORDS

BOTANICAL nomenclature is Latin. Thereby may it be understandable to all peoples in all languages.

This nomenclature is a combination of nouns and adjectives. Verbs and other forms of speech are employed in Latin descriptions, but not in the names.

First name in the binomial is a substantive (noun), nominative case and singular number; second name is usually an adjective, modifying the substantive. Tree is a substantive; tall, low, young, old, beautiful, are adjectives suggesting the kind or quality of a particular tree.

All words are beautiful when properly used and correctly pronounced and relieved of the vulgarisms of slang. So the binomials of plants and animals are beautiful if clearly enunciated and decently pronounced. They constitute a luminous part of the language of horticulture, botany, and natural history.

For the most part, these binomials are not difficult in speech. Of course practice is required to speak any vocabulary well, whether of art, engineering, architecture, music, medicine, education or law; accurate clear language is the mark of sensitiveness and intelligence.

Use of these binomials is good training in precision of speech. They are dignified and maintain them-

selves above the mumbling and mixture of daily language. Thus a bookful of special words, such as Standardized Plant Names, has something of the appeal to certain persons that a score of music has to others.

First must one comprehend the genus, as Acer, the maples, is a genus of many species, Rosa, Chrysanthemum, Magnolia, Prunus, Berberis, genera also of many species. A plant very distinct in essential characters from all other plants may constitute a genus by itself, as ginkgo, heather, amaryllis, coconut; monotypic genera are named binomially same as the others, the cited cases being Ginkgo biloba, Calluna vulgaris, Amaryllis Belladonna, Cocos nucifera, other binomials in the last two genera not belonging there.

Latin is an inflected language, by which it is meant that a word changes form to express relations or different genders. Thus, nouns ending in us when the subject of a sentence end in um when the object, although this grammatical change does not interest us in nomenclature. More to the point in our problem is the fact that nouns have gender, and all nouns are masculine, feminine or neuter; gender in this case is not necessarily an attribution of sex but is rather a form of language. Adjectives do not have gender, but correspond with their nouns in this respect. Thus, Ceanothus americanus is a masculine name, Cimicifuga americana feminine, Narthecium americanum neuter.

Agreement for gender in the two members of the binomial does not always result in endings identical in both genus and species. Thus the adjective meaning white is *albus*, -a-um, masculine, feminine and neuter

respectively, while black is niger, -a, -um: Helleborus niger, Brassica nigra, Solanum nigrum; ruber (red) is a similar case.

Comparable with niger and ruber in ending are certain -fer and -ger words meaning "bearing": umbellifer, masculine, umbellifera, feminine, umbelliferum, neuter; setiger, setigera, setigerum. It would not be allowable to terminate such words in us for masculine, although cases occur. Apparently more of this class of adjectives occur with feminine nouns than with others and they are entered in feminine form in the following lists although otherwise masculine terminations are given.

The substantives (generic names) are classical Latin names, often originally derived from Greek, or words compounded of Latin or Greek, or of other origin and more or less Latinized in form: the point is that the names are sufficiently adopted into Latin to be declined and readily used in technical diagnoses. Often they commemorate persons, as Linnæa, Bauhinia, Parkinsonia, Dodonæa, Clusia, Besleria, Tournefortia, Milleria; frequently they are classical words with a general or even indefinite meaning that have been applied in botany to a particular group of plants or even to a different group from that originally intended; these new applications in no way invalidate them as generic names. Celastrus was employed in Greek for some kind of evergreen, Ilex is Latin for a kind of oak, as also Æsculus, Hypericum is of obscure classical signification, Lycium was applied to a Rhamnus. Probably more than one half the generic names one commonly meets are of classical origin, meaning Greek and Latin.

If an author is not obliged to retain the original

meaning of the word he adopts for a genus, neither is he obligated to accept its exact spelling. It is legitimate for Linnæus to write Buddleja, named in memory of Adam Buddle. Neither is an author obliged to spell a generic appellation in the same way as does the person for whom it was named. Thus Kennedia was named after Lewis Kennedy, British nurseryman, but Ventenat who founded the genus preferred to write it in regular Latin form; Stewartia was named for John Stuart, Earl of Bute; Stillingia memorializes Dr. Stillingfleet. Botanists chose to modify the personal name Euphorbus to Euphorbia. Generic names derived from persons are not primarily commemorative. Neither the horticulturist nor the botanist need give much attention to the literal significance of the genus-names except as a matter of interest or information: a name is a name for all that.

So is a specific adjective a name for all that; but the literal meaning of the word becomes part of the background in the language of botany. It aids considerably to know that Betula lutea means yellow birch, B. lenta pliable or flexible birch, B. pumila dwarf birch, B. populifolia poplar-leaved birch, B. papyrifera paper-bearing birch, although it may not serve useful purpose to use translations as English names; nor is there any guaranty that the name is really applicable in a given case, as witness Duranta repens (repent or creeping) for an upright big shrub, with only some of the branches more or less lying on the ground.

Although the orthography is not to be changed, yet the termination of adjectives must naturally follow the gender of the generic noun. Thus a dwarf sunflower is called *Helianthus pumilus* (masculine), a dwarf birch Betula pumila (feminine), a dwarf daisy Chrysanthemum pumilum (neuter).

In the long lists that follow, the generic names (List I) are merely pronounced; the specific names (List II) are pronounced and also the meaning suggested. One soon learns the significance of the speciesnames by frequently consulting such lists, if one has feeling for words. In some cases, however, care must be taken to distinguish. Thus Dianthus macranthus is long-flowered or large-flowered pink, but Acacia macracantha is long- or large-spined acacia, one termination being from Greek anthos, flower, and the other acanthos, spine or thorn.

The macro- words need explanation, as macro-carpus referring to fruit, macrodontus to teeth, macromeris to parts, macrospermus to seeds, macrostachyus to spikes. The Greek macros means long, yet in botanical practice the combinations commonly signify large, big, great, in distinction from micros, small. Thus Aster macrophylla is interpreted Bigleaf aster, Philadelphus microphyllus the Littleleaf mockorange. This practice follows good accepted English usage, as macrophone and microphone, macrocosm and microcosm, macroscope and microscope.

Another contrast is Salix cordifolia, heart-leaved willow, and Æthionema coridifolium, coris-leaved, Coris being a genus in the Primrose family. The latter binomial may seem to be a case of gender disagreement between genus and species, but Æthionema is a Greek neuter, as are Aglaonema, Odontonema. Masculine Greek endings os become us when Latinized, but the original author has choice as to which form he uses in noun or adjective. Thus Siebold & Zuccarini founded the genus Rhodotypos, which many

succeeding authors write Rhodotypus. There are many comparable cases. Similarly, an author may choose a Greek neuter termination rather than to Latinize it um: example is Asplenium platyneuron.

In generic names one must also be careful not to confuse those of very similar spelling. The Rules provide that such names are not duplicates if they differ by as much as one letter. We have different genera with such similar names as Discocactus and Discocactus, Jaegeria and Jagera, Nolana and Nolina, Lomatia and Lomatium, Butea and Butia, Ceropteris (Pityrogramma) and Ceratopteris and Cystopteris, Garberia and Gerberia, Morinda and Moringa, Syringa and Seringia, Ligustrum and Ligusticum, Anemopsis and Anemonopsis, Latania and Lantana.

The consultant may not be interested in these reasons and differences but they emphasize the fact that one must be careful to follow the spelling in authoritative lists and books.

Adjectival names may be made from the titles of countries or regions: Anemone virginiana, Virginian anemony; Iris virginica, Virginican iris; Saxifraga virginiensis, pertaining to (citizen of) Virginia. These spellings are to be retained as they were first published: the different adjectival forms are not interchangeable even though their significance may be the same. Frequently the application or origin of geographical names is not at once apparent: Aconitum noveboracense, Vernonia noveboracensis, citizens of New York (Eboracum, Roman name of York, England, novum, new).

Sometimes these geographical names go far astray. We have noted the case of Portugal cypress, implied in the name *Cupressus lusitanica*, which is native in

Mexico (page 4). The common big milkweed of eastern fields is Asclepias syriaca, so named by Linnæus from old designations of it, although he himself knew that it is Virginian: it was Apocynum majus syriacum rectum of Cornut (Cornutus) who published on the plants of Canada in 1635, and Apocynum syriacum of Clusius. Because all species of Asclepias are native in the New World, Decaisne in 1844 renamed this plant Asclepias Cornuti and so it was known for a long time, but we must go back to the old name and be content that it records an early misapprehension. Point is that a name is a name independently of its literal meaning; and in the big catalogue that follows (List II) the meanings are given only as information.

The same geographical name may be differently spelled or one country may have two appellations: Rosa sinica, Rosa cathayensis, Chinese roses, quite distinct species (the former chanced to have been earlier named R. lævigata); Juniperus chinensis, Chinese juniper or cedar; Citrus sinensis, Chinese orange. Any of these different forms could hold, without conflict, even if made in the same genus, although unfortunate, as also Ligustrum japonicum, Japanese privet, and Chrysanthemum nipponicum, Japanese (Nipponese) chrysanthemum.

Certain adjectives are formed by the Greek termination-oides,-oideus,-ides,-odes, meaning like or resembling: Epiphyllum phyllanthoides, a phyllanthuslike epiphyllum; Ganna orchiodes, orchid-like canna; Populus deltoidea, leaves delta-like (triangular).

Not all specific names are common adjectives. Frequently they are proper nouns in the genitive, equivalent to the English possessive. *Phlox Drum*-

mondii is the phlox of Drummond or Drummond's phlox. The genitive is formed in several ways, depending on the declension into which the substantive falls. If a personal name is assumed to terminate in us when Latinized, as is usual, thus making it second declension, the genitive would be in i. Thus do we have Linnæus and Linnæi, Clusius and Clusii, Dodonæus and Dodonæi. There is variable practice as to whether the genitive shall be formed by i or by ii. On this point the International Rules of Nomenclature recommend that when the personal name ends in a vowel, the letter i is added; when it ends in a consonant (except in r) the letters ii are added; this recommendation is not directly retroactive.

Names of women, ordinarily assumed to be of the first declension and ending in a, take a for the genitive; Rosa Banksia, Lady Banks' rose.

Certain genitives, as in the third declension, are made in is: Rosa Hugonis, Hugo's rose; Solidago ohionis, goldenrod of Ohio.

Genitives are sometimes made in the plural: Colocasia antiquorum, colocasia of the ancients (antiqui); Grimaldia Baileyorum, of the Baileys (father and daughter).

Frequently, genitives (possessives) are formed from compound geographical names: Aster novæangliæ, New England aster; A. novi-belgii, New Belgian (New York) aster; Lechea novæ-cæsareæ, New Jersey pinwort (Cæsarea, Roman name of the Channel Islands from which the word Jersey is derived); Rubus pergratus var. novæ-terræ, Newfoundland blackberry.

If a botanist desires to name a new species in com-

pliment to a person, two regular ways are available: to make a genitive of the noun, as Smithii or Smithiæ, whether the person is masculine or feminine; to put the name in adjectival form, as Smithianus, Smithiana, Smithianum, whether the genus is masculine, feminine, or neuter.

Certain specific names lie outside the regular rules. These are nouns in apposition, and cannot be altered to agree in gender. Usually they are historic substantives that have come down in the literature of the subject: Rumex Patientia, the old herb-patient, a medicinal plant; Chenopodium Bonus-Henricus, the Good King Henry of the herbalists; Nicotiana Tabacum, preserving the aboriginal name of tobacco; Solanum PseudoCapsicum; Thymus Serpyllum; Aconitum Anthora; or an old generic name as Persica is for the peach and we write Prunus Persica, but the same word is merely a geographical adjective in other cases, as in Syringa persica (page 60). Such substantive names are preferably retained with a capital initial, to indicate that they are not adjectives and to preserve their importance.

Some writers prefer to use no capitals in specific names, not even in those commemorating persons, writing Salvia greggii, Pyrus halliana, Pinus jeffreyi. This is in the interest of uniformity; but uniformity, which is the fetish of standardization, has no supernatural merit. It is much more desirable to maintain dignity and emphasis than to insist on the flatness of regularity. Suggestion of much precious history is lost when the identifying capitals are deposed.

Formerly, specific names of countries were written with capital initials, as Canadensis, Japonica,

Africana, but this custom is not now universal. Geographic epithets are scarcely proper names in these cases, but have come to represent general regions of nativity. Rubus canadensis is not exclusively Canadian; it grows as far south as Georgia; the name indicates where Kalm first discovered it. In early days, when many of our plants were named, Virginia was much more than the present state of Virginia; Brazil was a region or direction in the western hemisphere. Because a Potentilla was named pennsylvanica does not cause the collector to be surprised to find it in New Hampshire, Ontario or Oregon; I have taken it in China, for it is put down as native Caucasus to Japan; this world-wide species happens to have been named and described from Pennsylvania in 1767 by Linnæus. Regional adjectives hardly merit great distinction; but personal proper names and rich old substantives in apposition may well be allowed the justice of a capital initial.

Practice in capitalizing species-names is not mandatory in rules of nomenclature. International Rules recommend that "specific names begin with a small letter except those which are taken from names of persons (substantives or adjectives) or those which are taken from generic names (substantives or adjectives)." American Code provides that "if capital letters are to be used for specific names they should be employed only for substantives and for adjectives derived from personal names."

PRONUNCIATION

In the lists that follow no effort is made to indicate complete pronunciation. That attempt would require diacritical marks or a phonetic alphabet.

Only two purposes are in mind: the accentuation, by which the syllable of primary accent or stress is indicated; quantity of the accented vowels, as to whether "long" or "short."

There is no standard agreement on rules for the pronunciation of botanical binomials. Even in the best practice, there may be variations in pronunciation of a given word; this is unavoidable, and no more to be regretted than similar variations in pronouncing many English words. The particular sound to be given the vowels (within the categories "long" or "short") rests with the individual. Many persons pronounce generic and specific names simply as if the words were English, but for the most part the accent, at least, follows usage in Latin.

Good examples of different pronunciations in Latin (derived from Greek) and English are the -oides terminations (which we have met on a preceding page). In English, oi under similar circumstances is a diphthong, as in rhomboid, pronounced like oy in toy; in Latin or Latinized nomials oi is not a diphthong but two separate vowels.

It may be said there are two ways of pronouncing Latin. One is the so-called Roman method followed by Latinists, that represents what is considered to be the pronunciation of classical times; the other is an adaptation of pronunciation more or less to the speech of people now using it. It is only the latter with which we are concerned in this discussion.

In the United States as well as in England, the vowels are usually pronounced with English sounds. This means that the long English i and e (which are singularities among languages) may be used. In the United States I cannot be corrected if I

say Lupinus with a long English *i*; in France I should say Lupeenus. Collecting far away in South America with a delightful companion who spoke a Latin language, I came upon plants of Sida and pronounced the word with long English *i*, whereupon my comrade noted my lack of understanding and corrected me to Seeda; it was not necessary to remind him that my native speech is English. So, also, whether one pronounces americana as if it were spelled americay-na or americah-na depends on choice, or perhaps whether one is from Boston or Kansas; my own habit is the former, although subject to suggestion. Either way the vowel may be considered as "long."

Terminal syllables of the natural families are commonly pronounced in the United States as if they were English: Rosaceæ,—àce-ee, with long or open sounds for e.

The foregoing remarks have reference particularly to the pronunciation of letters, not so much to accent of words. Accent or stress follows rules of Latin; and the syllables are as many as the vowels. Words of two syllables are stressed on the first syllable: \hat{a} -cris; of three syllables on next-to-the-last syllable (penult) if it is long: $dum\hat{o}$ -sa; if it is short, accent may be on the preceding syllable or antepenult, but never on a syllable before the third from the end.

Inasmuch as many names, particularly of genera, are derived from non-Latin sources and may be only imperfectly Latinized, it is impossible to follow rules steadfastly. How the accents fall in particular words is indicated in the lists that follow, although there may be disagreement in some cases.

Let it be repeated that the pronunciations here suggested follow practice in the United States. To in-

dicate the quantity of the vowel (whether long or short) accent-marks are employed, to the left for long open articulation and to the right for short close sounds. This is now an American custom, although of English origin. Thus Asa Gray, in his first Manual of the Botany of the Northern United States, 1848, writes: "To aid in their pronunciation, I have not only marked the accented syllable, but have followed Loudon's mode of indicating what is called the long sound of the vowel by the grave (`), and the short sound by the acute (') accent-mark." In the preface to his Hortus Britannicus, first published in 1830, J. C. Loudon explains his method of pronunciation. The current (Seventh) edition of Gray's Manual, 1913, by his successors, maintains this use of the accentmarks for vowel quantity and also for syllable stress, although not adopted in the Synoptical Flora. American botanical practice is not wholly uniform, but in the present lists the custom long established by Gray and his followers is adopted.

It is difficult to represent pronunciation by means of such simple marks and there are many exceptions, particularly in words derived from personal and geographic names and in those not known in classical Latin.

The specific or trivial names in List II are an extension of a similar compilation on pages 148 to 159 of the first volume of Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture and repeated in part on pages 21–36 of Manual of Cultivated Plants; the List has therefore had the test of previous review, although nothing like perfection can be expected of it.

Variable practice obtains in the pronunciation of names made from those of persons, particularly when the patronymic is in two syllables. Probably the Latin preference is to accent on the penultimate, but frequently the words are spoken as the persons pronounced their own names. This applies both to genitives as specific names and to substantives as generic names. Thus one may say Tór-reyi, Tór-reya rather than Torrèy-i and Torrèy-a. Similar cases are Búck-leyi or Bucklèy-i, Búck-leya or Bucklèy-a, Jàmesii or Jamè-sii, Jà-mesia or Jamè-sia. It is the intention to omit most names of this character from the Lists. English-speaking horticulturists, as far as I have noted them, say Cátt-leya rather than Cattlèy-a.

Finally let it be said that the following lists are compiled primarily for the horticultural fraternity. They are not final or at least not infallible and are subject to revision as needed.

LIST I

Generic names likely to be met in horticultural literature, with indication of accent and vowel quantity, and ready reference in spelling.

Grave accent ('), means long vowel; acute accent ('), short or similar vowel sounds, or at least not long

Abè-lia	Acokanthè-ra	Aerì-des
À-bies	Aconì-tum	Ær-va
Abò-bra	Ác-orus	Æs-culus
Abrò-ma	Acrocò-mia	Æthionè-ma
Abrò-nia	Acroných-ia	Agapán-thus
Abrophýl-lum	Actà:-a	Agás-tache
À-brus	Actiníd-ia	Ág-athis
Abù-tilon	Actinophlà:-us	Agathós-ma
Acà-cia	Actinós-trobus	Agà-ve
Acà-na	À-da	Agdés-tis
Acalỳ-pha	Adansò-nia	Agér-atum
Acám-pe	Adelocalým-na	Aglaonè-ma
Acanthocè-reus	Adelocà-ryum	Agò-nis
Acantholi-mon	Adenanthè-ra	Agrimò-nia
Acanthóp-anax	Adenocár-pus	Agrostém-ma
Acanthophœ-nix	Adenóph-ora	Agrós-tis
Acanthophýl-lum	Adenós-toma	Aichrỳ-son
Acanthorhì-za	Adhát-oda	Ailán-thus
Acán-thus	Adián-tum	Aíph-anes
À-cer	Adlù-mia	Aì-ra
Acerán-thus	Adoníd-ia	Ajù-ga
Achillè-a	Adò-nis	Akè-bia
Achím-enes	Adóx-a	Albíz-zia
À-chlys	Æchmè-a	Alchemíl-la
Ách-ras	Æ-gle	Aléc-tryon
Acidanthè-ra	Æglóp-sis	Ál-etris
Acinè-ta	Ægopò-dium	Aleurì-tes
Ackà-ma	Æò-nium	Alís-ma
Acœlorrà-phe	Ærán-gis	Allagóp-tera

HOW PLANTS GET THEIR NAMES

Allamán-da Anacy-clus Antirrhì-num Alliò-nia Anagál-lis Aphanós-tephus Ál-lium Anán-as Aphelán-dra Alloph-vton Anáph-alis À-pios Allopléc-tus Anastát-ica À-pium Ál-nus Anathè-rum Apléc-trum Alocà-sia Anchù-sa Apóc-vnum Ál-oë Andì-ra Aponogè-ton Alonsò-a Andróm-eda Aporocác-tus Alopecù-rus Andropò-gon Aptè-nia Alphitò-nia Andrós-ace Aquilè-gia Alpin-ia Androstè-phium Ár-abis Alseuós-mia Anemò-ne Ár-achis Alsóph-ila Anemonél-la Arách-nis Alstò-nia Anemonóp-sis Arà-lia Alstrœmè-ria Anemopæg-ma Araucà-ria Alternanthè-ra Anemóp-sis Araù-iia Althà:-a Anè-thum Ár-butus Alýs-sum Angél-ica Archontophœ-nix Alýx-ia Angelò-nia Árc-tium Amarà-cus Angióp-teris Arctostáph-ylos Amarán-thus Angóph-ora Arctò-tis Amárc-rinum Angrà-cum Arctò-us Amarýl-lis Angulò-a Ardís-ia Amasò-nia Anigozán-thos Arè-ca Amberbò-a Anisacán-thus Arecás-trum Amelán-chier Anisót-ome Aregè-lia Amél-lus Annò-na Arenà-ria Amhér-stia Anò-da Arén-ga Amián-thium Anóp-teris Arethù-sa Amíc-ia Anò-ta Argà-nia Ammò-bium Ansél-lia Argemò-ne Ammóch-aris Antennà-ria Argyrè-ia Ammóph-ila Án-themis Aridà-ria Amò-mum Anthér-icum Arikurvrò-ba Amór-pha Antholy-za Ariocár-pus Amorphophál-lus Anthoxán-thum Arisà-ma Ampelodés-ma Anthris-cus Arís-tea Ampelóp-sis Anthù-rium Aristolò-chia Amphic-ome Anthýl-lis Aristotè-lia Amsò-nia Antià-ris Armorà-cia Anacámp-seros Antidés-ma Arnè-bia Anacár-dium Antig-onon Ár-nica

