A Quick Reference Guide to 4000 Garden Plants

The A to Z of PLANT NAMES

› Where plants come from
› Who discovered them
› How they got their names

ALLEN J. COOMBES

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To Piers Trehane, a good friend as well as a valued mentor and critic, sorely missed.

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Introduction

AS PLANTS ARE ESSENTIAL to man's existence, providing food, medicine and shelter, plant names are surely as old as language itself, and we can imagine that early man needed names for the plants and plant products that he used or traded. Although plants were documented soon after the earliest written languages appeared, several thousand years BCE, the first systematic documentation of known plants is owed to the Greek scholar Theophrastus in the 4th century BCE. Many of the names he used (as well as those given by later Greeks, such as Dioscorides, and Romans, such as Pliny the Elder) are still in use today, though not necessarily for the same plants.

The rest of the world was slow to take advantage of what the Greeks and Romans had accomplished, and it was not until the 16th and 17th centuries that serious efforts were made to name plants. This was a particularly important time as many new discoveries were being made in various parts of the world. The plant names used at this time were in the form of a descriptive phrase starting with the name of the genus and listing key characters that would distinguish a species from its relatives, with different authors providing different phrase names for the same plant. It was not until the publication of *Species Plantarum* by Linnaeus in 1753 that plant names existed in the form we know them today. In this, Linnaeus listed the phrase names applied by himself and others but, as well as the name of the genus, also gave a single word to denote the species. These were originally regarded as trivial names, a sort of aide-memoire to the full names that, as more species were described, were becoming increasingly lengthy. For example, Linnaeus called common holly *Ilex foliis ovatis acutis spinosis*, i.e., the holly with ovate, sharply spiny leaves, and added after this the word *Aquifolium*.

These trivial names were quickly adopted as the standard way to write plant names, and this binomial (two-name) system is the method in use today. The beauty of this system lies in its simplicity, making plant names instantly recognisable as such and while at first glance they can appear strange, each has its own story to tell.

What makes a plant name

The scientific name of any plant consists of the name of the genus followed by the species epithet, which together with the genus makes the name of the species. The epithet is not regarded as a name as it is meaningless without the name of a genus. Finally comes the name of the author or authors, usually abbreviated, who described the species. A subspecies or variety is a botanically recognised division of a species and will also include an additional epithet and author. The genus and epithets are written in italics, the genus starting with a capital letter, the species and other epithets with a low-case letter.

While the name of a genus is a noun, the species epithet is usually an adjective, so *Quercus rubra* is literally ‘the red oak’. As Latin is one of the languages, that, unlike English, assigns gender to nouns, the adjectival species epithet needs to agree with the genus. As *Quercus* is feminine, the female form of the adjective is used. With genera of different genders, the ending would change: neuter, *Acer rubrum*; masculine, *Centranthus ruber*. Not all epithets are subject to change. When a plant is named after a person and the epithet is the person’s name in the genitive, the ending agrees with the gender of the person, so the *-ii* ending applies only to plants named after men. The epithets of plants named after women have a different ending, e.g., *Kniphofia northiae*, after Marianne North. If, however the ending is the name as an adjective, the epithet does agree with the genus. Examples of these are *Acer davidii*, named after Armand David, and *Forsythia giraldiana*, named after Giuseppe Giraldi. As noun and adjective, these give the names subtly different meanings, with the first translating as David’s maple, the second as Giraldi forsythia. Occasionally the epithet is a noun and is not altered by gender. For example, *Styrax* is masculine and the adjectival epithets end in *-us*, as in *S. americanus*. However, the epithet of *S. obassia* is a noun derived from the Japanese name, so retains its original form.

Cultivars are selections maintained in horticulture by means that retain their distinguishing characteristics. They are capitalised, are not written in italics and are enclosed in single quotation marks (e.g., *Magnolia* ×*soulangeana* ‘Lennei’). Many cultivars have epithets in Latin form, but any named since 1959 must have names in a modern language. Some of the more popular cultivars with names in Latin form are treated here.

A group can be regarded as similar to a cultivar in that it is only recognised in gardens but can contain many variants that share the same characters and often includes cultivars. The cabbage, for example, is a group within the species *Brassica oleracea (Brassica oleracea* Capitata Group), and all cabbage cultivars belong here. Species or divisions within species no longer recognised as botanically distinct can be regarded as groups if they are distinct in gardens. For example, *Celosia cristata* and *C. plumosa*, formerly recognised as species, are now regarded as falling within the variation of *C. argentea*. Their distinctness in gardens, however, can continue to be recognised by calling them *C. argentea* Cristata Group and *C. argentea* Plumosa Group.

Hybrids that are recognised botanically have a multiplication sign immediately preceding the epithet.

The origin and meaning of plant names

Plant names are of diverse origin. They can be formed from the classical languages, from personal names, the name of a country where they grow or from one of their common names. This is why they should be referred to as scientific, rather than Latin, names; and the term Latin name used here refers to names used in Classical Latin. Whatever their origin, plant names are regarded as being in Latin form. The name of the genus is often from mythology or named for an eminent person, not necessarily connected with the plants in question. The species epithet is more likely to have a

direct association with the plant it represents. It could relate to a particular character of the plant or the part of the world it comes from, or it may commemorate a person who had some association with the species. Species can be named for someone who provided assistance to the author or collector, or in some cases someone who recognised it as distinct but gave it another name, but are more often named for the person who collected what is referred to as the type specimen. This is a herbarium specimen that was used to prepare the original description of the species.

Whatever the origin of a name or epithet, knowledge of its meaning gives it added significance and often makes it easier to associate with a plant. Knowing the meaning of a name is only one step in this process. To link the name to a plant, it is more important to know why that name was chosen. Commemorative epithets may do little to help with recognition, but they often add a great deal of historical interest by linking a plant to its discoverer or the person who first collected it. Descriptive epithets on the other hand often make it easy to link the name to the plant. It is only necessary to know that *pardalis* is Latin for a leopard, to link the name to the leopard-like spots on the flowers of *Lilium pardalinum*. However, names can also give the wrong impression of a plant.

When a plant is named, the author may have had very little material to go on. The chosen name, therefore, may not represent a state that is typical of that genus or species. When Linnaeus named the genus *Arenaria*, for example, he had relatively few species available to him. The generic name is derived from the fact that several of these grow in sandy soils. It cannot be assumed, however, that this applies to all species and some even grow in marshes. *Dictamnus albus*, commonly grown in gardens and named for its white flowers, is often seen with flowers in shades of pink to purple. Names can also be misleading, as with *Pinus palustris*, the name of which implies that it grows in marshes, while it prefers well-drained soils. Occasionally the country of origin is wrongly identified. *Simmondsia chinensis*, for example, was thought to be a native of China but is, in fact, from California.

In addition, the meaning of many place names have changed with time; for example, in the time of Linnaeus, Canada would have included much of the northeastern USA, and plants with the specific epithet *canadensis* cannot be assumed to have been described from Canada, although they may well occur there. *Glandularia canadensis*, for example, is not a native of Canada. Spellings can also change with time so that some plant names can appear misspelled. For example, ‘Pensylvania’ was a commonly used 18th-century spelling for Pennsylvania, and so plant names that use the single *n* are not considered incorrect. Chinese place names have also changed a great deal, and so we come across the epithet *hupehensis* for plants described from Hubei (previously Hupeh), or *cantoniense* for plants from Guangzhou (previously Canton).

Occasionally an epithet may have a meaning that seems strange for the genus it is in. *Crocosmia* ×*crocosmiiflora* and *C.* ×*crocosmioides*, for example, mean, respectively, ‘the *Crocosmia* with flowers like *Crocosmia*’ and ‘the *Crocosmia* like a *Crocosmia*’. The reason for this is that the first was originally named as a species of *Montbretia* and the second as a species of *Antholyza*. Therefore the original meanings were ‘the *Montbretia* with flowers like *Crocosmia*’ and ‘the *Antholyza* like a

Crocosmia'. When a species is moved to another genus, the characters that distinguished it in the first genus, and gave rise to its name, may not be as meaningful in the current genus. For example the epithet of *Vancouveria hexandra* means 'having six stamens', which all species in this genus have. The epithet was more meaningful when it was originally named as a species of *Epimedium*, the species of which have four stamens.