LIST I. GENERIC NAMES

Arò-nia	Át-ropa	Bél-lium
Arpophýl-lum	Attalè-a	Benincà-sa
Arracà-cia	Aubriè-ta	Bén-zoin
Arrhenathè-rum	Aucù-ba	Berberidóp-sis
Artáb-otrys	Audibér-tia	Bér-beris
Artemís-ia	Audouín-ia	Berchè-mia
Arthropò-dium	Aureolà-ria	Bergè-nia
Artocár-pus	Avè-na	Bergerán-thus
À-rum	Averrhò-a	Bergerocác-tus
Arún-cus	Axón-opus	Berlandiè-ra
Arundinà-ria	Azà-ra	Berterò-a
Arún-do	Azól-la	Berthollè-tia
Ás-arum		Bertolò-nia
Ascár-ina	Babià-na	Bè-ta
Asclè-pias	Bác-charis	Bét-ula
Asclepiodò-ra	Bác-tris	Bì-dens
Ascocén-trum	Baè-ria	Bifrenà-ria
Ascotaín-ia	Baillò-nia	Bignò-nia
Ás-cyrum	Balà-ka	Billardiè-ra
Asím-ina	Balaù-stion	Billbér-gia
Aspár-agus	Ballò-ta	Bischóf-ia
Aspér-ula	Balsamocít-rus	Biscutél-la
Asphodelì-ne	Balsamorhì-za	Bismár-ckia
Asphód-elus	Bambù-sa	Bíx-a
Aspidís-tra	Bánk-sia	Blanfór-dia
Aspidospér-ma	Báph-ia	Bléch-num
Asplè-nium	Baptís-ia	Bletíl-la
Ás-pris	Barbarè-a	Blì-ghia
Astartè-a	Bárk-lya	Bloomè-ria
Astè-lia	Barlè-ria	Blumenbách-ia
Ás-ter	Barós-ma	Boccò-nia
Astíl-be	Barringtò-nia	Bœhmè-ria
Astrág-alus	Basél-la	Boisduvà-lia
Astrán-tia	Bauè-ra	Boltò-nia
Astrocà-ryum	Bauhín-ia	Bolusán-thus
Astróph-ytum	Beaucár-nea	Bomà-rea
Asystà-sia	Beaufór-tia	Bóm-bax
Atalán-tia	Beaumón-tia	Bón-tia
Athamán-ta	Befà-ria	Borà-go
Athrotáx-is	Begò-nia	Borás-sus
Athýr-ium	Belamcán-da	Borò-nia
Atrapháx-is	Belepér-one	Bortých-ium
Át-riplex	Bél-lis	Bò-sea
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Bossià-a	Bulbocò-dium	Cál-tha
Boussingaúl-tia	Bulbophýl-lum	Calycán-thus
Bouvár-dia	Bumè-lia	Calycót-ome
Bowkè-ria	Buphthál-mum	Calýp-so
Boykín-ia	Bupleù-rum	Calỳ-trix
Brachých-iton	Bursà-ria	Camarò-tis
Brachýc-ome	Bù-tia	Camá-sia
Brachyglót-tis	Bù-tomus	Camél-lia
Brachypò-dium	Búx-us	Camoén-sia
Brachysè-ma	Byrnè-sia	Campán-ula
Brà-hea	•	Camphorós-ma
Brasè-nia	Cabóm-ba	Campsíd-ium
Brassaocattlà-lia	Cæsalpì-nia	Cámp-sis
Brassáv-ola	Cailliè-a	Camptosò-rus
Brás-sia	Caióph-ora	Camptothè-ca
Brás-sica	Cajà-nus	Campylót-ropis
Brassocátt-leya	Calacì-num	Canán-ga
Brassolà-lia	Calà-dium	Canarì-na
Brevoór-tia	Cál-amus	Canavà-lia
Brèy-nia	Calandrì-nia	Candól-lea
Brickél-lia	Calán-the	Canél-la
Brittonás-trum	Calathè-a	Canís-trum
Brì-za	Calceolà-ria	Cán-na
Brodià-a	Calén-dula	Cán-nabis
Bromè-lia	Calím-eris	Cán-tua
Brò-mus	Cál-la	Cáp-paris
Brós-imum	Callián-dra	Cáp-sicum
Broughtò-nia	Callicár-pa	Caragà-na
Broussonè-tia	Callic-oma	Cardám-ine
Browál-lia	Callír-hoë	Cardián-dra
Brów-nea	Callistè-mon	Cardiospér-mum
Bruckenthà-lia	Callís-tephus	Cár-duus
Brunnè-ra	Callì-tris	Cà-rex
Brunsfél-sia	Callù-na	Cà-rica
Brunsvíg-ia	Calocéph-alus	Carís-sa
Bryò-nia	Calochór-tus	Carlì-na
Bryonóp-sis	Calodén-drum	Carludovì-ca
Bryophýl-lum	Calonýc-tion	Carmichà-lia
Buckleỳ-a	Calóph-aca	Carnè-giea
Buddlè-ja	Calophýl-lum	Carpán-thea
Buginvíl-læa	Calopò-gon	Carpentè-ria
Bulbì-ne	Calothám-nus	Carpì-nus
Bulbinél-la	Calpúr-nia	Carpobrò-tus
Durbiner ia	Carpar ma	Curpoore tue

BX01	
Carpód-etus	Cephalà-ria
Carriè-rea	Cephalocè-reus
Cár-thamus	Cephalostà-chyum
Cà-rum	Cephalotáx-us
Cà-rya	Cerás-tium
Caryóp-teris	Ceratò-nia
Caryò-ta	Ceratopét-alum
Casimír-oa	Ceratophýl-lum
Cás-sia	Ceratóp-teris
Cassín-ia	Ceratostíg-ma
Castà-nea	Ceratozà-mia
Castanóp-sis	Cercidiphýl-lum
Castanospér-mum	Cercíd-ium
Castíl-la	Cér-cis
Castilè-ja	Cercocár-pus
Casuarì-na	Cè-reus
Catál-pa	Cerín-the
Catanán-che	Ceropè-gia
Catasè-tum	Ceróx-ylon
Catesbæ-a	Cés-trum
Cà-tha	Chænomè-les
Cathcár-tia	Chænós-toma
Cátt-leya	Chærophýl-lum
Caulophýl-lum	Chamæcè-reus
Ceanò-thus	Chamæcýp-aris
Cecrò-pia	Chamædáph-ne
Céd-rela, Cedrè-la	Chamædò-rea
Cedronél-la	Chamælaù-cium
Cè-drus, Céd-rus	Chamælír-ium
Ceì-ba	Chamàe-rops
Celás-trus	Chambeyrò-nia
Celmís-ia	Chár-ieis
Celò-sia	Cheilán-thes
Cél-sia	Cheirán-thus
Cél-tis	Chelidò-nium
Centaurè-a	Chelò-ne
Centaù-rium	Chenopò-dium
Centhrán-thus	Chilóp-sis
Centradè-nia	Chimáph-ila
Centropò-gon	Chiocóc-ca
Centrosè-ma	Chióg-enes
Cephäè-lis	Chionán-thus
Cephalán-thus	Chionodóx-a

Chionóph-ila Chirò-nia Chlò-ris Chlorocò-don Chloróg-alum Chloróph-ora Chloróph-ytum Chois-ya Chorís-ia Cho-Choriz-ema, rizè-ma Chrysalidocár-pus Chrysán-themum Chrysobál-anus Chrysóg-onum Chrysóp-sis Chrysosplè-nium Chrysothám-nus Chusquè-a Chỳ-sis Cibò-tium Cì-cer Cichò-rium Cicù-ta Cimicíf-uga Cinchò-na Cinnamò-mum Cipù-ra Circà-a Cír-sium Cís-sus Cís-tus Citharéx-ylum Citróp-sis Citrúl-lus Cít-rus Cladán-thus Cladrás-tis Clár-kia Clausè-na Clavì-ja Claytò-nia

Cleistocác-tus

HOW PLANTS GET THEIR NAMES

Clém-atis Combrè-tum Cós-tus Cleò-me Comespér-ma Cót-inus Clerodén-drum Commelì-na Cotoneás-ter Cléth-ra, Clè-thra Comptò-nia Cót-ula Clián-thus Conán-dron Cotvlè-don Cliftò-nia Condà-lia Coutà-rea Clintò-nia Cón-gea Cowà-nia Clitò-ria Conicò-sia Crám-be Clì-via Conjográm-me Craspè-dia Clytós-toma Conì-um Crás-sula Cneorid-ium Conóph-vtum Cratà-gus Cneò-rum Convallà-ria Crè-pis Cnì-cus Convól-vulus Crescén-tia Cobà-a Coopè-ria Crinodén-dron Coccín-ia Copaíf-era Crinodón-na Coccocyp-selum Coperníc-ia Crì-num Coccól-obis Coprós-ma Cristà-ria Coccothrì-nax Cóp-tis Críth-mum Cóc-culus Cór-chorus Crocós-mia Cochemiè-a Cór-dia Crò-cus Cochleà-ria Córd-ula Crossán-dra Cochlospér-mum Cordylì-ne Crotalà-ria Cò-cos Corè-ma Crucianél-la Codià-um Coreóp-sis Crupì-na Codonóp-sis Corethróg-yne Cryóph-ytum Cœ-lia Corián Irum Cryptán-tha Cœlóg-vne Corià-ria Cryptán-thus Coffè-a Cór-nus Cryptocà-rya Cò-ix Corò-kia Cryptográm-ma Cò-la Coronil-la Cryptól-epis Cól-chicum Corón-opus Cryptomè-ria Coleonè-ma Corò-zo Cryptostè-gia Cò-leus Corrè-a Cryptostém-ma Collè-tia Cortadè-ria Ctenán-the Collin-sia Cortù-sa Cù-cumis Collinsò-nia Corvd-alis Cucúr-bita Collò-mia Corvlóp-sis Cù-minum Colocà-sia Cór-vlus Cunì-la Colpothrì-nax Corvnocár-pus Cunninghám-ia Colquhoù-nia Corè-pha Cupà-nia Colúm-nea Corvohán-tha Cù-phea Colù-tea Corvtholò-ma Cuprés-sus Colvíl-lea Cós-mos Curcù-ligo

LIST I. GENERIC NAMES

L181	I. GENERIC NA	AWES
Cúr-cuma	Darlingtò-nia	Dictyospér-ma
Cyanò-tis	Darwin-ia	Dieffenbách-ia
Cyáth-ea	Dasylír-ion	Dierà-ma
Cyathò-des	Datís-ca	Diervil-la
Cỳ-cas	Datù-ra	Digità-lis
Cýc-lamen	Daubentò-nia	Dillè-nia
Cyclanthè-ra	Daù-cus	Dillwýn-ia
Cyclán-thus	Davál-lia	Dimorphothè-c
Cyclóph-orus	Davíd-ia	Dinè-ma
Cycnò-ches	Debregeà-sia	Dioclè-a
Cydís-ta	Decaì-snea	Dì-on
Cydò-nia	Deckè-nia	Dionà-a
Cymbalà-ria	Déc-odon	Dioscorè-a
Cymbid-ium	Decumà-ria	Diós-ma
	Deering-ia	Diospỳ-ros
Cymbopò-gon	Delò-nix	Diò-tis
Cynán-chum	Delospér-ma	Dipél-ta
Cýn-ara	Delós-toma	Diphyllè-ia
Cýn-odon	Delphín-ium	Dipladè-nia
Cynoglós-sum	Demazè-ria	Diplà-zium
Cynosù-rus	Dendrò-bium	Diploglót-tis
Cypél-la	Dendrocál-amus	Diplotáx-is
Cypè-rus	Dendrochì-lum	Díp-sacus
Cyphomán-dra	Dendroch-rum Dendromè-con	Dipterò-nia
Cypripè-dium	Denuronie-con Dennstæd-tia	Dir-ca
Cyríl-la		Dì-sa
Cyrtò-mium	Dentà-ria	Di-sa Discár-ia
Cyrtopò-dium	Dér-ris	Discocác-tus
Cyrtós-tachys	Desfontaì-nea	
Cystóp-teris	Desmán-thus	Disocác-tus
Cýt-isus	Desmò-dium	Disphỳ-ma
	Desmón-cus	Dís-porum
Daboè-cia	Detà-rium	Dís-tictis
Dacrýd-ium	Deù-tzia	Distỳ-lium
Dæmón-orops	Diác-rium	Dizygothè-ca
Dáh-lia	Dianél-la	Docýn-ia
Dà-is	Dián-thus	Dodecà-theon
Dalbér-gia	Diapén-sia	Dodonæ-a
Dà-lea	Diás-cia	Dolichán-dra
Dalechám-pia	Dicén-tra	Dól-ichos
Dalibár-da	Dichorisán-dra	Dolicothè-le
Dà-næ	Dicksò-nia	Dombè-ya
Dáph-ne	Dicranostíg-ma	Doò-dia
i Jann-ne	Dictaliostigina	Dór-itis

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Dorón-icum	Echinóp-sis	Equisè-tum
Dorotheán-thus	Echì-tes	Eragrós-tis
Dorstè-nia	Éch-ium, È-chium	Erán-themum
Doryán-thes	Edgewór-thia	Erán-this
Dorýc-nium	Edraián-thus	Ercíl-la
Doryóp-teris	Ehrè-tia	Eremàe-a
Dossín-ia	Eichhór-nia	Eremóch-loa
Douglás-ia	Elæág-nus	Eremocit-rus
Dovỳ-alis	Elæ-is	Eremós-tachys
Downin-gia	Elæocár-pus	Eremù-rus
Doxán-tha	Elæodén-dron	Erép-sia
Drà-ba	Elaphoglós-sum	È-ria
Dracæ-na	Elettà-ria	Erián-thus
Dracocéph-alum	Eleusì-ne	Erì-ca
Dracún-culus	Eliót-tia	Ericamè-ria
Drì-mys	Elodè-a	Erigenì-a
Drosán-themum	Elshólt-zia	Erigeni-a Erig-eron
Drós-era	Él-ymus	Erig-eron Eri-nus
Dryán-dra	Embò-thrium	
Drỳ-as	Emíl-ia	Eriobót-rya
Dryóp-teris	Emmenán-the	Eriocéph-alus
Duchés-nea	Emmenóp-terys	Erióg-onum
Duggè-na	Ém-petrum	Erióph-orum
Durán-ta	Encè-lia	Eriophýl-lum
Dù-rio	Encephalár-tos	Erióp-sis
Duvà-lia	Enchylà-na	Eriostè-mon
Dýck-ia	Enciylæ-na Encýc-lia	Eritrích-ium
Dyschoris-te	Enkián-thus	Erlán-gea
Dysóx-ylum	Entelè-a	Erò-dium
-) boil	Enterolò-bium	Erù-ca
Éb-enus	Eomè-con	Ervatà-mia
Ecbál-lium		Erýn-gium
Eccremocár-pus	Ép-acris	Erýs-imum
Echevè-ria	Éph-edra	Erythè-a
Echidnóp-sis	Epidén-drum	Erythrì-na
Echinà-cea	Epigæ-a	Erythrò-nium
Echinocác-tus	Epilò-bium	Erythróx-ylon
Echinocè-reus	Epimè-dium	Escallò-nia
Echinoce-reus Echinoch-loa	Epipác-tis	Eschschól-zia
Echinocýs-tis	Epiphroni-tis	Escobà-ria
Echinocys-tis Echinomás-tus	Epiphyllán-thus	Escón-tria
Echinomas-tus Echinóp-anax	Epiphýl-lum	Euán-the
Echì-nops	Epís-cia	Eucalýp-tus
zem-nops	Epithelán-tha	Eucharíd-ium

I. GENERIC	NAMES
Fittò-nia	Gaù-ra
Fitzrò-ya	Gaús-sia
Flacoúrt-ia	Gaỳ-a
Flemin-gia	Gaylussà-cia
Fœníc-ulum	Gazà-nia
Fontanè-sia	Geitonoplè-sium
Forestiè-ra	Gelsè-mium
Forsýth-ia	Geniós-toma
Fortunél-la	Genì-pa
Forthergil-la	Genís-ta
Fouquiè-ria	Gentià-na
Fragà-ria	Geón-oma
Francò-a	Gerà-nium
Frankè-nia	Gerbè-ria
Frasè-ra	Gesnouín-ia
Fráx-inus	Gè-um
Freè-sia	Gevuì-na
Fremón-tia	Gíl-ia
Freycinè-tia	Gilibért-ia
Fritillà-ria	Gillè-nia
Frœlích-ia	Gínk-go
Fù-chsia	Gladì-olus
Fumà-ria	Glaucíd-ium
Furcræ-a	Glaúc-ium
	Glaúx
Gà-gea	Gledít-sia
Gaillár-dia	Gliricíd-ia
Galactì-tes	Globulà-ri a
Galán-thus	Gloriò-sa
Gà-lax	Glottiphýl-lum
Galeán-dra	Glycè-ria
Galè-ga	Glycì-ne
Gà-lium	Glycós-mis
Galtò-nia	Glycyrrhì-za
Galvè-zia	Glyptós-trobus
Gamól-epis	Gmelì-na
Garbè-ria	Gnaphà-lium
Garcín-ia	Godè-tia
Gardè-nia	Gomè-sa
Gár-rya	Gomphocár-pus
Gastè-ria	Gompholò-bium
Gastrochì-lus	Gomphrè-na
Gaulthè-ria	Gongò-ra
	Fittò-nia Fitzrò-ya Flacoúrt-ia Flemín-gia Fœníc-ulum Fontanè-sia Forestiè-ra Forsýth-ia Fortunél-la Forthergíl-la Fouquiè-ria Fragà-ria Francò-a Frankè-nia Frasè-ra Fráx-inus Freè-sia Fremón-tia Freycinè-tia Fritillà-ria Frœlích-ia Fù-chsia Furcràe-a Gà-gea Gaillár-dia Galactì-tes Galán-thus Gà-lax Galeán-dra Galè-ga Gà-lium Galtò-nia Galvè-zia Garcín-ia Garcín-ia Garcín-ia Garcín-ia Gar-rya Gastè-ria

HOW PLAN	ITS GET THEIR	N
Goò-dia	Harpephýl-lum	1
Gordò-nia	Harrís-ia]
Gormà-nia	Hartwè-gia]
Gossýp-ium	Hatiò-ra]
Gourliè-a	Hawór-thia]
Grabòw-skia	Hè-be]
Grammatophýl-lum	Hebenstreì-tia]
Graptopét-alum	Hedeò-ma]
Graptophýl-lum	Héd-era	1
Gratì-ola	Hedycà-rya	1
Greì-gia	Hedých-ium]
Grevíl-lea	Hedýs-arum	F
Grè-wia	Hedyscè-pe	Ī
Grè-yia	Heì-mia	Ī
Grindè-lia	Helè-nium	Ī
Griselín-ia	Heliám-phora	Ī
Guaì-cum	Helianthél-la	
Guiliél-ma	Helián-themum	I I
Guizò-tia	Helián-thus	î
Gunnè-ra	Helichry-sum	Ī
Guzmà-nia	Helicodíc-eros	ì
Gymnocalýc-ium	Helicò-nia	Ī
Gymnóc-ladus	Heliocè-reus	
Gymnospò-ria	Helióp-sis]
Gynandróp-sis	Heliotrò-pium	1
Gynè-rium	Helíp-terum	1
Gynù-ra	Helléb-orus	J
Gypsóph-ila	Helò-nias	I
	Helwín-gia]
Habenà-ria	Helxì-ne	1
Habér-lea	Hemerocál-lis	ł
Hacquè-tia	Hemián-dra	1
Hæmán-thus	Hemicỳ-clia	1
Hæmà-ria	Hemíg-raphis	1
Hæmatóx-ylum	Hemionì-tis	I
Hà-kea	Hemiptè-lia	J
Halè-sia	Hepát-ica	I
Halimodén-dron	Heraclè-um	I
Hamamè-lis	Hererò-a	I
Hamatocác-tus	Hernià-ria	1
Hamè-lia	Hesperà-loe	1
Harboù-ria	Hesperethù-sa	1
Hardenbér-gia	Hés-peris	I