Although scientific names are regarded as being in Latin form, they are far from the Latin spoken by the Romans and incorporate words that the Romans never knew or words given a different meaning for the purpose of botany. Many scientific names use place names that were used in Roman times, many more use the names of modern countries, regions or cities unfamiliar to the Romans, or the modern names for regions. The epithet *sinense*/*sinensis*, for example, is derived from *Sina*, the Latin name for China. The epithet *chinense/chinensis*, which has the same meaning ('from China'), is a Latinised version of the country's English name. Such words could be described as modern Latin. Often, the names of plant parts have been adapted from Latin words that were originally used in a different sense. For example, the spathe—the conspicuous bract around the inflorescence in *Arum* and its relatives—derives from the Latin word (from the Greek) for a broadsword.

Common names

Common, or vernacular, names have been with us for much longer than scientific names; their origins are often steeped in history and their meanings can be fascinating. They have the advantage of being easier to pronounce, spell and remember for most people than scientific names and often contain words that can be related to, immediately conveying an impression of a plant. While common names are generally sufficient for everyday language, they do have some disadvantages. One plant may have several or many common names, which can be specific to different regions, languages or countries. While some foreign common names have been adopted in English, such as edelweiss (German for 'noble white'), these are the exception. While common names often tell us something about the plant, they may not always indicate its true relations. Plants from several different genera are referred to as 'cedar' or 'pine', for example, and *Symphyotrichum novi-belgii* is known as Michaelmas daisy, or New York aster, in spite of being neither a daisy nor an aster.

In addition, the same common name can have different meanings. To illustrate the confusion that can occur, in North America the common name 'sycamore' is applied to members of the genus *Platanus*, which in Europe are called 'planes'. In Europe the name 'sycamore' applies to a maple, *Acer pseudoplatanus*, which in Scotland is referred to as 'plane'. A sycamore mentioned in the Bible, however, is a type of fig.

Scientific names have the advantage over common names in that they have the same meaning in any part of the world. In addition they are documented, and it is always possible go back to the original to discover exactly what the author meant, something that is not always possible with common names. Knowing the correct scientific name of a plant allows access to a much wider range of information about it, in sources that may not use common names.

Name changes

Changes to the scientific name of plants are part of life, though often frustrating. However, names are only changed for good reasons, and changes aim to give an accurate representation, not only of the true identity of a plant but also of its relationships. Some examples of why names are changed are given here.

1. Plants can be wrongly identified. For many years, a bedding plant was commonly grown under the name *Helichrysum microphyllum*. Its correct name, however, is *Plecostachys serpyllifolia*. Both species are in cultivation. The spider plant commonly referred to in the literature and grown in gardens as *Cleome spinosa*, is, in fact, a different species, *C. hassleriana*, now known as *Tarenaya hassleriana*. The author 'hort.' (Latin *hortulanorum*, 'of gardeners') is often used to denote plants that are grown in gardens under the incorrect name. In the example just given, *Helichrysum microphyllum* hort. (or at least hort. in part) is different *to H. microphyllum* (Willd.) Cambess.
2. Names can change for nomenclatural reasons. Nomenclature decides if the name used for a plant is the correct one—for example, if it was published correctly, or if there is an earlier name for the same plant. The rules of nomenclature state that the earliest validly published name takes priority, even if this is obscure. Since the adoption of their use, many genera have been found to have earlier names, which should have been used. However, as changing the names of many familiar and important genera would cause considerable disruption, it has been possible to conserve these later names and allow their use. *Pittosporum* is an example of a conserved generic name. Without conservation, the earlier name *Tobira* would have to be used.

   The names of species can also be conserved, an important point when talking about those plants with a high profile in horticulture. As an example of this, *Zinnia violacea* is an earlier name applied to the same species as *Z. elegans*. Under the rules of nomenclature, if they are regarded as the same species then *Z. violacea* must take priority, as it was published first. However, as *Z. elegans* is a much more widely used name, it has been proposed for conservation. Many of these possible changes can therefore be avoided.
3. Names can change for taxonomic reasons. Taxonomy deals with the relationships between plants—for example, which genus does a particular plant belong in, or should it be regarded as a species, or maybe as a subspecies of a different species. There have always been name changes of this sort, but recent molecular work has made considerable advances in the understanding of plant relationships, resulting in many changes. It has been found, for instance, that most American species of *Aster* are not closely related to the Old World species, thus resulting in the splitting of the genus into several smaller ones.

   Are these changes avoidable? In this example, it is not wrong to retain all species in the genus *Aster*, if, with good reason, it is believed that is where they should be, but the new classification shows better the relationships of the species involved, which can help gardeners and plant breeders. In addition, new species named may not have a useable name in the old genus. For example, new species of

Veronica have already been described from New Zealand and Australia with no name available for them in *Hebe* or *Parahebe*, or whichever genus they would have been assigned to in the past.

While conservation is a considerable help in promoting name stability, sometimes it comes at a price. When the genus *Chrysanthemum* was split into smaller genera, the generic name should have stayed with *C. segetum* (corn marigold) and its relatives, necessitating a new genus for the florists' 'mums'. As this would have caused considerable horticultural disruption, the genus *Chrysanthemum* was conserved so that the 'mums' would not have to change their name. This, however, necessitated moving the corn marigold and its relatives to another genus, *Glebionis*.

Pronunciation

Pronunciation is one of the most controversial aspects of plant names, and although there are strict rules on how to form and spell plant names, there are no rules on how to pronounce them. They are derived from, or at least regarded as being, Latin, but that does not mean they have to be pronounced as such. As a language, Latin is very rarely spoken in the way the Romans used it. As it spread across Europe, used as an international language, its pronunciation was heavily influenced by the native language; even church Latin, at least today, is strongly influenced by Italian. The original Latin pronunciation is not known for certain, and much of what is known would make it inappropriate, difficult and incomprehensible for English speakers.

It is surprising how infrequently plant names are actually spoken; they are much more likely to be encountered when reading or writing. One simple rule to follow is to pronounce every vowel separately, except for diphthongs (two vowels together pronounced as one) such as ae, ai, au, oe and eu), so *Abies* is ab-ee-ayz, not ay-beez. The most important aspect to take into consideration when saying a plant name is to be understood, that the person listening knows which plant is being referred to. It therefore makes sense to adopt a traditional pronunciation, one that is widely used and understood, and I have based the suggested pronunciations used here on what I have heard and what I know people recognise. Of course, there is a considerable variety of ways that plant names are pronounced, often depending on regional accent. There is also a great deal of leeway in how names can be pronounced and still be understood. For example, it does not matter if you say uh-me-ri-*kah*-nuh or uh-me-ri-*kay*-nuh; both will be understood, and the difference between the two is very small. Some may prefer to use pur-*poo*-ree-oos, while most will say pur-*pew*-ree-oos. Pronunciation can clarify which is meant of two similar-sounding names—for example, *Dahlia* and *Dalea*, both commonly pronounced *day*-lee-uh.

One of the most difficult parts of a name to decide how to pronounce is the *-ii* found at the end of many species epithets. By far the most common pronunciation of this, in my experience, is 'ee-ie' (e.g, wil-*son*-ee-ie, but *wil*-son-ie or wil-*son*-ee-ee are also found). I have opted for '-ee-ee' here because it is more likely to be accepted by non-English speakers (who would not use the '-ie' sound for the letter *i*) and emphasises the spelling, thus differentiating between epithets ending *-ii* and those

ending -*iae*. However, all are likely to be understood, and in every case, it is better to use a pronunciation with which you are familiar and confident.

The pronunciation of names derived from personal names can be problematic. If we were to pronounce the plant name in the same way as the person's name, some names would not be understood, at least in English-speaking countries. *Magnolia*, for example, would be pronounced man-*yol*-ee-uh. In addition, when a Latin ending is added to a name it changes the stressed syllable, so in the earlier example only *wil*-son-ie (not recommended) would come close to the original pronunciation.