NAMES
Hesperoyúc-ca
Heterocén-tron
Heteromè-les
Heterós-pathe
Heterospér-mum
Heuchè-ra
Hè-vea
Hibbér-tia
Hibís-cus
Hicksbeà-chia
Hidalgò-a
Hierà-cium
Hippeás-trum
Hippocrè-pis
Hippoche-pis Hippoph-aë
Hoffmán-nia
Hohè-ria
Hól-cus
Holmskiól-dia
Holodís-cus
Holoptè-lea
Homalán-thus
Homalocéph-ala
Homaloclà-dium
Homalomè-na
Hór-deum
Hormi-num
Hosáck-ia
Hò-sta
Houllè-tia
Houstò-nia
Houttuỳ-nia
Hò-vea
Hovè-nia
Hòw-ea
Hoỳ-a
Huér-nia
Hufelán-dia
Humà-ta
Hù-mea
Hù-mulus
Hunnemán-nia
Hù-ra

LIST	1. GENERIC	_
Hutchin-sia	Ipomœ-a	
Hyacin-thus	Iresì-ne	
Hydrán-gea	Ì-ris	
Hydrás-tis	fs-atis	
Hydriastè-le	Isér-tia	
Hydróch-aris	Isolò-ma	
Hydrò-cleys	Isopléx-is	
Hydrocót-yle	Isopò-gon	
Hydrò-lea	Isopỳ-rum	
Hydrophýl-lum	Isót-oma	
Hydrós-me	It-ea	
Hylocè-reus	fx-ia	
Hymenæ-a	Ixiolír-ion	
Hymenán-thera	Ixò-ra	
Hymenocál-lis		
Hymenós-porum	Jacarán-da	
Hyophór-be	Jacobín-ia	
Hyoscy-amus	Jacquemón-tia	
Hypér-icum, Hy-	Jasiò-ne	
perì-cum	Jás-minum	
Hyphà:-ne	Ját-ropha	
Hypocalým-ma	Jeffersò-nia	
Hypochœ-ris	Jovellà-na	
Hypól-epis	Juà-nia	
Hypóx-is	Jubæ-a	
Hyssò-pus	Júg-lans	
Hýs-trix	Jún-cus	
	Junip-erus	
Ibè-ris	Jussià-a	
Ibò-za	Justic-ia	
Idè-sia	Justic-ia	
fd-ria		
Ì-lex	Kadsù-ra	
Illíc-ium	Kagenéck-ia	
Impà-tiens	Kalán-choë	
Incarvil-lea	Kál-mia	
Indigóf-era	Kenned-ia	
fn-ga	Kén-tia	
Ingenhoù-zia	Kentióp-sis	
fn-ula	Kernè-ra	
Iochrò-ma	Kér-ria	
Ionid-ium	Keteleè-ria	
Ionopsid-ium	Kíck-xia	

Laurè-lia

	ANIS GET THE	IR NAMES
Laù-rus	Licuà-la	Lonchocár-pus
Laván-dula	Ligulà-ria	Lonic-era
Laván-ga	Ligús-ticum	Lopè-zia
Lavát-era	Ligù-strum	Lophóph-ora
Lawsò-nia	Líl-ium	Loropét-alum
Là-yia	Limnán-thes	Lò-tus
Lè-dum	Limnóch-aris	Lucù-lia
Leè-a	Limò-nium	Lucù-na Lucù-ma
Leiophýl-lum	Linán-thus	
Lemaireocè-reus	Linà-ria	Ludwíg-ia Luét-kea
Lém-na	Lindelò-fia	Luet-kea Lúf-fa
Léns	Linnæ-a	
Leonò-tis	Linospà-dix	Lunà-ria
Leontopò-dium	Linós-yris	Lupì-nus
Leonù-rus	Lì-num	Lycás-te
Lép-achys	Líp-aris	Lých-nis
Lepíd-ium	Lip-pia	Lýc-ium
Leptóch-loa	Liquidám-bar	Lycopér-sicon
Leptodác-tylon		Lycopò-dium
Leptodér-mis	Liriodén-dron	Lýc-opus
Leptop-teris	Liri-ope	Lýc-oris
Leptopy-rum	Listè-ra	Lygò-dium
Leptospér-mum	Lì-tchi	Lyò-nia
Leptos-yne	Lithocár-pus	Lyonothám-nus
	Lithodò-ra	${f L}$ ysich ${f i}$ -tum
Lép-totes	Lithofrág-ma	Lysimà-chia
Leschenaù-Itia	Líth-ops	Lýth-rum
Lespedè-za	Lithospér-mum	
Lesquerél-la	Lithrà-a	Maà-ckia
Lettsò-mia	Lít-sea	Mà-ba
Leucadén-dron	Livistò-na	Machærocè-reus
Leucà-na	Loà-sa	Mackà-ya
Leuchè-ria	Lobè-lia	Macleà-ya
Leucóc-rinum	Lobív-ia	Maclù-ra
Leucò-jum	Lobulà-ria	Macradè-nia
Leucophýl-lum	Lockhár-tia	Macróp-iper
Leucóth-oë	Lodoì-cea	Macrozà-mia
Leù-zea	Loesè-lia	Madacà-mia
Levís-ticum	Logà-nia	Maddè-nia
Lewis-ia	Loiseleù-ria	Mà-dia
Leycestè-ria	Lò-lium	Mà-sa
Lià-tris	Lomà-tia	Magnò-lia
Libér-tia	Lomà-tium	Mahér-nia
Libocéd-rus	Lò-nas	Mahobér-beris
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Mahò-nia	Medicà-go	Mikà-nia
Maián-themum	Mediníl-la	Míl-la
Majorà-na	Mediocác-tus	Miltò-nia
Malách-ra	Melaleù-ca	Mimò-sa
Malacocár-pus	Melampò-dium	Mím-ulus
Malacóth-rix	Melán-thium	Mím-usops
Malcò-mia	Melasphæ-rula	Miráb-ilis
Maléph-ora	Melás-toma	Miscán-thus
Mallò-tus	Mè-lia	Mitchél-la
Mál-ope	Melián-thus	Mitél-la
Malortì-ea	Mél-ica	Mitrà-ria
Malpíg-hia	Melicóc-ca	Molín-ia
Mál-va	Melicỳ-tus	Molopospér-mum
Malvás-trum	Melilò-tus	Mól-tkia
Malvavís-cus	Meliós-ma	Molucél-la
Mamillóp-sis	Melís-sa	Momór-dica
Mám-mea	Melít-tis	Monár-da
Mammillà-ria	Melocác-tus	Monardél-la
Mandevil-la	Melò-thria	Món-do
Mandrág-ora	Menispér-mum	Monè-ses
Manét-tia	Menodò-ra	Monotág-ma
Manfrè-da	Mén-tha	Monót-ropa
Mangif-era	Mentzè-lia	Monstè-ra
Mán-ihot	Menyán-thes	Montanò-a
Manulè-a	Menziè-sia	Montezù-ma
Marán-ta	Merà-tia	Món-tia
Marát-tia	Mercurià-lis	Monvíl-lea
Margyricár-pus	Mertén-sia	Morè-a
Már-ica	Mér-yta	Morì-na
Marrù-bium	Mesembryán-	Morín-da
Marsdè-nia	themum	Morín-ga
Marsil-ea	Més-pilus	Mò-rus
Martinè-zia	Metrosidè-ros	Moschà-ria
Mascarenhà-sia	Mè-um	Mucù-na
Masdevál-lia	Michaù-xia	Murrà-a
Mathì-ola	Michè-lia	Mù-sa
Matricà-ria	Micò-nia	Muscà-ri
Maurán-dia	Microcít-rus	Mutís-ia
Maxillà-ria	Microcỳ-cas	Myóp-orum
	Microglós-sa	Myosotíd-eum
Maytè-nus Mà-zus	Microlè-pia	Myosò-tis
Meconóp-sis	Micromè-ria	Myrì-ca
Medè-ola	Micrós-tylis	Myricà-ria
ivrede-ora	MICLOS-tylis	172,1100 110

- I Billi	TO GET THEIR	NAMES
Myriocéph-alus	Nopà-lea	Oríg-anum
Myriophýl-lum	Nopalxò-chia	Orix-a
Myrospér-mum	Normán-bya	Ormò-sia
Myróx-ylon	Nothofà-gus	Ornithíd-ium
Myrrhì-num	Nothól-cus	Ornithochì-lus
Mýr-rhis	Nothóp-anax	Ornithóg-alum
Mýr-sine	Nothoscór-dum	Orníth-opus
Myrtillocác-tus	Notò-nia	Orón-tium
Mýr-tus	Nototrích-ium	Oróx-ylon
Mystacíd-ium	Nyctán-thes	Orthocár-pus
	Nyctocè-reus	Orỳ-za
Nægè-lia	Nymphæ-a	Osculà-ria
Nanán-thus	Nymphoì-des	Osmán-thus
Nandì-na	Nymphozán-thus	Osmarò-nia
Nán-norrhops	Nýs-sa	Osmorhì-za
Narcís-sus	•	Osmún-da
Nastúr-tium	Óch-na	Osetomè-les
Navarrét-ia	Ò-cimum	Ostròw-skia
Neíl-lia	Octomè-ria	Ós-trya
Nelúm-bium	Odontiò-da	Othón-na
Nemás-tylis	Odontoglós-sum	Ourís-ia
Nemè-sia	Odontonè-ma	Óx-alis
Nemopán-thus	Odontosò-ria	Oxè-ra
Nemóph-ila	Œnothè-ra	Oxydén-drum
Neobés-seya	Ò-lea	Oxyden-urum Oxylò-bium
Neolloỳ-dia	Oleà-ria	Oxypét-alum
Nepén-thes	Oliverán-thus	Oxýt-ropis
Nép-eta	Omphalò-des	Oxyt Topis
Nephról-epis	Oncíd-ium	Pachì-ra
Nerì-ne	Ón-coba	Pachís-tima
Nè-rium	Onób-rychis	Pachycè-reus
Nertè-ra	Onoclè-a	Pachýph-ytum
Neviù-sia	Onò-nis	Pachyrhi-zus
Neyraù-dia	Onorpór-dum	Pachysán-dra
Nicán-dra	Onós-ma	Pachýs-tachys
Nicotià-na	Onosmò-dium	Pachystè-gia
Nidulà-rium	Oných-ium	Pæò-nia
Nierembér-gia	Ophioglós-sum	Palà-quium
Nigél-la	O-phrys	Palicoù-rea
Nì-pa	Oplis-menus	Palisò-ta
Nolà-na	Opún-tia	Paliù-rus
Nolì-na	Or-chis	Palmerél-la
Nól-tea	Oreóp-anax	Pà-nax
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LIST	I. GENERIC	NAMES
Pancrà-tium	Perés-kia	Phœ-nix
Pandà-nus	Pereskióp-sis	Pholidò-ta
Pandò-rea	Perè-zia	Phór-mium
Pán-icum	Períl-la	Photín-ia
Papà-ver	Períp-loca	Phragmì-tes
Paphiopè-dilum	Peristè-ria	Phygè-lius
Paradì-sea	Perís-trophe	Phýl-ica
Paramig-nya	Pernét-tia	Phyllág-athis
Parietà-ria	Peróv-skia	Phyllán-thus
Pà-ris	Pér-sea	Phyllì-tis
Parkinsò-nia	Persoò-nia	Phyllocác-tus
Parmentiè-ra	Pescatò-ria	Phyllóc-ladus
Parnás-sia	Petalostè-mum	Phyllód-oce
Paróch-etus	Petasì-tes	Phyllós-tachys
Paroných-ia	Petivè-ria	Phýs-alis
Parrò-tia	Petrè-a	Physocár-pus
Parrotióp-sis	Petrocál-lis	Physosì-phon
Parthè-nium	Petrocóp-tis	Physostè-gia
Parthenocis-sus	Petróph-ila	Phytél-ephas
Pás-palum	Petróph-ytum	Phyteù-ma
Passiflò-ra	Petroselì-num	Phytolác-ca
Pastinà-ca	Pettè-ria	Pì-cea, Píc-ea
Paullín-ia	Petù-nia	Píc-ris
Paulòw-nia	Peucéd-anum	Pì-eris
Pavò-nia	Peù-mus	Píl-ea, Pì-lea
Pediculà-ris	Phacè-lia	Pilocè-reus
Pedilán-thus	Phædrán-thus	Pimè-lea
Pediocác-tus	Phà-ius	Pimén-ta
Pelargò-nium	Phalænóp-sis	Pimpinél-la
Pelecýph-ora	Phál-aris	Pinán-ga
Pellæ-a	Phasè-olus	Pinguíc-ula
Pelliò-nia	Phebà-lium	Pì-nus
Peltán-dra	Phellodén-dron	Pì-per
Peltà-ria	Phellospér-ma	Piptadè-nia
Peltiphýl-lum	Philadél-phus	Piptán-thus
Peltóph-orum	Philè-sia	Piquè-ria
Peniocè-reus	Philibér-tia	Pisò-nia
Pennán-tia	Phillýr-ea	Pistà-cia
Pennisè-tum	Philodén-dron	Pís-tia
Penstè-mon	Phlè-um	Pì-sum
Pentaglót-tis	Phlò-mis	Pitcaír-nia
Pentapterýg-ium	Phlóx	Pithecellò-bium
Peperò-mia	Phœ-be	Pithecoctè-nium

HOW PLANTS GET THEIR NAMES

Pittós-porum	Pontadè-ria	Puerà-ria
Pityrográm-ma	Póp-ulus	Pulicà-ria
Plagián-thus	Porà-na	Pulmonà-ria
Planè-ra	Portlán-dia	Pultenæ-a
Plantà-go	Portulà-ca	Pù-nica
Plát-anus	Portulacà-ria	Púr-shia
Platycà-rya	Posoquè-ria	Puschkín-ia
Platycè-rium	Potentíl-la	Pù-ya
Platycò-don	Potè-rium	
Platymís-cium	Pò-thos	Pycnán-themum
Platystè-mon	Prà-tia	Pychnós-tachys
Pleiogýn-ium	Prém-na	Pyracán-tha
Pleiò-ne	Prenán-thes	Pyrè-thrum
Pleiospì-los	Prím-ula	Pýr-ola
Pleurothál-lis	Prinsè-pia	Pyrostè-gia
Plumbà-go	Pritchár-dia	Pỳ-rus
Plumè-ria	Proboscíd-ea	Pyxidanthè-ra
Pò-a	Promenà-a	6.4
Podachà-nium	Prosò-pis	Quám-oclit
Podalýr-ia	Prostanthè-ra	Quás-sia
Podocár-pus	Prò-tea	Quér-cus
Podól-epis	Prunél-la	Quillà-ja
Podophýl-lum	Prù-nus	Quín-cula
Pogò-nia		Quintín-ia
Poincià-na	Pseuderán-themum Pseudolà-rix	Quisquà-lis
Polanís-ia		_
Polemò-nium	Pseudóp-anax	Radermách-ia
Polián-thes	Pseudophœ-nix	Rajà-nia
Poliothýr-sis	Pseudotsù-ga	Ramón-da
Pól-lia	Psíd-ium	Ranè-vea
Polyandrocóc-cos	Psophocár-pus	Ranún-culus
Polýg-ala	Psorà-lea	Raoù-lia
Polygón-atum	Psychò-tria Ptè-lea	Ráph-anus
Polýg-onum		Ráph-ia
Polypò-dium	Pterè-tis	Raphiól-epis
Polypò-gon	Pteríd-ium Ptè-ris	Rathbù-nia
Polýp-teris		Ravenà-la
Polýs-cias	Pterocà-rya	Rebù-tia
Polystà-chya	Pterocéph-alus	Rehmán-nia
Polýs-tichum	Pterospér-mum	Reichár-dia
Pomadér-ris	Pterós-tyrax	Reinéck-ia
Ponci-rus	Pterygò-ta	Reinwár-dtia
Pongà-mia	Ptychorà-phis	Renanthè-ra
- area ming	Ptyschospér-ma	Resè-da

Rhabdothám-nus	Roseocác-tus	Sarà-ca
Rhagò-dia	Rosmari-nus	Sarcán-thus
Rhám-nus	Roúp-ala	Sarchochì-lus
Rhaphithám-nus	Royè-na	Sarcocóc-ca
Rhapidophýl-lum	Roystò-nea	Sarcoglót-tis
Rhà-pis	Rùbia	Sarracè-nia
Rhektophýl-lum	Rù-bus	Sás-a
Rhè-um	Rudbéck-ia	Sás-safras
Rhéx-ia	Ruél-lia	Saturè-ja
Rhinán-thus	Rù-mex	Sauróm-atum
Rhipóg-onum	Rús-cus	Saurù-rus
Rhíp-salis	Russè-lia	Saussù-rea
Rhizóph-ora	Rù-ta	Saxegothæ-a
Rhodóch-iton		Saxíf-raga
Rhododén-dron	Sà-bal	Scabiò-sa
Rhodomýr-tus	Sác-charum	Scelè-tium
Rhodós-tachys	Sadlè-ria	Schauè-ria
Rhodothám-nus	Sagerè-tia	Scheè-lea
Rhodót-ypus	Sagì-na	Schefflè-ra
Rhàe-o	Sagittà-ria	Schì-ma
Rhombophýl-lum	Saintpaù-lia	Schì-nus
Rhopalós-tylis	Salicór-nia	Schisán-dra
Rhús	Sà-lix	Schismatoglót-tis
Rhynchò-sia	Salpichrò-a	Schiveréck-ia
Rhynchós-tylis	Salpiglós-sis	Schizæ-a
Rhyticò-cos	Sál-sola	Schizán-thus
Rì-bes	Sál-via	Schizobasóp-sis
Ríc-cia	Salvín-ia	Schizocén-tron
Richár-dia	Samanè-a	Schizocò-don
Ríc-inus	Sambù-cus	Schizolò-bium
Ricò-tia	Sám-olus	Schizopét-alon
Rivì-na	Samuè-la	Schizophrág-ma
Robin-ia	Sanchè-zia	Schizós-tylis
Rò-chea	Sanguinà-ria	Schlumbergè-ra
Rodgér-sia	Sanguisór-ba	Schombúrg-kia
Rodriguè-zia	Sanseviè-ria	Schò-tia
Roemè-ria	Sán-talum	Schrán-kia
Ròh-dea	Santolì-na	Sciadóp-itys
Rollín-ia	Sanvità-lia	Scíl-la
Romanzóf-fia	Sapin-dus	Scindáp-sus
Rondelè-tia	Sà-pium	Scír-pus
Rò-sa	Saponà-ria	Sclerocác-tus
Roschè-ria	Sapò-ta	Scleropò-a

	TERMIN GET THEIR	NAMES
Scól-ymus	Sinomè-nium	Stachyù-rus
Scorpiù-rus	Siphonán-thus	Stanhò-pea
Scorzonè-ra	Sisyrín-chium	Stapè-lia
Scrophulà-ria	Sì-um	Staphylè-a
Scutellà-ria	Skím-mia	Stat-ice
Scuticà-ria	Smilacì-na	Stauntò-nia
Secà-le	Smì-lax	Steironè-ma
Sè-chium	Sobrà-lia	Stellà-ria
Securid-aca	Solán-dra	Stenán-drium
Securig-era	Solà-num	Stenán-thium
Sè-dum	Soldanél-la	Stenocár-pus
Selaginél-la	Solidà-go	
Selenicè-reus	Solís-ia	Stenochlæ-na
Selenipè-dium	Sól-lya	Stenoglót-tis
Sém-ele	Són-chus	Stenolò-bium
Semmán-the		Stenospermà-tior
Sempervì-vum	Sonerì-la	Stenotáph-rum
Senè-cio	copii ora, Bopilo ia	Stephanán-dra
Sequò-ia	Sophroni-tis	Stephanomè-ria
_ ·	Sorbà-ria	Stephanò-tis
Serenò-a	Sorbarò-nia	Stercù-lia
Sericocár-pus	Sór-bus	Sterlít-zia
Serís-sa	Sparáx-is	Sternbér-gia
Serjà-nia	Sparmán-nia	Stevensò-nia
Serrát-ula	Spár-tium	Stè-via
Sés-amum	Spathiphýl-lum	Stewár-tia
Sesbà-nia	Spathò-dea	Stigmaphýl-lon
Setà-ria	Spathoglót-tis	Stilbocár-pa
Severín-ia	Speculà-ria	Stì-pa
Shephér-dia	Spér-gula	Stizolò-bium
Shór-tia	Sphác-ele	Stokè-sia
Sibirà-a	Sphærál-cea	Stranvæ-sia
Sibthór-pia	Spigè-lia	Stratiò-tes
Sicà-na	Spilán-thes	Streptocár-pus
Síc-yos	Spinà-cia	Strelit-zia
Sidál-cea	Spiræ-a	Streptocár-pus
Siderì-tis	Spirán-thes	Strép-topus
Sideróx-ylo n	Spironè-ma	Streptosò-len
Sigmatós-talix	Spón-dias	Streptoso-ien Strobilán-thes
Silè-ne	Sprà-guea	Stroman-the
Síl-phium	Sprekè-lia	
Síl-ybum	Spyrid-ium	Strombocác-tus
Simmónd-sia	Stà-chys	Strombocár-pa
Sinnín-gia	•	Strých-nos
gia	Stachytarphè-ta	Stylid-ium

Stylóph-orum Templetò-nia Stylophýl-lum Tephrò-sia Terminà-lia Stỳ-rax Succì-sa Ternstræ-mia Sutherlán-dia Testudinà-ria Suttò-nia Tetracén-tron Swainsò-na Tetraclì-nis Swietè-nia Tetragò-nia Swinglè-a Tetráp-anax Symphoricár-pos Tetrapathà-a Symphyán-dra Tetrathè-ca Sým-phytum Teù-crium Symplocár-pus Thà-lia Sým-plocos Thalic-trum Synadè-nium Thamnocál-amus Svncár-pia Thè-a Synechán-thus Thelespér-ma Syntheris-ma Thelocác-tus Sýn-thyris Thelypò-dium Syrin-ga Theobrò-ma Thermóp-sis Thespè-sia Tabebù-ia Thevè-tia Tabernæmontà-na Thlás-pi Tác-ca Thomás-ia Tæníd-ia Thrì-nax Tagè-tes Thrixspér-mum Taiwà-nia Thrvál-lis Talì-num Thù-ja Thujóp-sis Tamarín-dus Tám-arix Thunbér-gia Tà-mus Thù-nia Tanacè-tum Thỳ-mus Taraktogè-nos Thysanolæ-na Taráx-acum Thysanò-tus Tiarél-la Taxò-dium Táx-us Tibouchì-na Téc-oma Tigrid-ia Tecomà-ria Tíl-ia Téc-tona Tillánd-sia Telè-phium Tinán-tia Tellì-ma Tipuà-na Telò-pea Titanóp-sis

Tithò-nia Tocò-ca Tolmiè-a Tól-pis Torè-nia Torrè-va Tovà-ra Townsén-dia Trachè-lium Trachelospér-mum Trachycár-pus Trachým-ene Trachystè-mon Tradescán-tia Tragopò-gon Trà-pa Trautvettè-ria Trè-ma Trevè-sia Trevò-a Tricalýs-ia Trichíl-ia Trichocè-reus Trichodiadè-ma Tricholà-na Trichopil-ia Trichosán-thes Trichós-porum Trichostè-ma Tricýr-tis Trì-dax Trientà-lis Trifò-lium Trigonél-la Tríl-isa Tríl-lium Trimè-za Triós-teum Triphà-sia Trip-laris Tripterýg-ium Trisè-tum Tristà-nia

HOW PLANTS GET THEIR NAMES

Trithrì-nax Vanil-la Westring-ia Trit-icum Veì-tchia Widdringtò-nia Tritò-nia Veltheì-mia Wigán-dia Trochodén-dron Veníd-ium Wilcóx-ia Tról-lius Vè-pris Wistè-ria Tropà-olum Verà-trum Wood-sia Tsù-ga Verbás-cum Woodwar-dia Tù-lipa Verbè-na Wulfè-nia Tù-nica Verbesì-na Wyè-thia Tupidán-thus Vernò-nia Turrà-a Verón-ica Xanthis-ma Tussà-cia Veronicás-trum Xanthóc-eras Tussilà-go Verschaffél-tia Xanthorrhà-a Tỳ-pha Verticór-dia Xanthosò-ma Vesicà-ria Xerán-themum Vibúr-num Xerophýl-lum Ù-lex Víc-ia Xylò-bium Úll-ucus Victò-ria Xvlophýl-la Úl-mus Víg-na Umbellulà-ria Villarè-sia Yúc-ca Ungnà-dia Vín-ca Unì-ola Vincetóx-icum Urbin-ia Vì-ola Zaluzián-skya Ù-rera Virgil-ia Zà-mia Urgin-ea Vì-tex Zantedés-chia Uropáp-pus Vì-tis Zanthorhì-za Ursín-ia Vittadín-ia Zanthóx-vlum Urtì-ca Vriè-sia Zauschnè-ria Utriculà-ria Zè-a Uvulà-ria Wahlenbér-gia Zebrì-na Waldstei-nia Zelkò-va Vaccin-ium Wallich-ia Zenò-hia Valerià-na Walthè-ria Zephyrán-thes Valerianél-la Warscewiczél-la Zín-giber Vallà-ris Warszewic-zia Zín-nia Vallisnè-ria Washingtò-nia Zizà-nia Vallò-ta Watsò-nia Zíz-vphus Vancouvè-ria Wedè-lia Zoý-sia Ván-da Weigè-la Zygád-enus Vandóp-sis Weinmán-nia Zvgocác-tus Vaniè-ria Wérck-lea Zygopét-alum

LIST II

Specific or trivial Latin names, with spelling, indication of pronunciation and suggestion of botanical application.

Grave accent ('), long vowel; acute accent ('), short or other vowel sounds

abbrevià-tus: abbreviated, short- acrostichoì-des: acrostichum-like acrót-riche: hairy-lipped ened abietì-nus: abies-like aculeatis-simus: very prickly aborti-vus: aborted, parts failaculeà-tus: prickly acuminatifò-lius: acuminateabrotanifò-lius: abrotanumleaved acuminatis-simus: verv aculeaved minate abrúp-tus: abrupt acuminà-tus: acuminate, longabsinthoì-des: absinthe-like pointed, tapering abvssín-icus: Abvssinian acanthifò-lius: acanthus-leaved acután-qulus: acutely angled acutif-idus: acutely cut acanthóc-omus: spiny-haired or acutifò-lius: acutely leaved, -crowned sharp-leaved acaù-lis: stemless ác-colus: dwells near acutil-obus: acutely lobed acéph-alus: headless acutipét-alus: petals acute acutis-simus: verv acute acér-bus: harsh or sour acù-tus: acute, sharp-pointed acerifò-lius: maple-leaved aceroì-des: maple-like adenóph-orus: gland-bearing acerò-sus: needle-shaped adenophýl-lus: glandular-leaved achilleæfò-lius: achillea-leaved adenóp-odus: glandular-footed adiantoì-des: adiantum-like aciculà-ris: needle-like admiráb-ilis: admirable, noteacidis-simus: exceedingly sour ác-idus: acid. sour worthy adnà-tus: adnate, joined to acinà-ceus: scimitar- or saberadonidifò-lius: adonis-leaved shaped adprés-sus: pressed against acinacifò-lius: scimitar-leaved adscén-dens: ascending acinacifór-mis: scimitar-shaped aconitifò-lius: aconite-leaved adsúr-aens: ascending adún-cus: hooked à-cris: acrid, sharp

ventive ægypti-acus: Egyptian ém-ulus: emulative, imitating æquinoctià-lis: pertaining to the equinox, mid-tropical æquipét-alus: equal-petaled æquitríl-obus: equally threelobed aè-rius: aërial æruginò-sus: rusty, rust-colored alnifò-lius: alder-leaved æstivà-lis: pertaining to summer æstì-vus: summer affi-nis: related à-fra: African africà-nus: African agavoì-des: agave-like ageratifò-lius: ageratum-leaved ageratoì-des: ageratum-like aggregà-tus: aggregate, clustered agrà-rius: of the fields agrés-tis: of or pertaining to the fields agrifò-lius: scabby-leaved aizoì-des: aizoon-like alà-tus: winged albés-cens: whitish, becoming white ál-bicans: whitish albicaù-lis: white-stemmed ál-bidus: white albiflò-rus: white-flowered ál-bifrons: white-fronded albispi-nus: white-spined albocinc-tus: white-girdled, white-crowned albo-pic-tus: white-painted albo-pilò-sus: white-shaggy albospi-cus: white-spiked ál-bulus: whitish ál-bus: white

ád-venus: newly arrived, ad- alchemilloì-des: alchemilla-like alcicór-nis: elk-horned alép-picus: of Aleppo (Syria) alexandri-nus: of Alexandria (Egypt) ál-aidus: cold aliè-nus: foreign allià-ceus: of the alliums, garlic-like alliariæfò-lius: alliaria-leaved aloì-des. alooì-des: aloe-like aloifò-lius: aloe-leaved æthióp-icus: Ethiopian, African alopecurioì-des: alopecurus-like alpés-tris: nearly alpine alpig-enus: alpine alpì-nus: alpine altà-icus: of the Altai Mountains (Siberia) altér-nans: alternating alternifò-lius: alternate-leaved altér-nus: alternating, alternate althæoi-des: althæa-like, hollvhock-like ál-tifrons: tall-fronded altis-simus: very tall, tallest ál-tus: tall alúm-nus: well nourished, flourishing, strong alyssoi-des: alyssum-like amáb-ilis: lovely amaranthoì-des: amaranth-like amarantic-olor: amaranth-colored amaricaù-lis: bitter-stemmed amà-rus: bitter amazón-icus: of the River Amazon region ambig-uus: ambiguous, doubtful ambly-odon: blunt-toothed ambrosioì-des: ambrosia-like amelloì-des: amellus-like americà-nus: American

amethýs-tinus: amethystine, violet-colored amethystoglós-sus: amethysttongued ammoph-ilus: sand-loving amà-nus: charming, pleasing amphib-ius: amphibious, growing on land or in water amplexicaù-lis: stem-clasping amplexifò-lius: leaf-clasping amblià-tus: enlarged amplis-simus: most or very ample ám-plus: ample, large amurén-sis: of the Amur River region (northeastern Asia) amvadalifór-mis: almond-shaped amvadál-inus: almond-like amyqdaloi-des: almond-like anacán-thus: without spines anacardioì-des: anacardium-like anagyroì-des: anagyris-like anatól-icus: of Anatolia (Asia Minor) án-ceps: two-headed, two-edged andic-olus: native of the Andes andi-nus: Andine, pertaining to the Andes androa-vnus: hermaphrodite androsà-ceus: like androsace androsæmifò-lius: androsæmum-leaved anemoneflò-rus: anemone-flowered anemonefò-lius, anemonifò-lius: anemone-leaved anemonoì-des: anemone-like anethifò-lius: anethum-leaved aneù-rus: nerveless anfractuò-sus: twisted án-glicus: English, of England angui-nus: snaky, snake-like angulà-ris, angulà-tus: angular,

angled angulò-sus: angled, full of corangustifò-lius: narrow-leaved angús-tus: narrow anisà-tum: anise-scented anisodò-rus: anise-odor anisophýl-lus: unequal-leaved annót-inus: year-old annulà-ris: annular, ringed annulà-tus: annular án-nuus: annual anóm-alus: anomalous, out of the ordinary or usual anopét-alus: erect-petaled antárc-ticus: of the Antarctic regions anthemoi-des: anthemis-like anthocrè-ne: flower-fountain anthyllidifò-lius: anthyllisleaved antillà-ris: of the Antilles (West Indies) antip-odum: of the antipodes antiquò-rum: of the ancients antì-quus: ancient antirrhinistò-rus: antirrhinumflowered antirrhinoì-des: antirrhinumlike, snapdragon-like apenni-nus: pertaining to the Apennines (Italy) apér-tus: uncovered, bare, open apét-alus: without petals aphýl-lus: leafless apiculà-tus: apiculate, tipped with a point apif-era: bee-bearing apiifò-lius: apium-leaved áp-odus: footless apopét-alus: having free petals appendiculà-tus: appendaged applanà-tus: flattened

applicà-tus: joined, attached áp-ricus: uncovered áp-terus: wingless aquát-icus, aquát-ilis: aquatic à-queus: aqueous, watery aquilegifò-lius: aquilegia-leaved aquili-nus: aquiline, eagle-like aráb-icus: Arabian arachnoì-des: spider-like, cobwebby araliæfò-lius: aralia-leaved arborés-cens: becoming treelike, woodv arbò-reus: tree-like arbús-culus: like a small tree arbutifò-lius: arbutus-leaved árc-ticus: arctic arenà-rius, arenò-sus: of sand or sandy places areolà-tus: pitted argentà-tus: silvery, silvered argenteo-quttà-tus: silverspotted argén-teus: silvery argillà-ceus: of clav argophýl-lus: silver-leaved arqù-tus: sharp-toothed argyrà-us: silvery argyróc-omus: silver-haired argyroneù-rus: silver-nerved argyrophýl-lus: silver-leaved ár-idus: arid arietì-nus: like a ram's head aristà-tus: aristate, bearded aristò-sus: bearded arizón-icus: of Arizona arkansà-nus: of Arkansas armà-tus: armed armillà-ris: with a bracelet, armring, or collar aromát-icus: aromatic arréct-us: raised up, erect

artemisioì-des: artemisia-like

articulà-tus: articulated, jointed arundinà-ceus: reed-like arvén-sis: pertaining to cultivated fields asarifò-lius: asarum-leaved ascalón-icus: of Ascalon (Syria) ascén-dens: ascending asclepiadè-us: asclepias-like asiát-icus: Asian ás-per: rough asperà-tus: rough aspericaù-lis: rough-stemmed asperifò-lius: rough-leaved aspér-rimus: very rough asphodeloi-des: asphodelus-like asplenifò-lius: asplenium-leaved assim-ilis: similar, like to assúr-gens: ascending assurgentiflò-rus: flowers ascending asteroì-des: aster-like astù-ricus: of Asturia, Spain à-ter: coal-black atlán-ticus: Atlantic atomà-rius: speckled atrà-tus: blackened atriplicifò-lius: atriplex-leaved, orach-leaved atrocár-pus: dark-fruited atropurpù-reus: dark purple atrór-ubens: dark red atrosanguin-eus: dark blood-red atroviolà-ceus: dark violet atróv-irens: dark green attenuà-tus: attenuated, produced to a point át-ticus: pertaining to Attica or Athens, Greece aubretioì-des: aubretia-like augustis-simus: very notable augús-tus: august, notable, maiestic auranti-acus: orange-red

aurantifò-lius: golden-leaved aurè-olus: golden aù-reus: golden auriculà-tus: eared auric-omus: golden-haired auri-tus: eared australién-sis: belonging to Australia austrà-lis: southern austri-acus: Austrian austri-nus: southern autumnà-lis: autumnal avicenniæfò-lius: avicennialeaved aviculà-ris: pertaining to birds bic-olor: two-colored à-vium: of the birds axillà-ris: axillary azaleoì-des: azalea-like azór-icus: of the Azores azù-reus: azure, sky-blue babylón-icus: Babylonian bác-cans, baccà-tus: berried baccif-era: berry-bearing bacterióph-ilus: bacteria-loving haleár-icus: of the Balearic Islands balsà-meus: balsamic balsamíf-era: balsam-bearing bál-ticus: of the Baltic bambusoì-des: bamboo-like banát-icus: of Banat (Hungary) bár-barus: foreign barbát-ulus: somewhat bearded barbà-tus: barbed. bearded barbiq-era: bearing barbs or beards barbinér-vis: nerves bearded barbinò-de: bearded at nodes

barbulà-tus: small-bearded

baselloì-des: basella-like

bartiseæfò-lius: bartisia-leaved

basilà-ris: pertaining to the base or bottom bavár-icus: Bavarian bellidifò-lius: beautiful-leaved bellidioì-des: bellis-like bél-lus: handsome benedic-tus: blessed betà-ceus: beet-like betonicæfò-lius, betonicifò-lius: betonica-leaved betulæfò-lius: birch-leaved betuli-nus: birch-like betuloì-des: birch-like bicarinà-tus: twice-keeled bicór-nis, bicornù-tus; twohorned bidentà-tus: two-toothed bién-nis: biennial bif-idus: twice cut biflò-rus: two-flowered bifò-lius: two-leaved bifór-mis: of two forms bi-frons: two-fronded bifurcà-tus: twice forked bigib-bus: with two swellings or projections biglù-mis: two-glumed bianonioì-des: bignonia-like bij-ugus: voked, two together bil-obus: two-lobed binà-tus: twin binervà-tus, binér-vis: twonerved binoculà-ris: two-eyed, twospotted biparti-tus: two-parted bibét-alus: two-petaled bipinnatif-idus: twice pinnately cut bipinnà-tus: twice pinnate bibunctà-tus: two-spotted biséc-tus: cut in two parts

biserrà-tus: twice toothed bispinò-sus: two-spined bistór-tus: twice twisted bisulcà-tus: two-grooved biternà-tus: twice ternate bituminò-sus: bituminous, coalblack bivál-vis: two-valved blan-dus: bland, mild blephariglót-tis: fringedtongued bò-nus: good borbon-icus: of Bourbonne (France) boreà-lis: northern botrvoi-des: cluster-like, grapelike brachià-tus: branched at right angles brachyán-drus: short-stamened brachván-thus: short-flowered brachýb-otrvs: short-clustered brachycár-pus: short-fruited brachypét-alus: short-petaled brachýp-odus: short-stalked brachýt-richus: short-haired brachýt-ylus: short-styled, shortknobbed bracteà-tus: bracteate, bearing bracts bracteò-sus: bract-bearing bractés-cens: bracteate brasilià-nus: Brazilian brassicæfò-lius: brassica-leaved brevicaudà-tus: short-tailed brevicaù-lis: short-stemmed brevitò-lius: short-leaved brév-ifrons: short-fronded breviligulà-tus: short-liguled brevipaniculà-tus: short-panicled brevipedunculà-tus: shortpeduncled brév-ipes: short-footed or-stalked

brevirós-tris: short-beaked brè-vis: short breviscà-bus: short-scaped brevisè-tus: short-bristled brevis-pathus: short-spathed brevis-simus: very short, shortbrevis-tylus: short-styled brilliantis-simus: very brilliant brittán-icus: of Britain brizæfór-mis: briza-formed bronchià-lis: bronchial brún-neus: deep brown bucéph-alus: ox-headed buddleifò-ilus: buddleia-leaved buddleoi-des: buddleja-like bufò-nius: pertaining to the toad bulbif-era: bulb-bearing bulbò-sus: bulbous bulgár-icus: Bulgarian bullà-tus: blistered, puckered bupleurifò-lius: bupleurumleaved buxifò-lius: box-leaved byzanti-nus: Byzantine (Constantinople region) cacaliæfò-lius: cacalia-leaved cachemir-icus: of Cashmere

cacaliæfò-lius: cacalia-leaved cachemír-icus: of Cashmere cád-micus: cadmic; metallic like tin cærulés-cens: becoming dark blue cærù-leus: cerulean, dark blue cærù-leus: cerulean, dark blue cærù-leus: cespitose, tufted cáf-fer, cáf-fra: Kafir (Africa) cajanifò-lius: cajanus-leaved (Cajan: pigeon-pea) caláb-ricus: from Calabria (Italy) calamifò-lius: reed-leaved calathì-nus: basket-like

calcarà-tus: spurred calcà-reus: pertaining to lime calendulà-ceus: calendula-like califór-nicus: of California callicár-pus: beautiful-fruited callistà-chvus: beautiful-spiked callistegioì-des: callistegia-like callizò-nus: beautiful-zoned callò-sus: thick-skinned, with calluses calocéph-alus: beautiful-headed calóc-omus: beautiful-haired calophýl-lus: beautiful-leaved cál-vus: bald, hairless, naked calvc-inus: calvx-like calvculà-tus: calvx-like calvotrà-tus: bearing a calvotra cám-bricus: Cambrian, Welsh campanulà-ria: bell-flowered campanulà-tus: campanulate, bell-shaped campanuloì-des: campanula-like cambés-tris: of the fields or plains camphorà-tus: pertaining to camphor campschát-icus: of Kamtchatka campylocár-pus: curved-fruited canaliculà-tus: channeled. grooved cancellà-tus: cross-barred candelà-brum: candelabra cán-dicans: white, hoary candidís-simus: very white-hairy or hoarv cán-didus: pure white, whitehairy, shining canés-cens: gray-pubescent cani-nus: pertaining to a dog cannáb-inus: like cannabis or hemp cantáb-ricus: from Cantabria (Spain)

cà-nus: ash-colored, hoary capén-sis: of the Cape of Good capillà-ris: hair-like capillifór-mis: hair-shaped capil-lipes: slender-footed capità-tus: capitate, headed capitellà-tus: having little heads capitél-lus: little head capitulà-tus: having little heads cappadóc-icum: Cappadocian (Asia Minor) capreolà-tus: winding, twining capricór-nis: Tropic of Capricorn capsulà-ris: having capsules cardaminefò-lius: cardamineleaved cardinà-lis: cardinal cardiopét-alus: petals heartshaped carduà-ceus: thistle-like caribà-us: of the Caribbean caricò-sus: carex-like carinà-tus: keeled carinif-era: keel-bearing carminà-tus: carmine cár-neus: flesh-colored cár-nicus: fleshy carniól-icus: of Carniola (south-central Europe) carnós-ulus: somewhat fleshy carnò-sus: fleshy carolinià-nus. carolì-nus: Carolinian carpáth-icus, carpát-icus: of the Carpathian region carpinifò-lius: carpinus-leaved cartilagin-eus: like cartilage carvophyllà-ceus: clove-like carvopteridifò-lius: caryopterisleaved carvotæfò-lius: carvota-leaved

caryotid-eus: caryota-like cashmerià-nus: of Cashmere (Asia) cás-picus, cás-pius: Caspian cassiaráb-icus: Arabian cassia cassinoì-des: cassine-like catalpifò-lius: catalpa-leaved cathár-ticus: cathartic cathayà-nus: of Cathay (China) caucás-icus: belonging to the chionán-thus: snow-flower Caucasus caudà-tus: caudate, tailed caudés-cens: becoming stem-like caulés-cens: having a stem caulialà-tus: wing-stemmed cauliflò-rus: stem-flowering caús-ticus: caustic celastri-nus: celastrus-like cenis-ius: of Mt. Cenis (France and Italy) centifò-lius: hundred-leaved centranthifò-lius: centranthusleaved cephalà-tus: bearing heads cephalón-icus: of Cephalonia (one of the Ionian islands) cephalò-tes: head-like cerám-icus: ceramic, pottery-like cerasif-era: cerasus- or cherrybearing cerasifór-mis: cherry-formed cerastioì-des: cerastium-like ceratocaù-lis: horn-stalked cereà-le: pertaining to Ceres or agriculture cerefò-lius: wax-leaved cè-reus: waxy cerif-era: wax-bearing cerinthoì-des: cerinthe-like cér-inus: waxv cér-nuus: drooping, nodding chalcedón-icus: of Chalcedon (on the Bosphorus)