How to use this book

The aim of this book is to give the correct name as well as its derivation and pronunciation for the most commonly grown plants in the UK and in temperate areas of North America. Most of the plants included will be grown out of doors, but also listed is a wide range of plants that are grown either indoors or with protection in many areas.

Entries are arranged alphabetically by genus, then by species. Information given for the genus includes the name of the genus followed by the author and then, parenthetically, the family, which links the genus to related plants. The suggested pronunciation, with the stressed syllable in italics, is followed by the common name, if there is one, and the derivation of the scientific name. Finally, the number of species currently accepted, the type of plant and the distribution is given. The number of species should be regarded as approximate. Some plants are known only in cultivation. This may be because they are hybrids that arose in gardens; species now extinct in the wild; so widely grown that their native origin has become obscured; or because the plants in cultivation have changed so much from the original species by selection in cultivation over a long period that they are sufficiently distinct to be regarded as a different species.

Entries for species include the specific epithet followed by the author, the suggested pronunciation, common name, derivation of the epithet, and the distribution (unless this is the same as that given for the genus) and the parentage (if it is a hybrid). Information for the derivation of the epithet given in parentheses is implied and is derived from knowledge of the meaning together with knowledge of the plant. Common names and synonyms (previously used names) are cross referenced.

Words commonly used as cultivar epithets

While some cultivars that have epithets in Latin form are included in the text, to avoid repetition a list is included here of those that are most commonly used together with their pronunciation and meaning. As with the epithets of species, the ending often varies depending on the gender of the genus to which they are assigned, and they are presented here in the order masculine/feminine/neuter. Two or more words are often used in combination to form an epithet. They may be joined by a connecting vowel, for example 'Albiflora', meaning white-flowered, or 'Roseopicta', meaning variegated with pink, or retained as separate words, e.g., 'Alba Plena', meaning double white.

albus/alba/album.*al*-boos/buh/boom. Lat. white.

atro-.*at*-roh. Lat. dark (used in combination).

aureus/aurea/aureum.*aw*-ree-oos/uh/oom. Lat. golden.

compactus/compacta/compactum. kom-*pak*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. compact.

crispus/crispa/crispum.*kris*-poos/puh/poom. Lat. finely wavy.

elegans.*el*-i-ganz. Lat. elegant, slender.

fastigiatus/fastigiata/fastigiatum. fas-tig-ee-*ah*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. pointed (fastigate, narrow upright).

-florus/-flora/-florum.*flaw*-roos/ruh/room. Lat. flower (used in combination).

-folius/-folia/-folium.*foh*-lee-oos/uh/oom. Lat. leaf (used in combination).

glaucus/glauca/glaucum.*glaw*-koos/kuh/koom. Lat. bluish white.

grandi-.*gran*-di-. Lat. large (used in combination).

laciniatus/laciniata/laciniatum. la-sin-ee-*ah*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. deeply cut.

maculatus/maculata/maculatum. mak-ew-*lah*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. spotted.

macrophyllus/macrophylla/macrophyllum. mak-*rof*-iloos/luh/loom. Gk. large-leaved.

major/major/majus.*may*-juh/juh/joos. Lat. larger.

marginatus/marginata/marginatum. mar-jin-*ah*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. margined.

maximus/maxima/maximum.*max*-i-moos/muh/moom. Lat. largest.

microphyllus/microphylla/microphyllum. mik-*rof*-i-loos/luh/loom. Gk. small-leaved.

minimus/minima/minimum.*min*-i-moos/muh/moom. Lat. smallest.

minor/minor/minus.*mie*-nuh/nuh/noos. Lat. smaller.

monstrosus/monstrosa/monstrosum. mon-*stroh*-soos/suh/soom. Lat. monstrous.

nanus/nana/nanum.*nah*-noos/nuh/noom. Lat. dwarf.

nigrus/nigra/nigrum.*nie*-groos/gruh/groom. Lat. black.

niveus/nivea/niveum.*niv*-ee-oos/uh/oom. Lat. snow-white.

pendulus/pendula/pendulum.*pen*-dew-loos/luh/loom. Lat. pendulous, weeping.