chamædrifò-lius, chamædryfòlius: chamædrys-leaved chathám-icus: of Chatham Island (New Zealand) cheilán-thus: lip-flowered cheilanthifò-lius: cheilanthusleaved chelidonioì-des: chelidoniumlike chirophýl-lus: hand-leaved chloræfò-lius: chlora-leaved chlorán-thus: green-flowered chlorochi-lon: green-lipped chrysanthemoi-des: chrysanthemum-like chrysán-thus: golden-flowered chrýs-eus: golden chrysocár-pus: golden-fruited chrysóc-omus: golden-haired chrysól-epis: golden-scaled chrysoleù-cus: gold and white chrysól-obus: golden-lobed chrysophýl-lus: golden-leaved chrysós-tomus: golden-mouthed chrysót-oxum: golden-arched cichorià-ceus: cichorium-like cicutæfò-lius: cicuta-leaved cicutà-rius: of or like cicuta cilià-ris, cilià-tus: ciliate, fringed cilic-icus: of Cilicia (Asia Minor) ciliic-alyx: calyx ciliate ciliolà-ris: being secondarily cilicinc-tus: girded, girdled cinerariæfò-lius: cinerarialeaved cinerás-cens: becoming ashygrav cinè-reus: ash-colored cinnabari-nus: cinnabar-red cinnamò-meus: cinnamon-brown

cinnamomifò-lius: cinnamonleaved circinà-lis. circinà-tus: circinate, coiled cirrhà-tus, cirrhò-sus: tendrilled cismontà-nus: on this side the mountains cisplati-nus: on this side of La commix-tus: mixed, mingled Plata River cistifò-lius: cistus-leaved citrà-tus: citrus-like citrifò-lius: citrus-leaved citrì-nus: citron-colored or -like citriodò-rus: lemon-scented citroì-des: citrus-like cladóc-alvx: club-calvx clandesti-nus: concealed claù-sus: shut, closed clavà-tus: club-shaped clavellà-tus: slightly club-shaped clà-vus: club clematid-eus: like clematis clethroì-des: clethra-like clivò-rum: of the hills clvpeà-tus: with, or like a shield clypeolà-tus: somewhat shieldshaped coarctà-tus: crowded together coccif-era, cocciq-era: berrybearing coccin-eus: scarlet cochenillíf-era: cochineal-bearing cochleà-ris: spoon-like cochlearis-pathus: spoon-spathed cochleà-tus: spoon-like cælesti-nus: sky-blue cælés-tis: celestial, sky-blue coanà-tus: related to cól-chicus: of Colchis (eastern Black Sea region) colli-nus: pertaining to a hill

colorà-tus: colored columbià-nus: Columbian (western North American) columellà-ris: pertaining to a small pillar or pedestal columnà-ris: columnar cò-mans, comà-tus: with hair commù-nis: common, general commutà-tus: changed or changcomò-sus: with long hair compác-tus: compact, dense complanà-tus: flattened compléx-us: circled, embraced complicà-tus: complicate compós-itus: compound comprés-sus: compressed, flattened cómp-tus: adorned, ornamented cón-cavus: hollowed out concin-nus: neat, well-made, elegant conchæfò-lius: shell-leaved cón-color: colored similarly condensà-tus, condén-sus: condensed, crowded confertiflò-rus: flowers crowded confér-tus: crowded confór-mis: similar in shape or otherwise confù-sus: confused, uncertain congés-tus: congested, brought together conglomerà-tus: crowded together congolà-nus: of the Congo conif-era: cone-bearing conjugà-tus, conjugià-lis: connected, joined together connà-tus: connate, united, twin conoid-eus: cone-like conóp-seus: canopied

consanguin-eus: related consól-idus: consolidated conspér-sus: scattered conspic-uus: conspicuous constric-tus: constricted contig-uus: near together continentà-lis: continental contór-tus: contorted, twisted contrác-tus: contracted controvér-sus: controversial convallarioì-des: convallarialike convolvulà-ceus: convolvuluslike convzoì-des: convza-like coralliflò-rus: coral-flowered corál-linus: coral-red cordà-tus: heart-shaped cordifò-lius: heart-leaved cordifór-mis: heart-form corià-ceus: leathery corià-ria: leather-like coridifò-lius, corifò-lius, coriophýl-lus: coris-leaved cór-neus: horny corniculà-tus: horned bearing cornù-tus: horned corollà-tus: corolla-like coromandelià-nus: of Coromandel (India) coronà-rius: used for or belong- crithmifò-lius: crithmum-leaved ing to garlands coronà-tus: crowned corrugà-tus: corrugated, wrinkled cór-sicus: Corsican corticò-sus: heavily furnished with bark cortusoì-des: cortusa-like corús-cans: vibrating, glittering corylifò-lius: corvlus-leaved

corymbif-era: corymb-bearing corymbiflò-rus: corymb-flowered corvmbò-sus: corvmbose corvnóc-alvx: club-like calvx cosmophýl-lus: cosmos-leaved costà-tus: costate, ribbed cotinifò-lius: cotinus-leaved (Cotinus, smoke-tree) crassicaù-lis: thick-stemmed crassifò-lius: thick-leaved crás-sipes: thick-footed or -stalked crassiús-culus: somewhat thick crás-sus: thick, fleshy cratægifò-lius: cratægus-leaved crè-brus: close, frequent, repeated crenatiflò-rus: crenate-flowered crenà-tus: crenate, scalloped crenulà-tus: crenulate, somewhat scalloped crepidà-tus: slippered crép-itans: crackling, rustling cretà-ceus: pertaining to chalk crét-icus: of Crete (island, E. Mediterranean) cornif-era, cornig-era: horn- crini-tus: provided with long hair crispà-tus, cris-pus: crisped. curled Cristagál-li: cockscomb cristà-tus: cristate, crested crocà-tus: saffron-vellow crò-ceus: saffron-colored, vellow crocosmæflò-rus: crocosma-flowered crotonifò-lius: croton-leaved crucià-tus: cross-like crucif-era: cross-bearing cruén-tus: bloody Crusgál-li: cockspur

crystál-linus: crystalline cvnaroì-des: cvnara-like ctenoì-des: comb-like cucullà-tus: hooded cucumeri-nus: cucumber-like cultò-rum: of the cultivators or gardeners cultrà-tus: knife-shaped cultrifór-mis: shaped like broad knife-blade cuneà-tus: wedge-shaped cuneifò-lius: wedge-leaved cuneifór-mis: wedge-formed cupreà-tus: coppery cupressifór-mis: cypress-form cuprés-sinus: cypress-like cupressoì-des: cypress-like cù-preus: copper-like or -colored curassáv-icus: of Curaçoa (southern West Indies) curvà-tus: curved cúr-tus: shortened curvitò-lius: leaves curved cuscutæfór-mis: cuscuta-like cuspidà-tus: with a cusp or sharp stiff point cuspidifò-lius: leaves cuspidate cvanán-thus: blue-flowered cvà-neus: blue cvanocár-pus: blue-fruited cvanophýl-lus: blue-leaved cvatheoi-des: cvathea-like cvclamin-eus: cvclamen-like cvclocár-pus: fruit rolled up circularly cỳ-clops: cyclopean; gigantic cvlindrà-ceus, cvlin-dricus: cvlindrical cylindrostà-chyus: cylindricalspiked cymbifór-mis: boat-shaped cvmò-sus: bearing cymes cvnán-chicus: cvnanchum-like cvnanchoì-des: cynanchum-like

cy-preus: copper-like; see cucvtisoì-des: cvtisus-like dacrydioì-des: dacrydium-like dactvlif-era: finger-bearing dactyloì-des: finger-like dahù-ricus, daù-ricus, davù-ricus: of Dahuria or Dauria (Siberia) dalmát-icus: Dalmatian damascè-nus: of Damascus daphnoì-des: daphne-like dasvacán-thus: thick-spined dasyán-thus: thick-flowered dasvcár-bus: thick-fruited dasýc-lados: thick-branched dasyphýl-lus: thick-leaved dasystè-mon: thick-stamened daucoì-des: daucus-like dealbà-tus: whitened, whitewashed déb-ilis: weak, frail decán-drus: ten-stamened decabét-alus: ten-petaled decaphýl-lus: ten-leaved decid-uus: deciduous decip-iens: deceptive declinà-tus: bent downward decolò-rans: discoloring, staining decombós-itus: decompound, more than once divided déc-orans: adorning, decorative decorà-tus: decorative decò-rus: elegant, comely, becoming decúm-bens: decumbent decurrent; decurrent, running down the stem deflex-us: bent abruptly down-

ward

crustà-tus: encrusted

defór-mis: misshapen, deformed dehis-cens: dehiscent deiéc-tus: debased deléc-tus: chosen delicatis-simus: very delicate delicà-tus: delicate, tender deliciò-sus: delicious delphinifò-lius: delphiniumleaved deltoì-des, deltoid-eus: triangular demér-sus: under water demis-sus: low, weak dendroid-eus: tree-like densiflò-rus: densely flowered densifò-lius: densely leaved densà-tus: dense dén-sus: dense dentà-tus: toothed denticulà-tus: slightly toothed dentif-era: tooth-bearing dentò-sus: toothed denudà-tus: denuded, naked depauperà-tus: starved, dwarfed depén-dens: hanging down deprés-sus: depressed desér-ti: of the desert desmoncoì-des: desmoncus-like detón-sus: clipped deús-tus: burned diaból-icus: diabolical, devilish diacán-thus: two-spined diadè-ma: diadem, crown dián-drus: two-stamened dianthiflò-rus: dianthus-flowered diáph-anus: diaphanous, transparent dichót-omus: forked in pairs dichroán-thus: dichroa-flowered (Dichroa: Saxifragaceæ) dich-rous: of two colors

dicóc-cus: with two berries

dictvophýl-lus: netted-leaved did-ymus: in pairs (as of stamens) diffór-mis: of differing forms diffù-sus: diffuse, spreading digità-tus: digitate, hand-like dilatà-tus: dilated, expanded dilà-tus: dilated, spread out dimidià-tus: halved dimór-phus: two-formed dì-odon: with two teeth dioì-cus: diœcious diosmæfò-lius: diosma-leaved ditét-alus: two-petaled diphýl-lus: two-leaved diplostephioi-des: like diplostephium dipsà-ceus: of the teasel or dipdipterocár-pus: two-winged fruit dip-terus: two-winged dipyrè-nus: two-seeded discoid-eus: discoid, rayless dis-color: of two or of different colors dis-par: dissimilar, unlike disséc-tus: dissected, deeply cut dissim-ilis: unlike dissitiflò-rus: remotely or loosely flowered distà-chyus: two-spiked dis-tans: distant, separate, remote distichophýl-lus: leaves tworanked dis-tichus: two-ranked dis-tylus: two-styled diúr-nus: day-flowering divaricà-tus: spreading, widely divergent divér-gens: wide-spreading diversic-olor: diversely colored

diversiflò-rus: diversely flowered effù-sus: very loose-spreading diversifò-lius: variable-leaved divi-sus: divided dixán-thus: double-tinted dodecán-drus: twelve-stamened dodonæifò-lius: dodonæa-leaved dolabrifór-mis: hatchet-shaped dolabrà-tus: mattock- or hatchetshaped dolò-sus: deceitful domés-ticus: domestic, domesticated doronicoì-des: doronicum-like drabifò-lius: draba-leaved dracænoì-des: dracæna-like dracocéph-alus: dragon-head dracunculoì-des: tarragon-like drepanophýl-lus: leaves sickleshaped drupà-ceus: drupe-like drupif-era: drupe-bearing drynarioì-des: drynaria-like dù-bius: doubtful dúl-cis: sweet dumetò-rum: of bushes or hedges dumò-sus: bushv dù-plex: double duplicà-tus: duplicate, double duráb-ilis: durable, lasting durác-inus: hard-berried dù-rior: harder duriús-culus: somewhat hard or rough

ebenà-ceus: ebony-like ebracteà-tus: bractless ebúr-neus: ivorv-white echinà-tus: prickly, bristly echinocár-pus: prickly-fruited echinosép-alus: prickly-sepaled echioì-des: echium-like ecornù-tus: hornless edù-lis: edible

elæagnifò-lius: elæagnus-leaved elás-ticus: elastic elà-tior, elà-tius: taller elà-tus: tall él-egans: elegant elegantis-simus: most elegant elegán-tulus: elegant elephán-tidens: large-toothed elephán-tipes: elephant-footed elephán-tum: of the elephants ellipsoidà-lis: elliptic ellip-ticus: elliptic elongà-tus: elongated, lengthened emarginà-tus: with a shallow notch at apex emét-icus: emetic ém-inens: eminent, prominent empetrifò-lius: empetrum-leaved enneacán-thus: nine-spined enneaphýl-lus: nine-leaved ensà-tus: sword-shaped ensifò-lius: sword-leaved ensifór-mis: sword-shaped entomóph-ilus: insect-loving equés-tris: pertaining to the horse equisetifò-lius: equisetumleaved equi-nus: of horses eréc-tus: erect, upright eriacán-thus: woolly-spined erianthè-ra: woolly-anthered erián-thus: woolly-flowered ericæfò-lius, ericifò-lius: ericaleaved ericoì-des: erica-like, heath-like erinà-ceus: hedge-hog eriobotryoì-des: eriobotrya-like eriocár-bus: woolly-fruited eriocéph-alus: woolly-headed

erióph-orus: wool-bearing

exolè-tus: mature, dying away

country

expán-sus: expanded

explò-dens: exploding exscà-pus: without scape exscúlp-tus: dug out exsér-tus: protruding from exsúr-gens: rising up extén-sus: extended exù-dans: exuding

fabà-ceus: faba-like, bean-like falcà-tus: falcate, sickle-shaped falcifò-lius: falcate-leaved falcifór-mis: sickle-shaped fál-lax: deceptive farinà-ceus: containing starch farinif-era: starch-bearing farinò-sus: mealy, powdery fascià-tus: abnormally flattened fasciculà-ris. fasciculà-tus: fascicled, clustered fascinà-tor: fascinating fastigià-tus: fastigiate, branches erect and close together fastuò-sus: proud fát-uus: foolish, simple febrif-ugus: fever-dispelling fém-ina: female fenestrà-lis: with window-like openings fér-reus: pertaining to iron ferrugin-eus: rustv fér-tilis: fertile, fruitful ferulæfò-lius: ferula-leaved festi-vus: festive, gay, bright fibrillò-sus: having fibers fibrò-sus: having prominent fificifò-lius: fig-leaved

filamentò-sus: filamentous

filicaù-lis: thread-stemmed

filicifò-lius: fern-leaved

filici-nus: fern-like filicoì-des: fern-like filif-era: bearing filaments or flor-idus: flowering, full of threads filifò-lius: thread-leaved filifór-mis: thread-like filipenduli-nus: filipendula-like fil-ipes: stalks thread-like fimbriát-ulus: with small fringe fimbrià-tus: fringed firmà-tus: firm, made firm fir-mus: firm, strong fissifò-lius: split-leaved fis-silis: cleft or split fissurà-tus: fissured, cleft fis-sus: cleft, split fistulò-sus: hollow-cylindrical flabellà-tus: with fan-like parts flabél-lifer, flabellifór-mis: fanshaped flác-cidus: flaccid, soft flagellà-ris, flagellà-tus: whiplike flagellifór-mis: whip-formed flagél-lum: a scourge or flail flám-meus: flame-colored flavés-cens: yellowish flavic-omus: vellow-wooled or -haired fláv-idus: vellow, vellowish flavispi-nus: yellow-spined flavís-simus: deep yellow, very vellow flà-vus: vellow flexicaù-lis: pliant-stemmed fléx-ilis: flexible, pliant, limber flexuò-sus: flexuose, tortuous, zig-zag

floccò-sus: woolly

ers

florenti-nus: Florentine

flò-re-ál-bo: with white flowers

flò-re-plè-no: with double flow-

LIST II. SPECIFIC NAMES

floribún-dus: free-flowering floridà-nus: of Florida flowers flù-itans: floating fluviát-ilis: pertaining to a river fèm-ina: feminine fæniculà-tus: fennel-like fætidis-simus: verv fetid fét-idus: fetid, bad-smelling folià-ceus: leaf-like folià-tus: with leaves foliolà-tus: with leaflets foliolò-sus: having leaflets foliò-sus: leafy, full of leaves folliculà-ris: bearing follicles fontinà-lis: pertaining to a spring of water forficà-tus: shear-shaped fornicæfór-mis: ant-shaped formosà-nus: of Formosa formosis-simus: very beautiful formò-sus: beautiful, handsome fourcroy-des: like fourcroya foveà-tus: pitted foveolà-tus: pitted fragarioì-des: strawberry-like frág-ilis: fragile, brittle frà-grans: fragrant fragrantis-simus: very fragrant fraxin-eus: like fraxinus fraxinifò-lius: fraxinus-leaved frig-idus: cold, of cold regions frondò-sus: leafy fructif-era: fruit-bearing, fruitfructia-enus: fruitful frumentà-ceus: pertaining to grain frutés-cens: shrubby, bushy frù-tex: a shrub or bush frù-ticans: shrubby, shrub-like fruticò-sus: shrubby, bushy

exót-icus: exotic, from another filicà-tus: fern-like

fucà-tus: painted. dved fuchsioi-des: fuchsia-like fù-aax: swift fúl-gens: shining, glistening fúlg-idus: fulgid, shining fuliginò-sus: sooty, black-colored fulvés-cens: fulvous fúl-vidus: slightly tawny fúl-vus: fulvous, tawny, orangegrav-vellow fumariæfò-lius: fumaria-leaved fù-nebris: funereal fungò-sus: fungous, spongy funiculà-tus: of a slender rope or cord fúr-cans, furcà-tus: furcate,

forked

furfurà-ceus: scurfy

fuscifo-lius: fuscous-leaved

fusifór-mis: spindle-shaped

fús-cus: fuscous, brown, dusky

aglacifò-lius: galax-leaved galán-thus: milk flower galeà-tus: helmeted galegifò-lius galega-leaved galericulà-tus: helmet-like galioì-des: galium-like gál-licus: of Gaul or France; also pertaining to a cock or rooster gangét-icus: of the Ganges gargán-icus: belonging to Gargano (Italy) aél-idus: ice-cold aeminà-tus: twin geministò-rus: twin-flowered aeminispi-nus: twin-spined gemmà-tus: bearing buds aemmif-era: bud-bearing generà-lis: general, prevailing aeniculà-tus: jointed, kneed

aenistifò-lius: genista-leaved aeoi-des: of the earth aeomét-ricus: in a pattern aeonomæfór-mis: geonomaformed aeoraià-nus: of Georgia aeranioì-des: geranium-like aermán-icus: German aibberò-sus: humped, hunchbacked qibbiflò-rus: gibbous-flowered aibbò-sus, aib-bus: swollen on one side aibraltár-icus: of Gibraltar qiqantè-us: gigantic, very large aiaán-thes: giant-flowered qì-qas: of giants, immense alabél-lus: smoothish alà-her: glabrous, smooth alabér-rimus: very smooth, smoothest qlabrà-tus: somewhat glabrous glabrés-cens: smoothish glacià-lis: icy, frozen aladià-tus: sword-like alandifór-mis: gland-formed alandulif-era: gland-bearing qlandulò-sus: glandular alaucés-cens: becoming glaucous alaucifò-lius: glaucous-leaved alaucoì-des: glaucous-like alaucophýl-lus: glaucous-leaved qlaù-cus: glaucous, with a bloom alobò-sus: globose, spherical alobulà-ris: of a little ball or sphere globulíf-era: globule- or globebearing globulò-sus: like a little ball alomerà-tus: glomerate, clustered alomerulissò-rus: flowers in

gloriò-sus: glorious, superb gloxinioì-des: gloxinia-like glumà-ceus: with glumes or glume-like structures glutinò-sus: glutinous, sticky glycinioì-des: glycine-like gnaphalò-des: gnaphalium-like (Gnaphalium, a Composite) gomphocéph-alus: club-headed

gomphocéph-alus: club-headed gomphocóc-cus: club-herry gongylò-des: roundish, swollen gonià-tus: angled, cornered gonióc-alyx: calyx cornered gossýp-inus: gossypium-like, cotton-like

aracilén-tus: slender graceful-flowered aracíl-ior: more graceful gracil-ipes: slender-footed arác-ilis: graceful, slender gracilis-tylus: slender-styled aracil-limus: very slender græ-cus: Greek, of Greece gramin-eus: grassy, grass-like graminifò-lius: grass-leaved arammo pét-alus: petals striped or marked arán-diceps: large-headed arandicús-pis: with large cusps or points arandidentà-tus: large-toothed grandiflò-rus: large-flowered aranditò-lius: large-leaved grandifór-mis: on a large scale grandipunctà-tus: with large spots arán-dis: large, big granit-icus: granite-loving

granulà-tus: granulate, covered

gratis-simus: very pleasing or

with minute grains

aranulò-sus: granulate

agreeable

grà-tus: pleasing, agreeable gravè-olens: heavy-scented grís-eus: gray grænlán-dicus: of Greenland grósse-serrà-tus: large-toothed grù-inus: of a crane gummíf-era: gum-bearing gunneræfò-lius: gunnera-leaved guttà-tus: spotted, speckled gymnocár-pus: naked-fruited gymnocáblon: slender-stemmed gymnocéph-alus: slender-headed gỳ-rans: revolving in a circle, gyrating

hadriát-icus: Adriatic hæmán-thus: blood-red-flowered hæmastô-mus: red-mouthed hæmatóc-alvx: calvx blood-red hæmatò-des: bloody hakeoì-des: hakea-like halimifò-lius: halimium-leaved halóph-ilus: salt-loving hamà-tus, hamò-sus; hooked harpophýl-lus: sickle-leaved hastà-tus: hastate, spear-shaped hastif-era: spear-bearing hastilà-bium: halbert-lipped hasti-lis: of a javelin or spear hastulà-tus: somewhat spearhebecár-pus: pubescent-fruited hebephýl-lus: pubescent-leaved hederà-ceus: of the ivv helianthoì-des: helianthus-like helvét-icus: Swiss hél-volus: pale yellow hemiphlæ-us: half-barked hemisphér-icus: hemispherical hepaticæfò-lius: hepatica-leaved heptaphýl-lus: seven-leaved heracleifò-lius: heracleum-leaved

glomerules

herbà-ceus: herbaceous, not woodv hespér-ius: of the West heteracán-thus: various-spined heterán-thus: various-flowered heterocár-pus: various-fruited hetér-odon: various-toothed heterodóx-us: heterodox heteroalós-sus: various-tongued heteról-epis: variable-scaled heteromór-phus: various in form heteropét-alus: various-petaled heterophýl-lus: various-leaved heteróp-odus: various-footed or -stalked hexagonóp-terus: six-angledwinged

hexagò-nus: six-angled hexán-drus: with six stamens hexapét-alus: six-petaled hexaphýl-lus: six-leaved hì-ans: open, gaping hibernà-lis: pertaining to winter hibér-nicus: of Ireland hibiscifò-lius: hibiscus-leaved hierochún-ticus: of Jericho hieroglýph-icus: marked as if hymenò-des: membrane-like with signs himalà-icus: Himalayan

hirci-nus: with a goat's odor hirsutis-simus: very hairy hirsù-tulus: somewhat hairy hirsù-tus: hirsute, hairv hirtél-lus: somewhat hairv hirtiflò-rus: hairy-flowered hír-tipes: hairy-stalked or -stemmed hír-tus: hairy

hispán-icus: Spanish hispidis-simus: very bristly hispid-ulus: somewhat bristly his-pidus: hispid, bristly hollán-dicus: of Holland

holocár-pus: whole-fruited holochry-sus: wholly golden holoseric-eus: woolly-silky homól-epis: homologous scales horizontà-lis: horizontal hór-ridus: prickly, horridly armed

hortén-sis, hortò-rum, hortulànus, hortulà-lis, hortulò-rum: belonging to a hortus or garden, or to gardens

humifù-sus: sprawling on the ground

hù-milis: low-growing, dwarf humilifò-lius: hop-leaved hyacinth-inus: sapphire-colored hyacinthoì-des: hyacinth-like hvál-inus: transparent, translucent

hýb-ridus: hybrid, mixed, mon-

hvdrangeoi-des: hvdrangea-like hvemà-lis: of winter

hygromét-ricus: taking up water hvmenán-thus: membranaceousflowered

hymenorrhì-zus: membranousrooted

hvmenosép-alus: sepals membranous

hvperbò-reus: far northern hypericifò-lius: hypericum-

leaved hypericoì-des: hypericum-like hvbnoì-des: moss-like

hypocraterifór-mis: salvershaped

hypoqà-us: underground hypoglaù-cus: glaucous beneath hypoglót-tis: under-tongued hypoleù-cus: whitish, pale be-

neath

hypophýl-lus: under the leaf hyrcà-nium: Hyrcanian (near incisifò-lius: cut-leaved Caspian Sea) hyssopifò-lius: hyssop-leaved hýs-trix: porcupine-like, bristly ián-thinus: violet, violet-blue ibér-icus, iberíd-eus: of Iberia (Spain, Portugal) iberidifò-lius: iberis-leaved icosán-drus: twenty-stamened Minor) ignés-cens: fierv iq-neus: fiery ilicifò-lius: ilex-leaved, hollyleaved illecebrò-sus: of the shade illinì-tus: varnished illustrà-tus: pictured illús-tris: bright, brilliant, lustrous illýr-icus: of Illyria (ancient region of southern Europe) imberbiflò-rus: flowers beardless imbér-bis: without beards or infundib-ulum: a funnel spines *im-bricans*: imbricating imbricà-tus: imbricated, lap- inornà-tus: without ornament ping over immaculà-tus: immaculate, spotless immér-sus: under water impà-tiens: impatient imperà-tor: commanding, im- insitit-ius: grafted perious imperià-lis: imperial, kingly impléx-us: interwoven imprés-sus: impressed, sunken in inæqualifò-lius: unequal-leaved inæquà-lis: unequal inæquilát-erus: unequal-sided incà-nus: hoarv incarnà-tus: flesh-colored

incér-tus: uncertain, doubtful inci-sus: incised, cut inclaù-dens: never-closing inclinà-tus: bent downward incomparáb-ilis: incomparable. excelling incomp-tus: rude, unadorned inconspic-uus: inconspicuous incrassà-tus: thickened idà-us: of Mt. Ida (Asia incurvà-tus, incurvus: incurved. bent inward indentà-tus: indented in-dicus: of India indivì-sus: undivided inér-mis: unarmed infaù-stus: unfortunate infectò-rius: pertaining to dves infés-tus: dangerous, unsafe inflà-tus: inflated, swollen up infortunà-tus: unfortunate infrác-tus: broken infundibulifór-mis: funnelform. trumpet-shaped in-gens: enormous inodò-rus: without odor in-quinans: polluting, discoloring inscrib-tus: written on insiq-nis: remarkable, distinguished, marked insulà-ris: insular intác-tus: intact. untouched in-teger: entire integér-rimus: very entire integrifò-lius: entire-leaved interiéc-tus: interiected, put between intermè-dius: intermediate interrúp-tus: interrupted

LIST II. SPECIFIC NAMES

intertéx-tus: interwoven, inter- juniperi-nus: juniper-like; sometwined intór-tus: twisted intricà-tus: intricate, entangled intror-sus: introrse, turned inward intumés-cens: swollen, puffed koreà-nus. korià-nus. koraién-sis: up, tumid intybà-ceus: pertaining to chicinvér-sus: inverse, turned over invi-sus: unseen, overlooked

involucrà-tus: with an involucre involù-tus: rolled inward ionán-drus: violet-anthered ionán-thus: violet-flowered ionóp-terus: violet-winged iridés-cens: iridescent iridiflò-rus: iris-flowered irrequlà-ris: irregular irriq-uus: watered isán-drus: with equal stamens isopét-alus: equal-petaled isophýl-lus: equal-leaved

is-tria: of Istria (southern Eu-

ixocár-pus: sticky- or glutinous-

rope)

fruited

itál-icus: Italian

ixioì-des: ixia-like

iapón-icus: Japanese iasmin-eus: jasmine-like jasminiflò-rus: jasmine-flowered jasminoì-des: jasmine-like javán-icus: of Java

jubà-tus: crested, with a mane jucún-dus: agreeable, pleasing jugò-sus: joined, voked jún-ceus: juncus-like, rush-like juncifò-lius: rush-leaved

juniperifò-lius: juniper-leaved

times bluish-brown, like berries of juniper

kamtschát-icus: of Kamtchatka kashmirià-nus: of Cashmere of Korea

labià-tus: labiate, lipped láb-ilis: slippery labiò-sus: lipped labrò-sus: large-lipped laburnifò-lius: laburnum-leaved

lác-erus: torn lacinià-tus: laciniate, torn laciniò-sus: much laciniate

lactà-tus: milky lác-teus: milk-white lactic-olor: milk-colored lactif-era: milk-bearing

lactiflò-rus: flowers milk-colored lacunò-sus: with holes or pits lacús-tris: pertaining to lakes ladaníf-era, ladán-ifer: ladanum-bearing (resinous juice)

lætiflò-rus: bright- or pleasingflowered

lætév-irens: light or vivid green là-tus: bright, vivid

lævicaù-lis: smooth-stemmed

lævigà-tus: smooth lév-ipes: smooth-footed

là-vis: smooth læviús-culus: smoothish

lagenà-rius: of a bottle or flask

lanà-tus: woolly

lanceifò-lius: lance-leaved lanceolà-tus: lanceolate lán-ceus: lance-like lancifò-lius: lance-leaved laniq-era: wool-bearing

lán-ipes: woolly-footed or -stalked lanò-sus: woolly lanuqinò-sus: woolly, downy lappà-ceus: lappa-like lappón-icus: of Lapland laricifò-lius: larch-leaved laríc-inus: larch-like lasiacán-thus: pubescent-spined lasián-drus: pubescent-stamened lasián-thus: woolly-flowered lasiocár-pus: rough- or woollyfruited lasiodón-tus: woolly-toothed lasio alós-sus: tongue roughhairy lasiól-epis: woolly-scaled lasiopét-alus: petals rough-hairy lateriflò-rus: lateral-flowered latér-ipes: lateral-stalked laterit-ius: brick-red latiflò-rus: broad-flowered latifò-lius: broad-leaved lát-ifrons: broad-fronded latilà-brus: broad-lipped latíl-obus: broad-lobed latimaculà-tus: broad-spotted lát-ipes: broad-footed or -stalked latispi-nus: broad-spined latisquà-mus: broad-scaled latís-simus: broadest, very broad là-tus: broad, wide laudà-tus: lauded, worthy laurifò-lius: laurel-leaved lauri-nus: laurel-like lavandulà-ceus: lavender-like lavateroì-des: lavatera-like laxiflò-rus: loose-flowered laxifò-lius: loose-leaved láx-us: lax, open, loose ledifò-lius: ledum-leaved

(Ledum: Ericaceæ)

leián-thus: smooth-flowered

leiocár-pus: smooth-fruited leió a-vnus: smooth pistil leiophýl-lus: smooth-leaved lenticulà-ris, lentifór-mis: lenticular, lens-shaped lentiainò-sus: freckled lentiscifò-lius: lentiscus-leaved (Lentiscus: Pistacia) lén-tus: pliant, tenacious, tough leontoglós-sus: lion-tongued or -throated leopardi-nus: leopard-spotted lepidophýl-lus: scalv-leaved lepidò-tus: with small scurfy scales lép-idus: graceful, elegant leprò-sus: scurfy leptán-thus: thin-flowered leptocaù-lis: thin-stemmed leptóc-ladus: thin-stemmed or -branched leptól-epis: thin-scaled leptopét-alus: thin-petaled leptophýl-lus: thin-leaved leptosép-alus: thin-sepaled lép-topus: thin- or slenderstalked leptostà-chvus: thin-spiked lepturoì-des: lepturus-like (Lepturus: Gramineae) leucanthemifò-lius: leucanthemum-leaved leucán-thus: white-flowered *leucób-otrvs:* with white clusters leucocaù-lis: white-stemmed leucocéph-alus: white-headed leucochì-lus: white-lipped leucodér-mis: white-skinned leuconeù-rus: white-nerved leucophà-us: dusky-white leucophýl-lus: white-leaved leucorhi-zus: white-rooted leucós-tachys: white-spiked

leucót-riche: white-haired leucoxán-thus: whitish-vellow leucóx-vlon: white-wooded libanót-icus: of Libania libúr-nicus: of Liburnia lignò-sus: woody liqulà-ris, liqulà-tus: ligulate, strap-shaped liquis-ticus: of Liguria liqusticifò-lius: ligusticumleaved (Ligusticum: Umbelliferæ) liqustrifò-lius: privet-leaved liqustri-nus: privet-like lilác-inus: lilac lilià-ceus: lilv-like liliiflò-rus: lily-flowered lilifò-lius: lilv-leaved limbà-tus: bordered limonifò-lius: lemon-leaved limò-sus: of muddy or marshy places linariifò-lius: linaria-leaved linarioì-des: linaria-like linearifò-lius: linear-leaved linearil-obus: linear-lobed lineà-ris: linear lineà-tus: lined, with lines or stripes linguefór-mis: tongue-shaped lingulà-tus: tongue-shaped liniflò-rus: flax-flowered linifò-lius: flax-leaved linnæoi-des: linnæa-like linoì-des: flax-like linophýl-lus: flax-leaxed lithóph-ilus: dwelling on rocks lithospér-mus: seeds stone-like littorà-lis: of the seashore lituiflò-rus: trumpet-flowered lív-idus: livid, bluish lobà-tus: lobed

lobelioì-des: lobelia-like

lobocár-pus: lobed-fruited lobophýl-lus: lobed-leaved lobulà-ris: lobed lobulà-tus: with small lobes lolià-ceus: lolium-like longebracteà-tus: long-bracted longepedunculà-tus: longpeduncled longicaudà-tus: long-tailed longicaù-lis: long-stemmed longic-omus: long-haired longicús-pis: long-pointed longiflò-rus: long-flowered longifò-lius: long-leaved longihamà-tus: long-hooked longil-abris: long-lipped longilaminà-tus: with long plates longil-obus: long-lobed longimucronà-tus: long-mucronate lóng-ipes: long-footed or -stalked longipét-alus: long-petaled longipinnà-tus: long-pinnate longiracemò-sus: long-racemed longirós-tris: long-beaked longiscà-pus: long-scaped longisép-alus: long-sepaled longis-pathus: long-spathed longispì-nus: long-spined longis-simus: longest, very long longis-tylus: long-styled lón-qus: long lophán-thus: crest-flowered lorifò-lius: strap-leaved lotifò-lius: lotus-leaved lousià-nus: of Louisiana lù-cidus: lucid, bright, shining, clear ludovicià-nus: of Louisiana lunà-tus: lunate, crescent-shaped lunulà-tus: somewhat crescentshaped lupuli-nus: hop-like

lù-ridus: lurid, wan, pale yellow

lusitán-icus: of Portugal
luté-olus: yellowish
lutés-cens: becoming yellowish
lutetià-nus: Parisian
lù-teus: yellow
luxù-rians: luxuriant, thrifty
lychnidifò-lius: lychnis-leaved
lycóc-tonum: wolf-poison
lycopodioì-des: lycopodium-like,
clubmoss-like
lyrà-tus: lyrate, pinnatifid with
large terminal lobe
lysimachioì-des: lysimachia-like

mamillà-tus, mammillà-ris,
mammò-sus: with breas
mammulò-sus: with small
ples
mandshù-ricus, mandschú-lo
manicà-tus: manicate, long-sleeved
manzani-ta: little apple
margaritíf-era: pearl-bearin
marginà-lis: marginal
marginà-tus: marginal
marginà-tus: somewhat marginél-lus: somewhat marginél-lus: somewhat margined

macedón-icus: Macedonian macilén-tus: lean, meager macracán-thus: large-spined macrán-drus: with large anthers macrán-thus: large-flowered macradè-nia, macrodè-num: large-glanded macro-: long, but often large or big. See page 126 maculà-tus, maculò-sus: spotted mæsì-acus: of Mœsia, ancient name of Bulgaria and Serbia magellán-icus: Straits of Magellan region magnificent. distinguished mág-nus: large majà-lis: of May, Maytime maiés-ticus: maiestic mà-ior, mà-ius: greater, larger malabár-icus: of Malabar malacoì-des: soft, mucilaginous malacospér-mus: soft-seeded malifór-mis: apple-formed malvà-ceus: mallow-like malvæflò-rus: mallow-flowered

mammò-sus: with breasts or nipples mammulò-sus: with small nipples mandshù-ricus, mandschú-ricus: of Manchuria manicà-tus: manicate, longsleeved manzanì-ta: little apple margarità-ceus: pearly, of pearls margaritif-era: pearl-bearing marqinà-lis: marginal marqinà-tus: margined marqinél-lus: somewhat margined marià-nus: of Marvland marilán-dicus, marylán-dicus: of Marvland marit-imus: maritime, of the sea marmorà-tus, marmò-reus: marbled, mottled marmobhýl-lus: leaves marbled maroccà-nus: of Morocco más, masculà-tus, más-culus: male, masculine matricariæfò-lius: matricarialeaved matronà-lis: pertaining to matrons mauritán-icus: of Mauretania (northern Africa) maxillà-ris: maxillary, of the iaw máx-imus: largest méd-icus: medicinal mediopic-tus: pictured or striped at the center mediterrà-neus: of the Mediterranean region mè-dius: medium, intermediate medullà-ris: of the marrow or pith

megacán-thus: large-spined megacár-pus: large-fruited megalán-thus: large-flowered megalophýl-lus, megaphýl-lus: large-leaved

megapotám-icus: of the big river megarrhì-zus: large-rooted megaspér-mus: large-seeded megastà-chyus: large-spiked megastíg-mus: with large stigmas

meiacán-thus: small-flowered melanán-thus: black-flowered melanocén-trus: black-centered melanchól-icus: melancholy,

hanging or drooping

melanocár-pus: black-fruited

melanocáù-lon: black-stemmed

melanocóc-cus: black-berried

melanoleù-cus: black and white

melanóx-ylon: black-wooded

melanthè-rus: black-anthered

meleà-gris: like a guinea-fowl,

speckled

mél-leus: pertaining to honey
mellif-era: honey-bearing
melliodò-rus: honey-scented
melli-tus: honey-sweet
melofór-mis: melon-shaped
membranà-ceus: membranaceous
meniscifò-lius: crescent-leaved
meridionà-lis: southern
mesoleù-cus: mixed with white
metál-licus: metallic

metál-licus: metallic
meteloì-des: metel-like
mexicà-nus: Mexican
mì-cans: glittering, sparkling
michauxioì-des: michauxia-like
(Michauxia of Campanu-

(Michauxia of Campani laceæ) icracán-thus: small-spined

micracán-thus: small-spined micrán-thus: small-flowered microcár-pus: small-fruited microcéph-alus: small-headed microchi-lum: small-lipped micród-asys: small, thick, shaggy mic-rodon: small-toothed microglós-sus: small-tongued micról-epis: small-scaled micróm-eris: small number of parts

micropét-alus: small-petaled microphýl-lus: small-leaved microp-terus: small-winged microsép-alus: small-sepaled microstè-mus: of small filaments microthè-le: small nipple mikanioì-des: mikania-like

(Mikania of Compositæ)

milià-ceus: pertaining to millet

milità-ris: military

millefolià-tus, millefò-lius:

thousand-leaved

mimosoì-des: mimosa-like
mi-mus: mimic

mì-nax: threatening, forbidding minià-tus: cinnabar-red mín-imus: least, smallest mì-nor, mì-nus: smaller minutiflò-rus: minute-flowered minutifò-lius: minute-leaved minutís-simus: very or most

minutis-simus: very or most minute

minù-tus: minute, very small miráb-ilis: marvellous, extraordinary

mì-tis: mild, gentle mitrà-tus: turbaned mix-tus: mixed modés-tus: modest

mæsì-acus: of the Balkan region moldáv-icus: of Moldavia

(Danube region)
mól-lis: soft, soft-hairy
mollis-simus: very soft-hairy
moluccà-nus: of the Moluccas