pictus/picta/pictum.*pik*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. painted (variegated).

plenus/plena/plenum.*pleen*-oos/uh/oom. Lat. full (used particularly for double flowers).

plumosus/plumosa/plumosum. plue-*moh*-soos/suh/soom. Lat. feathery.

prostratus/prostrata/prostratum. pro-*strah*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. prostrate.

purpureus/purpurea/purpureum. pur-*pew*-ree-oos/uh/oom. Lat. purple.

roseus/rosea/roseum.*roh*-zee-oos/uh/oom. Lat. pink or rose.

ruber/rubra/rubrum.*rue*-ber/bruh/broom. Lat. red.

splendens.*splen*-duhnz. Lat. splendid.

striatus/striata/striatum. stree-*ah*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. striped.

sulphureus/sulphurea/sulphureum. sul-*few*-ree-oos/uh/oom. Lat. sulphur-coloured.

tortuosus/tortuosa/tortuosum. tort-ew-*oh*-soos/suh/soom. Lat. twisted.
tricolor.*tri*-ko-lor. Lat. three-coloured.
undulatus/undulata/undulatum. un-dew-*lah*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. wavy-edged.
variegatus/variegata/variegatum. va-ree-uh-*gah*-toos/tuh/toom. Lat. variegated.

Abbreviations

Am.	America
ann.	annual
B.C.	Baja California
bienn.	biennial
C	central
ca.	approximately
cult.	cultivated
E	east(ern)
Eur.	Europe
f.	forma
Gk.	Greek
hemisph.	hemisphere
Himal.	Himalaya
Is.	island(s)
Lat.	Latin
med.	medicinal
Medit.	Mediterranean
Mex.	Mexico
myth.	mythology
N	north(ern)
N.I.	North Island
nothosubsp.	nothosubspecies (a hybrid involving subspecies)
NSW	New South Wales
NZ	New Zealand
perenn.	perennial
reg(s).	region(s)
S	south(ern)
S.I.	South Island

sp.	species (singular)
spp.	species (plural)
subsp.	subspecies
subtrop.	subtropical
temp.	temperate
trop.	tropical
var.	variety
W	west(ern)

A

Aaron's beard *Hypericum calycinum*
Aaron's rod *Verbascum thapsus*

Abelia R. Br. (Linnaeaceae). uh-*bee*-lee-uh. After Clarke Abel (1780–1826), British surgeon and naturalist who discovered and introduced *A. chinensis*. 5 spp. shrubs. China, Japan.

chinensis R. Br. chin-*en*-sis. Of China. China.

engleriana (Graebn.) Rehder = *A. uniflora*

floribunda (M. Martens & Galeotti) Decne. = *Vesalea floribunda*

×***grandiflora*** Rehder. gran-di-*flaw*-ruh. Glossy abelia. Lat. large-flowered. *A. chinensis* × *A. uniflora*. Cult.

mosanensis T. H. Chung ex Nakai = *Zabelia mosanensis*

parvifolia Hemsl. = *A. uniflora*

schumannii (Graebn.) Rehder = *A. uniflora*

triflora R. Br. ex Wall. = *Zabelia triflora*

uniflora R. Br. ew-nee-*flaw*-ruh. Lat. one-flowered (the flowers are borne singly). China.

abelia, fragrant *Zabelia mosanensis*. **glossy** *Abelia* ×*grandiflora*

Abeliophyllum Nakai (Oleaceae). uh-bee-lee-oh-*fil*-um. Gk. with leaves like *Abelia*. 1 sp., deciduous shrub. Korea.

distichum Nakai. *dis*-tik-oom. White forsythia. Lat. arranged in two rows (the leaves).

Abelmoschus Medik. (Malvaceae). a-buhl-*mosk*-oos. Arabian, father or source of musk, from the scented seeds. 15 spp. herbs. Trop. Asia.

esculentus (L.) Moench. esk-ew-*lent*-oos. Lady's fingers, okra. Lat. edible (the fruit). Tropics.

manihot (L.) Medik. *man*-ee-hot. Sunset hibiscus. From the resemblance of the leaves to those of *Manihot,* from Brazilian Portuguese *mandioca*. SE Asia.

moschatus Medik. mos-*kah*-toos. Musk okra/mallow. Arabian, musk-scented (the seeds). S Asia.