(East Indies)

monacán-thus: one-spined

monadél-phus: in one group or

bundle

monán-drus: one-stamened

monaól-icus: of Mongolia

mongól-icus: of Mongolia monilíf-era: bearing a necklace

monocéph-alus: single-headed monóg-ynus: of one pistil

monoi-cus: monœcious
monopét-alus: one-petaled
monophýl-lus: one-leaved
monóp-terus: one-winged
monopyrè-nus: bearing one stone
or pyrene

monosép-alus: one-sepaled monospér-mus: one-seeded monostà-chyus: one-spiked monspessulà-nus: of Montpelier monstrò-sus: monstrous, abnormal

montà-nus: pertaining to mountains

montén-sis: citizen of mountains montíc-olus: inhabiting mountains

montig-enus: mountain-born morifò-lius: morus-leaved; mulberry-leaved

mosà-icus: parti-colored moschà-tus: musky mucò-sus: slimy

mucronà-tus: mucronate mucronulà-tus: with a small

mucro or point

multibracteà-tus: many-bracted multicaù-lis: many-stemmed multic-avus: with many hollows

múl-ticeps: many-headed multic-olor: many-colored multicostà-tus: many-ribbed multif-idus: many times parted multiflò-rus: many-flowered multifurcà-tus: much-forked multij-ugus: many in a yoke multilineà-tus: many-lined multinér-vis: many-nerved múl-tiplex: many-folded multiradià-tus: with numerous

multiséc-tus: much cut mún-dulus: trim, neat muni-tus: armed, fortified murà-lis: of walls muricà-tus: muricate, roughed

by means of hard points musà-icus: musa-like muscætóx-icum: fly-poison muscíp-ula: fly-catcher muscoì-des: moss-like muscív-orus: fly-eating muscò-sus: mossy mutáb-ilis, mutà-tus: change-

able, variable

mù-ticus: blunt, pointless

mutilà-tus: mutilated

mvo poroì-des: mvoporum-like

myoporoi-des: myoporum-like myriacán-thus: myriad-spined myriocár-pus: myriad-fruited myrióc-ladus: myriad-branched myriophýl-lus: myriad-leaved myriostíg-mus: myriad-stigmaed myrmecóph-ilus: myrsine-leaved myrsinifò-lius: myrsine-like myrtifò-lius: myrtle-leaved

nanél-lus: very dwarf
nà-nus: dwarf
napifór-mis: turnip-shaped
narcissiflò-rus: narcissus-flowered
narinò-sus: broad-nosed
nasù-tus: large-nosed
nà-tans: floating, swimming

nauseò-sus: nauseous neapolità-nus: Neapolitan nebulò-sus: nebulous, clouded, obscure nealéc-tus: neglected, overlooked nelumbifò-lius: nelumbo-leaved nemorà-lis, nemorò-sus: of groves or woods nepetoì-des: nepeta-like nephról-epis: kidney-scale nereifò-lius, neriifo-lius: oleander-leaved nervò-sus: nerved níc-titans: blinking, moving nì-dus: nest nì-aer: black nigrà-tus: blackish nigrés-cens: becoming black nía-ricans: black nigricór-nis: black-horned nigrofrúc-tus: black-fruited nía-ripes: black-footed nilót-icus: of the Nile nippón-icus: of Nippon (Japan) nì-tens. nít-idus: shining nivà-lis, nív-eus: snowy, white nivò-sus: full of snow nobil-ior: more noble nób-ilis: noble, famous nobilis-simus: verv noble noctiflò-rus: night-flowering noctúr-nus: of the night nodiflò-rus: with flowers at nodes nodò-sus: with nodes, jointed nodulò-sus: with small nodes nòli-tángere: do not touch, touch-me-not nonscrip-tus: undescribed norvég-icus: Norwegian

notà-tus: marked

land naviculà-ris: pertaining to a ship nò-væ-cæsár-eæ: of New Jersey nò-væ-zealánd-iæ: of New Zealand nò-vi-bél-aii: of New York (New Belgium) nubic-olus: dwelling among clouds nubiq-enus: cloud-born nucif-era: nut-bearing nudà-tus: nude, stripped nudicaù-lis: naked-stemmed nudiflò-rus: naked-flowered nù-dus: nude, naked numíd-icus: of Numidia numis-matus: pertaining to money nummularifò-lius: money-leaved nummulà-rius: money-like nù-tans: nodding nvctagin-eus, nvctic-alus: nightblooming nymphoì-des: nymphea-like

obcón-icus: inversely conical obcordà-tus: inversely cordate obè-sus: obese, fat obfuscà-tus: clouded, confused oblanceolà-tus: inversely lanceolate obli-auus: oblique obliterà-tus: obliterated, erased oblongà-tus: oblong oblongifò-lius: oblong-leaved oblon-aus: oblong obovà-tus: inverted ovate, oboobscù-rus: obscure, hidden obsolè-tus: obsolete, rudimentarv obtusà-tus: obtuse, blunt nò-væ-án-qliæ: of New Eng- obtusifò-lius: obtuse-leaved

obtusil-obus: obtuse-lobed obtù-sior: more obtuse obtù-sus: obtuse, blunt, rounded obvallà-tus: apparently walled up occidentà-lis: western oceán-icus: oceanic ocellà-tus: with small eves ochnà-ceus: ochna-like ochrà-ceus: ochre-colored ochreà-tus: with an ochrea or boot-sheath ochroleù-cus: vellowish-white octán-drus: with eight anthers octopét-alus: eight-petaled octophýl-lus: eight-leaved oculà-tus: eyed ocvmoì-des: ocimum like odessà-nus: of Odessa (southern Russia) odonti-tes: tooth odontochi-lus: with toothed lip odoratis-simus: very fragrant odorà-tus. odò-rus: odorous, fragrant officinà-lis: officinal, medicinal officinà-rum: of the apothecaries oleæfò-lius: oleifò-lius: oliveleaved oleif-era: oil-bearing oleoì-des: olive-like olerà-ceus: oleraceous, vegetable-garden herb used in cooking oligán-thus: few-flowered oligocár-pus: few-fruited oligophýl-lus: few-leaved oliaospér-mus: few-seeded olitò-rius: pertaining to vegetable-gardens olivà-ceus: olive-like olivæfór-mis: olive-shaped olým-picus: of Olympus

omniv-orus: of all kinds of food onobrychioì-des: onobrychis-like opà-cus: opaque, shaded operculà-tus: with a lid ophiocár-pus: snake-fruit ophio alossifò-lius: ophioglossumophioglossoi-des: ophioglossumlike ophiuroì-des: ophiurus-like oppositiflò-rus: opposite-flowered oppositifò-lius: opposite-leaved opuliflò-rus: opulus-flowered opulifò-lius: opulus-leaved orbiculà-ris, orbiculà-tus: orbicular, round orchid-eus: orchid-like orchidiflò-rus: orchid-flowered orchioì-des. orchiò-des: orchidlike orega-nus: of Oregon oreóph-ilus: mountain-loving oravà-lis: length of the arms extended, about six feet orientà-lis: oriental, eastern origanifò-lius: origanum-leaved origanoì-des: origanum-like ór-nans: ornamented or ornamenting ornatis-simus: very showy ornà-tus: ornate, adorned ornithocéph-alus: like a bird's ornithóp-odus, ornith-opus: like a bird's foot ornithorhýn-chus: shaped like a bird's beak oroboì-des: orobus-like orthób-otrvs: straight-clustered orthocár-pus: straight-fruited orthochi-lus: straight-lipped orthóp-terus: straight-winged

orthosép-alus: straight-sepaled
osmán-thus: fragrant-flowered
ovalifò-lius: oval-leaved
ovà-lis: oval
ovatifò-lius: ovate-leaved
ovà-tus: ovate
ovíf-era, ovíg-era: egg-bearing
ovì-nus: pertaining to sheep
oxyacán-thus: sharp-spined
oxygò-nus: sharp-angled, acuteangled
oxypét-alus: sharp-petaled
oxyphýl-lus: sharp-leaved

oxysép-alus: sharp-sepaled

pabulà-rius: of fodder or pasturpachván-thus: thick-flowered pachycár-pus: with thick peribachvneù-rus: thick-nerved pachyphlæ-us: thick-barked pachyphýl-lus: thick-leaved pachýp-terus: thick-winged pacif-icus: of the Pacific palæstì-nus: of Palestine paleà-ceus: with palea, chaffy pál-lens: pale pallés-cens: becoming pale pallià-tus: cloaked pallidiflò-rus: pale-flowered pallidifò-lius: pale-leaved pallidispi-nus: pale-spined pál-lidus: pale palliflà-vens: pale vellow palmà-ris: palmate palmatif-idus: palmately cut palmà-tus: palmate palmifò-lius: palm-leaved paludò-sus, palús-tris: marshloving

pandurà-tus: fiddle-shaped paniculà-tus: paniculate paniculiq-era: panicle-bearing pannón-icus: of Pannonia (Hungary) pannò-sus: ragged, tattered papaverà-ceus: poppy-like papillionà-ceus: butterfly-like papillò-sus: with papillæ or protuberances papyrà-ceus: papery papyrif-era: paper-bearing paradisì-acus: of parks or gardens paradóx-us: paradoxical, strange parasit-icus: of a parasite, parasitic pardali-nus: leopard-like, spotpardi-nus: leopard-spotted parnassifò-lius: parnassia-leaved parti-tus: parted parviflò-rus: small-flowered parvifò-lius: small-leaved parvis-simus: very small pár-vulus: very small pár-vus: small patagón-icus: of Patagonia patavi-nus: of Padua patellà-ris: circular, disk-shaped pà-tens: spreading pát-ulus: spreading pauciflò-rus: few-flowered paucifò-lius: few-leaved paucinér-vis: few-nerved paupér-culus: poor pavoni-nus: peacock-like pectinà-ceus, pectinà-tus: pectinate, comb-like pectinif-era: comb-bearing pectorà-lis: shaped like a breastbone pedatif-idus: pedately cut

pedà-tus: footed; bird-footed; perfolià-tus: perfoliate, with leaf palmately divided with side surrounding the stem divisions again cleft perforà-tus: perforated, with pedemontà-nus: of Piedmont holes (Italy) perfós-sus: perfoliate pediculà-rius: louse, lousy pergrác-ilis: very slender pedunculà-ris, pedunculà-tus: pepermix-tus: much mixed duncled, stalked persicæfò-lius, persicifò-lius: bedunculò-sus: with many pepeach-leaved duncles pér-sicus: of Persia: also the pellù-cidus: with transparent peach dots persis-tens: persistent peltà-tus: peltate; shield-shaped perspic-uus: clear, transparent peltifò-lius: peltate-leaved pertù-sus: thrust through, perpelvifór-mis: pelvis-shaped forated benduliflò-rus: pendulous-flowberulà-tus: pocket-like ered beruvià-nus: Peruvian penduli-nus: somewhat pendupetaloid-eus: petal-like lous petiolà-ris, petiolà-tus: petioled pén-dulus: pendulous, hanging petrà-us: rock-loving penicillà-tus: hair-penciled petrocál-lis: rock beauty beninsulà-ris: peninsular phæocár-pus: dark-fruited pennà-tus: feathered, pinnate phà-us: dusky penniq-era: bearing feathers philadél-phicus: of the Philapenninér-vis: feather-veined delphia region pennsylván-icus: of Pennsylphiloxeroi-des: philoxera-like vania phillyræoi-des: phillyrea-like pén-silis: pensile, hanging phleioì-des: phleum-like bentadè-nius: five-toothed (Phleum: Gramineæ) pentagò-nus: five-angled pentág-vnus: of five pistils phlogiflò-rus: flame-flowered, bentán-drus: of five stamens phlox-flowered bentán-thus: five-flowered phlogifò-lius: phlox-leaved pentál-ophus: five-winged or phænic-eus: purple-red five-tufted phænicolà-sius: purple-haired pentapetaloì-des: like five petals phrýg-ius: of Phrygia (Asia pentahýl-lus: five-petaled Minor) pentáp-terus: five-winged phyllanthoi-des: phyllanthuspeploi-des: peplis-like like perbél-lus: very beautiful phyllomani-acus: running wildly percus-sus: sharp-pointed to leaves phymatochi-lus: long-lipped peregri-nus: exotic, foreign perén-nans, perén-nis: perennial phytolaccoì-des: phytolacca-like

picturà-tus: painted-leaved, pic- platyphýl-lus: broad-leaved tured, variegated pic-tus: painted pileà-tus: with a cap pilif-era: bearing soft hairs pilosiús-culus: slightly pilose pilò-sus: pilose, shaggy, with soft hairs pilulà-ris: fruit globular pilulíf-era: globule-bearing pimeleoì-des: pimella-like pimpinellifò-lius: pimpinellaleaved pinetò-rum: of pine forests pin-eus: of the pine pinquifò-lius: fat-leaved pinifò-lius: pine-leaved pinnatíf-idus: pinnately cut pinnatifò-lius: pinnate-leaved pinnát-ifrons: pinnate-fronded pinnatinér-vis: pinnate-nerved pinnà-tus: pinnate piperì-ta: peppermint-scented pisif-era: pea-bearing pisocár-pus: pea-fruited placà-tus: quiet, calm placentifór-mis: quoit-shaped planiflò-rus: flat-flowered planifò-lius: flat-leaved plán-ipes: flat-footed plantagin-eus: plantain-like plà-nus: plane, flat platanifò-lius: platanus- leaved planatoì-des: platanus-like platán-thus: broad-flowered platycán-thus: broad-spined platycár-pus: broad-fruited platycaù-lon: broad-stemmed platycén-tra: broad-centered platýc-ladus: broad-branched platyglós-sus: broad-tongued platyneù-rus: broad-nerved platypét-alus: broad-petaled

platýp-odus, plát-vpus: broadfooted or -stalked platýs-pathus: broad-spathed platyspér-mus: broad-seeded pleioneù-rus: more- or manynerved pleniflò-rus: double-flowered plenis-simus: very full or double plè-nus: full, double pleurós-tachys: side-spiked plicà-tus: plicate, plaited plumà-rius, plumà-tus: plumed, feathered plumbaginoì-des: plumbago-like blúm-beus: of lead plumò-sus: feathery pluriflò-rus: many-flowered poculifór-mis: deep cup-shaped podág-ricus: gouty-stalked podalyriæfò-lius: podalyrialeaved podocár-pus: with stalked fruits podól-icus: of Podolia (southwestern Russia) podophýl-lus: with stalked leaves poét-icus: pertaining to poets polifò-lius: polium-leaved, whiteleaved poli-tus: polished polyacán-thus: many-spined polyán-drus: with many stamens polyán-themos, polyán-thus: many-flowered polybót-rya: many-clustered polybúl-bon: with many bulbs polycár-pus: many-fruited polycéph-alus: many-headed polychrò-mus: many-colored polydác-tylus: many-fingered polygaloi-des: polygala-like

polýg-amus: polygamous, sexes pratén-sis: of meadows mixed pravis-simus: very crooked polýl-epis: with many scales precatò-rius: praying, prayerful polýl-ophus: many-crested primulæfò-lius, primulifò-lius: polymór-phus: of many forms, primrose-leaved variable primúl-inus: primrose-like primuloì-des: primrose-like polyét-alus: many-petaled polyphýl-lus: many-leaved prin-ceps: princely, first prismát-icus: prismatic, prismpolyrrhi-zus: many-rooted polysép-alus: many-sepaled shaped polyspér-mus: many-seeded prismatocár-pus: prism-fruited polystà-chyus: many-spiked proboscid-eus: proboscis-like polystic-tus: many-dotted procè-rus: tall pomà-ceus: pome-like procumbens: procumbent pomeridià-nus: afternoon procur-rens: extending pomíf-era: pome-bearing prodúc-tus: produced, lengthpompò-nius: of a tuft or topknot ened ponderò-sus: ponderous, heavy profù-sus: profuse prolif-era: producing offshoots pón-ticus: of Pontus (Asia prolif-icus: prolific, fruitful Minor) populifò-lius: poplar-leaved propén-dens: hanging down popúl-neus: pertaining to poppropin-quus: related, near to lars prostrà-tus: prostrate porci-nus: pertaining to swine protrù-sus: protruding provincià-lis: provincial porophýl-lus: porum-leaved, leek-leaved pruinà-tus, pruinò-sus: with a porphy-reus: purple hoary bloom porphyroneù-rus: purple-nerved prunelloì-des: prunella-like porphyrostè-le: purple-columned prunifò-lius: plum-leaved porrifò-lius: porrum- or leekprù-riens: itching psilostè-mon: slender- or nakedleaved portulà-ceus: portulaca-like stamened potamóph-ilus: swamp-loving, psittác-inus: parrot-like river-loving psittacò-rum: of the parrots potatò-rum: of the drinkers psycò-des: fragrant præál-tus: verv tall ptarmicæfò-lius: ptarmicapræ-cox: precocious, very early leaved bræmór-sus: bitten at the end ptarmicoì-des: ptarmica-like prà-stans: distinguished, excelpterán-thus: with winged flowling ers brætéx-tus: bordered pteridoì-des: pteris-like prasinà-tus: greenish pteroneù-rus: winged-nerved prás-inus: grass-green pù-bens: downy

puberulén-tus, pubér-ulus: somewhat pubescent pubés-cens: pubescent, downy pubiq-era: down-bearing pubiflò-rus: pubescent-flowered pubinér-vis: pubescent-nerved pudi-cus: bashful, retiring. shrinking puqionifór-mis: dagger-formed pulchél-lus: pretty, beautiful púl-cher: handsome, beautiful pulchér-rimus: very handsome púl-lus: dark colored, dusky pulverulén-tus: powdered, dustcovered pulvinà-tus: cushion-like pù-milus: dwarf punctatis-simus: very spotted punctà-tus: punctate, dotted punctilób-ulus: dotted-lobed pún-gens: piercing, sharppointed punic-eus: reddish-purple púr-gans: purging purpurà-ceus: purple purpurás-cens: becoming purple purpurà-tus, purpù-reus; purple pusil-lus: very small pustulà-tus: as though blistered pycnacán-thus: densely spined pycnán-thus: densely flowered

pycnocéph-alus: thick-headed pvcnostà-chvus: thick-spiked pvamà-us: pigmy pyramidà-lis: pyramidal pyrenà-us, pyrenà-icus: of the Pyrenees pyrifò-lius: pear-leaved pyrifór-mis: pear-shaped

pyxidà-tus: box-like

quadranqulà-ris, quadrangulàtus: four-angled quadrà-tus: in four or fours quadriauri-tus: four-eared quadric-olor: of four colors quadridentà-tus: four-toothed quadrif-idus: four-cut quadrifò-lius: four-leaved quadriparti-tus: four-parted quadrivál-vis: four-valved quadrivúl-nerus: four-wounded quercifò-lius: oak-leaved quérc-inus: of the oak auinà-tus: in fives auinauéc-olor: of five colors quinqueflò-rus: five-flowered quinquefò-lius: five-leaved auinaueloculà-ris: five-celled quinquenér-vis: five-nerved quinquepunctà-tus: five-spotted auinauevúl-nerus: five-wounded or -marked

racemistò-rus: raceme-flowered racemò-sus: flowers in racemes rà-dians: radiating radià-tus: radiate, raved radi-cans: rooting radicà-tus: having roots radicò-sus: many-rooted radi-cum: of roots radiò-sus: with many rays rád-ula: rough, like a scraper ramentà-ceus: bearing a hair-like covering ramiflò-rus: with branching inflorescence ramondioì-des: ramondia-like ramosis-simus: much-branched ramò-sus: branched ramulò-sus: having many branchlets ranif-era, frog-bearing

ranunculoì-des: ranunculus-like revolù-tus: revolute, rolled backrapà-ceus: pertaining to turnips rapunculoì-des: rapunculus-like rariflò-rus: scattered-flowered rà-rus: rare, uncommon ràu-cus: hoarse, raw reclinà-tus: reclined, bent back réc-tus: straight, upright recurvà-tus: recurved recurvifò-lius: recurved-leaved recur-vus: recurved redivi-vus: restored, brought to rhodocinc-tus: rose-girdled life reduplicà-tus: duplicated again refléx-us: reflexed, bent back refrác-tus: broken reful-gens: brightly shining reaà-lis: regal, royal regér-minans: re-germinating Reai-na: queen rè-qius: regal, royal, kingly religiò-sus: used for religious purposes remotiflò-rus: distantly flowered remò-tus: remote, with parts disrenifór-mis: kidney-shaped repán-dus: with margin wavy rè-bens: creeping replicà-tus: folded back rép-tans: creeping reséc-tus: cut off resinif-era: resin-bearing resinò-sus: full of resin reticulà-tus: reticulate, netted retinò-des: retained retór-tus: twisted back retrofléx-us: reflexed retrofrác-tus: broken or bent backwards retù-sus: retuse, notched slightly at a rounded apex revér-sus: reversed

wards Réx: king rhamnifò-lius: rhamnus-leaved rhamnoì-des: rhamnus-like rhexifò-lius: rhexia-leaved rhipsalioì-des: rhipsalis-like rhizophýl-lus: root-leaved, leaves rooting rhodán-thus: rose-flowered rhodochi-lus: rose-lipped rhodoneù-rus: rose-nerved rhoifò-lius: rhœas-leaved rhomboid-eus: rhomboidal rhóm-beus: rhombic rhytidophýl-lus: wrinkle-leaved ricinitò-lius: ricinus-leaved ricinoì-des: ricinus-like rì-gens: rigid, stiff rigidis-simus: very rigid riaid-ulus: somewhat rigid rig-idus: rigid, stiff rin-gens: gaping ripà-rius: of river banks rivà-lis: pertaining to brooks rivulà-ris: brook-loving robustisbi-nus: stout-spined robús-tus: robust, stout romà-nus: Roman rosà-ceus: rose-like rosæflò-rus: rose-flowered rò-seus: rose, rosv rosmarinifò-lius: rosemaryleaved rostrà-tus: rostrate, beaked rosulà-ris: in rosettes rotà-tus: wheel-shaped rotundà-tus: rotund rotundifò-lius: round-leaved rotún-dus: rotund, round rubelli-nus, rubél-lus; reddish rù-bens, rù-ber: red, ruddy

rubér-rimus: very red rubés-cens: becoming red rubicún-dus: rubicund, red rubiginò-sus: rustv rubioì-des: rubia-like rubric-alyx: calyx red rubricaù-lis: red-stemmed rubrifò-lius: red-leaved rubronér-vis: red-veined rù-dis: wild, not tilled rudiús-culus: wild, wildish rufés-cens: becoming red rufid-ulus: somewhat rufid, reddish rufinér-vis: red-nerved rù-fus: red, reddish rugò-sus: rugose, wrinkled runcinà-tus: runcinate rupif-ragus: rock-breaking rupés-tris: rock-loving rupic-olus: growing on cliffs or ledges ruscifò-lius: ruscus-leaved russà-tus: reddish, russet rusticà-nus, rús-ticus: rustic, pertaining to the country ruthén-icus: Ruthenian (Russian) rutidobúl-bon: rough-bulbed rutifò-lius: ruta-leaved rù-tilans: red, becoming red

saccà-tus: saccate, bag-like saccharà-tus: containing sugar. sweet saccharif-era: sugar-bearing sacchár-inus: saccharine saccharoì-des: like sugar sác-charum: of sugar saccif-era: bag-bearing sacrò-rum: sacred, of sacred places

sagittà-lis, sagittà-tus: sagittate. arrow-like sagittifò-lius: arrow-leaved salicariæfò-lius: willow-leaved salicifò-lius: willow-leaved salic-inus: willow-like salicornioì-des: salicornia-like saliq-nus: of the willow sali-nus: salty, of salty places salsuginò-sus: salt-marsh-loving salviæfò-lius, salvifò-lius: salvialeaved sambucifò-lius: sambucus-leaved, elder-leaved sambuci-nus: sambucus- or elderlike sánc-tus: holv sanguín-eus: bloody, blood-red sáp-idus: savory, pleasing to taste sapién-tum: of the wise men or authors sabonà-ceus: soapy sarcò-des: flesh-like sarmát-icus: of Sarmatia: Russian sarmentò-sus: bearing runners sati-vus: cultivated saturà-tus: saturated saurocéph-alus: lizard-headed saxát-ilis: found among rocks saxic-olus: growing among rocks saxò-sus: full of rocks scà-ber: scabrous, rough scabér-rimus: very rough scabiosæfò-lius: scabiosa-leaved scabrél-lus, scáb-ridus: somewhat rough scán-dens: scandent, climbing scapò-sus: with scapes scariò-sus: scarious, thin and not scép-trum: of a scepter schidig-era: spine-bearing

schistò-sus: schistose schizoneù-rus: cut-nerved schizopét-alus: cut-petaled schizophýl-lus: cut-leaved scholà-ris: pertaining to a school scilloì-des: squill-like sclerocár-pus: hard-fruited sclerophýl-lus: hard-leaved scopà-rius: broom or broom-like scopulò-rum: of the rocks scorpioì-des: scorpion-like scorzoneroi-des: scorzonera-like septentrionà-lis: northern scót-ica: Scotch scúl-ptus: carved scutellà-ris, scutellà-tus: salver- seric-eus: silky or dish-shaped scutà-tus: buckler-shaped scù-tum: a shield sebif-era: tallow-bearing sebò-sus: full of tallow or grease sechellà-rum: of the Seychelles (Indian Ocean) seclù-sus: hidden, secluded secundiflò-rus: secund-flowered secun-dus, secundà-tus: secund, side-flowering securiq-era: axe-bearing séa-etum: of cornfields selaginoì-des: selago-like, clubmoss-like semialà-tus: semi-winged semibaccà-tus: semi-berried semicaudà-tus: semi-tailed semicylin-dricus: semi-cylindrical semidecán-drus: half ten-stamened semipinnà-tus: imperfectly pinnate semberflò-rens: ever flowering sempér-virens: ever green sempervivoì-des: sempervivumlike

senecioì-des: senecio-like senì-lis: senile, old, white-haired sensib-ilis: sensitive sensiti-vus: sensitive sepià-rius: of or pertaining to sè-pium: of hedges or fences septangulà-ris: seven-angled septém-fidus: seven-cut septém-lobus: seven-lobed septempunctà-tus: seven-spotted sepúl-tus: sepulchered, interred sericán-thus: silky-flowered sericif-era, sericof-era: silk-bearserót-inus: late, late-flowering or late-ripening sér-pens: creeping, crawling serpenti-nus: of snakes, serpenserpvllifò-lius: thyme-leaved, serpyllum-leaved serratifò-lius: serrate-leaved serrà-tus: serrate, saw-toothed serrulà-tus: somewhat serrate sesquipedà-lis: one foot and a half long or high sessiflò-rus: sessile-flowered sessifò-lius: sessile-leaved sessiliflò-rus: sessile-flowered sessilifò-lius: sessile-leaved sés-silis: sessile, stalkless setà-ceus: bristle-like setifò-lius: bristle-leaved setig-era, sét-iger: bristle-bearing setip-odus: bristle-footed setispi-nus: bristle-spined setò-sus: full of bristles setulò-sus: full of small bristles sexangulà-ris: six-angled

sià-meus: of Siam sibir-icus: of Siberia siculifór-mis: dagger-formed sic-ulus: of Sicily siderophloi-us: iron bark sideróx-vlon: iron wood signà-tus: marked, designated silaifò-lius: silaus-leaved silic-eus: pertaining to or growing in sand siliculò-sus: bearing silicles siliquò-sus: bearing siliques silvát-icus, silvés-tris: pertaining to woods sím-ilis: similar, like sím-plex: simple, unbranched simplicicaù-lis: simple-stemmed simplicifò-lius: simple-leaved simplicis-simus: simplest sím-ulans: similar to, resembling sín-icus: Chinese sinuà-tus. sinuò-sus: sinuate, wavy-margined siphilit-icus: syphilitic sisalà-nus: pertaining to sisal sisymbrifò-lius: sisymbriumleaved smarág-dinus: of emerald smilác-inus: of smilax sobolif-era: bearing creeping rooting stems or roots socià-lis: sociable, companionable socotrà-nus: of Socotra (island off Arabia) sodomè-um: of Sodom solandriflò-rus: solandra-flowered solà-ris: of the sun soldanelloì-des: like soldanella sól-idus: solid, dense somnif-era: sleep-producing sonchifò-lius: sonchus-leaved spirél-lus: little spiral

sorbifò-lius: sorbus-leaved sór-didus: dirty spadic-eus: with a spadix sparsiflò-rus: sparsely flowered sparsifò-lius: sparsely leaved spár-sus: sparse, few spárteus: pertaining to the broom or Spartium spathà-ceus: with a spathe spathulà-tus: spatulate, spoonshaped spathulifò-lius: spatulate-leaved speciosis-simus: very showy speciò-sus: showy, good-looking spectáb-ilis: spectacular, remarkable, showy spectán-drus: showy spéc-trum: an image, apparition speculà-tus: shining, as if with mirrors sphacelà-tus: dead, withered, diseased sphér-icus: spherical sphæcocár-pus: spherical-fruited sphærocéph-alus: sphericalheaded sphæroid-eus: sphere-like sphærostà-chvus: sphericalspiked spicà-tus: spicate, with spikes spicifór-mis: spike-shaped spicig-era: spike-bearing spiculifò-lius: spicule-leaved spinà-rum: spiny spinés-cens: somewhat spiny spinif-era: bearing spines spinosis-simus: very spiny spinò-sus: full of spines spinulif-era: bearing small spines spinulò-sus: somewhat or weakly spiny spirà-lis: spiral

splén-dens: splendid splendidis-simus: very splendid splén-didus: splendid spondioì-des: spondias-like (Spondias: Anacardiaceæ) spumà-rius: frothing spù-rius: spurious, false squà-lens, squál-idus: squalid, filthy squamà-tus: squamate, with small scale-like leaves or bracts squamò-sus: full of scales squarrò-sus: with parts spreading or even recurved at ends stachvoì-des: stachvs-like stamin-eus: bearing prominent stamens stáns: standing, erect, upright stauracán-thus: with spines crossshaped stellà-ris, stellà-tus: stellate, starry stellip-ilus: with stellate hairs stellulà-tus: somewhat stellate stenocár-pus: narrow-fruited stenocéph-alus: narrow-headed stenóq-vnus: with narrow stigma stenopét-alus: narrow-petaled stenophýl-lus: narrow-leaved stenóp-terus: narrow-winged stenostà-chvus: narrow-spiked stér-ilis: sterile, infertile stigmát-icus: marked, of stigmas stigmò-sus: much marked, pertaining to stigmas stipulà-ceus, stipulà-ris, stipulàtus: having stipules stipulò-sus: having large stipules stolonif-era: bearing stolons or runners that take root stramineofrúc-tus: with strawcolored fruit

stramin-eus: straw-colored strangulà-tus: strangled, constricted streptocár-pus: twisted-fruited streptopét-alus: petals twisted streptophýl-lus: twisted-leaved streptosép-alus: sepals twisted striát-ulus: faintly striped strià-tus: striated, striped strictiflò-rus: stiff-flowered stric-tus: strict, upright, erect strigillò-sus: somewhat strigose strigò-sus: strigose strigulò-sus: with small or weak appressed hairs striolà-tus: faintly striped strobilà-ceus: resembling a cone strobilif-era: cone-bearing strumà-rius: of tumors or ulcers strumà-tus: with tumors or ulstrumò-sus: having cushion-like swellings stylò-sus: with prominent styles styphelioi-des: styphelia-like styracif-luus: flowing with storax or gum suavè-olens: sweet-scented suà-vis: sweet, agreeable suavis-simus: sweetest subacaù-lis: somewhat stemmed subalpi-nus: nearly alpine subauriculà-tus: somewhat eared subcærù-leus: slightly blue subcà-nus: somewhat hoarv subcarnò-sus: rather fleshy subcordà-tus: somewhat cordate subdivaricà-tus: slightly divarisubedentà-tus: nearly toothless suberculà-tus: of cork, corky suberéc-tus: somewhat erect

suberò-sus: cork-barked

subfalcà-tus: somewhat falcate subqlaù-cus: somewhat glaucous subhirtél-lus: somewhat hairy sublunà-tus: somewhat crescentshaped submér-sus: submerged subperén-nis: nearly perennial subpetiolà-tus: partially petioled subscán-dens: partially climbing subsés-silis: nearly sessile subsinuà-tus: somewhat sinuate subterrà-neus: underground subulà-tus: awl-shaped subumbellà-tus: somewhat umbellate subvillò-sus: somewhat softhairv subvolù-bilis: somewhat twining succotri-nus: of Socotra: see socotranus succulén-tus: succulent, fleshy suéc-icus: Swedish suffrutés-cens, suffruticò-sus: somewhat shrubby suffúl-tus: supported sulcà-tus: sulcate, furrowed sulphù-reus: sulfur-colored sumatrà-nus: of Sumatra supér-biens, supér-bus: superb, proud supercilià-ris: eyebrow-like supér-fluus: superfluous, redundant supi-nus: prostrate supraaxillà-ris: above the axils supracà-nus: gray-pubescent above surculò-sus: producing suckers susià-nus: of Susa, an ancient city of Persia suspén-sus: suspended, hung sylvát-icus: forest-loving sylvés-ter, sylvés-tris: of woods

or forests

sylvic-olus: growing in woods

syphilit-icus: syphilitic

syri-acus: Syrian

syringán-thus: syringa-flowered

syringifò-lius: syringa-leaved

svringifò-lius: svringa-leaved tabulæfór-mis, tabulifór-mis: table-formed tabulà-ris: table-like, flattened horizontally tædig-era: cone-bearing, torchbearing tanacetifò-lius: tansv-leaved taraxicifò-lius: dandelion-leaved tardiflò-rus: late-flowered tardì-vus: tardy, late tartà-reus: with a loose or rough crumbling surface tatár-icus: of Tartary taù-reus: of oxen taù-ricus: Taurian, Crimean tauri-nus: bull-like, ox-like, pertaining to cattle taxifò-lius: vew-leaved téch-nicus: technical, special tectò-rum: of roofs or houses téc-tus: concealed, covered tellimoì-des: tellima-like (Tellima: Saxifragaceæ) temulén-tus: drunken tenacis-simus: most tenacious tè-nax: tenacious, strong tenebrò-sus: of dark or shaded places tenél-lus: slender, tender, soft tè-ner, tén-era: slender, tender, soft tentaculà-tus: with tentacles tenuicaù-lis: slender-stemmed

tenuislò-rus: slender-flowered

tenuifò-lius: slender-leaved

tenuil-obus: slender-lobed

tenù-ior: more slender tenuipét-alus: slender-petaled tén-uis: slender, thin tenuis-simus: very slender tenuisty-lus: slender-styled terebinthà-ceus: of turpentine terebinthifò-lius: terebinthusleaved terebinth-inus: of turpentine tè-res: terete, circular in crosssection teretifò-lius: terete-leaved tereticór-nis: with terete horns terminà-lis: terminal ternatè-a: of island of Ternate in Moluccas ternà-tus: in threes ternifò-lius: leaves in threes terrés-tris: of the earth tessellà-tus: tessellate, checkered testà-ceus: light brown, brickcolored: also testaceous testiculà-tus: testiculated, testicled testudinà-rius: like a tortoiseshell tetracán-thus: four-spined tetragonól-obus: with four-angled pod tetragò-nus: four-angled tetrám-erus: of four members tetrán-drus: four-anthered tetrán-thus: four-flowered tetraphýl-lus: four-leaved tetráp-terus: four-winged tetraquè-trus: four-cornered teucrioì-des: teucrium-like texà-nus: of Texas, Texan téx-tilis: textile, woven thapsoi-des: thapsus-like, mullein-like thalictroi-des: thalictrum-like thebà-icus: of Thebes

theif-era: tea-bearing thermà-lis: warm, of warm springs thibét-icus: of Tibet thurif-era: incense-bearing thuyoì-des, thyoì-des: thuja-like thymifò-lius: thyme-leaved thymoi-des: thyme-like thyrsiflò-rus: thyrse-flowered thrysoi-des: thyrse-like tibét-icus: of Tibet tibic-inis: of a flute player tigri-nus: tiger-striped tilià-ceus: tilia-like, linden-like tiliæfò-lius: tilia-leaved tinctò-rius: belonging to dyers, of dves tinc-tus: dved tingità-nus: of Tangiers tipulifór-mis: of the shape of a daddy-long-legs tità-nus: very large tomentò-sus: tomentose, densely woolly tón-sus: clipt, sheared torminà-lis: useful against colic torò-sus: cylindrical with contractions at intervals tortifò-lius: leaves twisted tór-tilis: twisted tortuò-sus: much twisted tór-tus: twisted torulò-sus: somewhat torose; see torosus toxicà-rius, tóx-icus: poisonous toxif-era: poison-producing trachypleù-ra: rough-ribbed or -nerved trachyspér-mus: rough-seeded tragophýl-lus: tragus-leaved translù-cens: translucent transpà-rens: transparent transylván-icus: of Transylvania

equal sides trapezioì-des: trapezium-like tremuloì-des: like tremulus, the trembling poplar trém-ulus: quivering, trembling triacanthoph-orus: bearing three spines triacán-thus: three-spined trián-drus: with three anthers or stamens triangulà-ris, triangulà-tus: three-angled trián-gulus: three-angular tricaudà-tus: three-tailed tricéph-alus: three-headed trichóc-alyx: calyx hairy trichocár-pus: hairy-fruited trichomanefò-lius: trichomanesleaved trichomanoì-des: trichomaneslike trichophýl-lus: hairy-leaved trichosán-thus: hairy-flowered trichospér-mus: hairy-seeded trichót-omus: three-branched or -forked tricóc-cus: three-seeded, threeberried tric-olor: three-colored tricór-nis: three-horned tricuspidà-tus: having three points tridác-tylus: three-fingered trì-dens, tridentà-tus: threetoothed trifascià-tus: three-banded trif-idus: three-parted triflò-rus: three-flowered trifolià-tus: three-leaved trifoliolà-tus: of three leaflets trifò-lius: three-leaved

trapezifór-mis: with four un- trifurcà-tus, trifúr-cus: threeforked trialochidià-tus: with three barbed bristles trigonophýl-lus: three-corneredleaved; trigonus-leaved trilineà-tus: three-lined trilobà-tus. tríl-obus: threelobed trimés-tris: of three months trinér-vis: three-nerved trinotà-tus: three-marked or -spotted triornithóph-orus: bearing three birds triparti-tus: three-parted tripét-alus: three-petaled triphýl-lus: three-leaved trip-terus: three-winged tripunctà-tus: three-spotted triquè-tris: three-cornered trispér-mus: three-seeded tristà-chyus: three-spiked tris-tis: sad, bitter, dull triternà-tus: thrice in threes triúm-phans: triumphant trivià-lis: common, ordinary trolliifò-lius: trollius-leaved tróp-icus: of the tropics truncát-ulus: somewhat truncate truncà-tus: truncate, cut off square tubæfór-mis: trumpet-shaped tubà-tus: trumpet-shaped tuberculà-tus, tuberculò-sus: having tubercles tuberò-sus: tuberous tubif-era: tube-bearing tubiflò-rus: trumpet-flowered tubis-pathus: tube-spathed tubulò-sus: with tubes tulipif-era: tulip-bearing tù-midus: swollen

turbinà-tus: top-shaped turbinél-lus: little top-shaped túr-qidus: turgid, inflated, full typhi-nus: pertaining to fever týp-icus: typical ulic-inus: like ulex uliginò-sus: of wet or marshy places ulmifò-lius: elm-leaved, ulmusleaved ulmoì-des: elm-like umbellà-tus: with umbels umbellulà-tus: with umbellets umbonà-tus: bearing at center an umbo or stout projection umbraculif-era: umbrellabearing umbrò-sus: shaded, shade-loving uncinà-tus: hooked at the point vacil-lans: swaying

undà-tus: waved undulatifò-lius: undulate-leaved undulà-tus: undulated, wavy undulifò-lius: wavy-leaved unquiculà-ris, unquiculà-tus: clawed unquipét-alus: petals clawed unquispi-nus: claw-spined

unicór-nis: one-horned unidentà-tus: one-toothed uniflò-rus: one-flowered unifò-lius: one-leaved unilaterà-lis: one-sided unioloì-des: uniola-like univittà-tus: one-striped urbà-nus: city-loving urceolà-tus: urn-shaped \hat{u} -rens: burning, stinging

unic-olor: one-colored

urentis-simus: very burning or

stinging

urnia-era: pitcher-bearing

urophýl-lus: tail-leaved urostà-chyus: tail-spiked ursi-nus: pertaining to bears, northern (under the Great Bear)

urticæfò-lius, urticifò-lius: nettle-leaved urticoì-des: nettle-like usitatis-simus: most useful usneoì-des: usnea-like ustulà-tus: burnt, sere ù-tilis: useful utilis-simus: most useful utriculà-tus: with a small bladdery one-seeded fruit utriculò-sus: utricled uvif-era: grape-bearing

vaccinifò-lius: vaccinium-leaved vaccinoì-des: vaccinium-like và-gans: wandering vaginà-lis. vaginà-tus: sheathed valdivià-nus: of Valdivia (Chile) valenti-nus: of Valentia (Spain)

vál-idus: strong vandà-rum: of vanda (an orchid)

variáb-ilis. và-rians. varià-tus:

variable varicò-sus: varicose variegà-tus: variegated variifò-lius: variable-leaved variifór-mis: of variable forms và-rius: various, diverse vegetà-tus, vég-etus: vigorous velà-ris: pertaining to curtains or veils

velù-tinus: velvety vè-lox: rapidly growing, swift venenà-tus: poisonous

venò-sus: veiny

ing

verbascifò-lius: verbascum-

leaved

verecún-dus: modest, blushing vermiculà-tus: worm-like

vernà-lis: of spring vernicíf-era, vernicíf-lua:

varnish-bearing vernicò-sus: varnished

vér-nus: of spring

verrucò-sus: verrucose, warted verruculò-sus: very warty versic-olor: variously colored

verticillà-ris, verticillà-tus:

verticillate, whorled

vè-rus: the true or genuine or vitifò-lius: grape-leaved standard

vés-cus: weak, thin, feeble vesciculò-sus: with little bladders vivip-arus: producing the young vesperti-nus: of the evening,

western

vesti-tus: covered, clothed véx-ans: puzzling, vexatious vexillà-rius: of the standard

petal

viburnifò-lius: viburnum-leaved viciæfò-lius, vicifò-lius: vetch-

leaved

victorià-lis: of Victoria villò-sus: villous, soft-hairy viminà-lis, vimin-eus: of osiers

vinif-era: wine-bearing

vinò-sus: full of wine violà-ceus: violet

violés-cens: becoming violetcolored

vì-rens: green

virés-cens: becoming green

virgà-tus: twiggy

virginà-lis, virgin-eus: virgin virginià-nus, virgin-icus,

vir qinién-sis: of Virginia viridés-cens: becoming green viridicarinà-tus: green-keeled viridiflò-rus: green-flowered viridifò-lius: green-leaved viridifús-cus: green-brown vír-idis: green

viridis-simus: very green viríd-ulus: greenish

viscid-ulus: somewhat sticky vis-cidus: viscid, sticky

viscosis-simus: very sticky

viscò-sus: sticky

vità-ceus: vitis-like, vine-like vitelli-nus: dull yellow approach-

ing red

viticulò-sus: sarmentose

vittà-tus: striped

vittiq-era: bearing stripes alive, freely producing asexual

propagating parts

volgár-icus: of the Volga River

volù-bilis: twining volù-tus: rolled-leaved vomitò-rius: emetic

vulcán-icus: of Vulcan or a volcano

vulgà-ris, vulgà-tus: vulgar,

common

vulpi-nus: of the fox

wolgár-icus: of the Volga River region; see volgaricus

xanthacán-thus: yellow-spined xánth-inus: vellow

xanthocár-pus: vellow-fruited xantholeù-cus: yellow-white xanthoneù-rus: yellow-nerved xanthophýl-lus: vellow-leaved

LIST II. SPECIFIC NAMES

xanthorrhi-zus: yellow-rooted xanthóx-ylon: yellow-wooded xvlonacán-thus: woody-spined

zebri-nus: zebra-striped

zevlán-icus: of Cevlon zibethì-nus: like the civet-cat,

malodorous

zizanioì-des: zizania-like

zonà-lis, zonà-tus: zoned, banded