Abies Mill. (Pinaceae). *a*-bee-ayz. Firs. From Lat. to rise, for their height. 48 spp. conifers. N hemisph.

alba Mill. *al*-buh. Silver fir. Lat. white (the bark). Eur.

amabilis Douglas ex J. Forbes. uh-*mah*-bi-lis. Pacific silver fir, red silver fir. Lat.

beautiful. W N Am.

balsamea (L.) Mill. ball-*sam*-ee-uh. Balsam fir, balm of Gilead fir. Lat. balsam-scented. N Am.

cephalonica Loudon. kef-uh-*lon*-ikuh. Greek fir. Lat. of Cephalonia. S Greece.

concolor (Gordon & Glend.) Lindl. ex Hildebr. *kon*-ko-lor. White fir. Lat. of similar colour (both leaf surfaces). W USA, Mex. (B.C.). var. ***lowiana*** (Gordon & Glend.) Lemmon. low-ee-*ah*-nuh. After Messrs Low, to whose Clapton nursery William Lobb sent seed from California in 1851.

delavayi Franch. del-uh-*vay*-ee. After French missionary Jean Marie Delavay (1834–1895), who collected the type specimen in Yunnan in 1884. SW China, N Myanmar.

forrestii Coltm.-Rog. fo-*rest*-ee-ee. After Scottish botanist George Forrest (1873–1932), who collected the type specimen in Yunnan in 1910. SW China.

fraseri (Pursh) Poir. *fray*-zuh-ree. Fraser fir. After Scottish botanist John Fraser (1750–1811), who discovered it and introduced it to cultivation ca. 1807. SE USA.

grandis (Dougl. ex D. Don) Lindl. *gran*-dis. Giant fir, grand fir. Lat. large. W N Am.

homolepis Sieb. & Zucc. ho-moh-*lep*-is. Nikko fir. Gk. with equal scales (on the cone). Japan.

koreana E. H. Wilson. ko-ree-*ah*-nuh. Korean fir. Of Korea. S Korea.

lasiocarpa (Hook.) Nutt. laz-ee-oh-*kar*-puh. Subalpine fir. Gk. with rough cones. W N Am. var. ***arizonica*** (Merriam) Lemmon. a-ri-*zon*-ikuh. Corkbark fir. Of Arizona. SW USA.

magnifica A. Murray. mag-*ni*-fi-kuh. California red fir. Lat. magnificent. W USA.

nordmanniana (Steven) Spach. nord-man-ee-*ah*-nuh. Nordmann fir. After its discoverer Alexander von Nordmann (1803–1866), Finnish zoologist. Caucasus, N Turkey.

numidica de Lannoy ex Carrière. new-*mid*-i-kuh. Algerian fir. Of Numidia (now Algeria). Algeria.

pinsapo Boiss. pin-*sah*-poh. Spanish fir. The Spanish name, from *pino* (pine) and *sapino* (fir). S Spain.

procera Rehder. *pro*-suh-ruh. Noble fir. Lat. tall. W USA.

veitchii Lindl. *veech*-ee-ee. Veitch fir. After John Gould Veitch (1839–1870), British plant collector and nurseryman who discovered it in 1860. Japan.

absinthe *Artemisia absinthium*

Abutilon Mill. (Malvaceae). uh-*bew*-ti-lon. From the Arabic name for one species or a similar plant. 150 spp., trees, shrubs, herbs. Tropics and subtropics.

×***hybridum*** hort. ex Voss. *hib*-ridoom. Lat. hybrid. *A. darwinii* × *A. pictum*. Cult.

megapotamicum (Spreng.) St. Hil. & Naud. meg-uh-po-*tam*-i-koom. Gk. large river (referring to the Rio Grande). Brazil.

pictum (Gillies ex Hook. & Arn.) Walp. *pik*-toom. Lat. painted (the flowers, with branched veins). Brazil.