

baydan, bayyasi, binaydan, gan
si urungan, lumak, mabanwa, n
irut; batati; g-bame, g-bami, g
fān-choû; shu, shu, shu, shu, shu
wulejo; pa, gitang, n, u
to, sweet p, n, g, s, t, u,
kudakūji, pēmbere, pēmbereji
rtoffel, Sü, e, g
, inasuway, a, u, : outā, i
uala; batata, lefufit, atata, le
qos liab; batat, éde, g, g, o, n, a
ngitit, bug, n, an, d, n, u, g, b
n liggod, lum, lung, uldimme,
ubi jalar, ubi, keledok, ketela r
tela rambat, bod, : e, n, a, p, a
akar; dâmlô, n, g, e, h, u, i, o, : t, o, k, u, n, g, a

**Cultivars
vegetables
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Cultivated vegetables of the world: a multilingual onomasticon

Dedicated to Sandra E. Kays

Cultivated vegetables of the world: a multilingual onomasticon

Stanley J. Kays

University of Georgia



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Introduction

With the human population in many areas of the world already above the carrying capacity of the land, food availability and advances in productivity are becoming increasingly critical. It is predicted that the world population will reach 9 billion people by 2050, which represents a dramatic increase in the number of people to feed, with increasingly scarce crop land, water, fertilizer, and fuel. Vegetables make up a major portion of the diet of humans, providing not only calories but essential vitamins, fiber, and minerals and will play an increasingly important role in food availability. Of the over 400 vegetable crops that are grown commercially, the genetic diversity in critical attributes is exceptional. The edible portion of vegetables is comprised of an array of morphological parts [e.g. leaves, stems, lateral buds, young plants, shoots, petioles, flowers, flower buds, fruit (immature to mature), seeds, seedlings, roots, tubers, corms, bulbs, rhizomes]. Vegetables vary widely in the length of time required from planting to harvest, postharvest longevity, and day length, temperature, water, fertility, and pesticide requirements. They provide a diverse range of tastes, aromas, textures, colors, and nutritional attributes, greatly increasing the variety in the foods we eat and satisfying a myriad of personal preferences. The length of time required to produce a crop (i.e. planting to harvest) varies from days to several years and the length of optimum harvest maturity from hours (gerkins – *Cucumis sativus* L.) to years (giant taro – *Alocasia macrorrhiza* (L.) Schott). The fact that short production cycle vegetables allow multiple cropping and a significant volume of the vegetables grown worldwide are produced on small plots, militates against accurate production statistics, preventing a clear understanding and appreciation of the value of these crops to the world food supply.

Vegetables are a critical component in the health of humans. While the nutritional importance of vegetables has long been recognized within the nutrition and medical communities, there is an increasing awareness among the general public of the health advantages of increased vegetable consumption. In many areas of the world, increased consumption of vegetables has been stimulated not only by a growing understanding of the health implications but an increasing variety of vegetables available.

The introduction of new crops via Columbian and Eurasian exchanges has had an immeasurable impact on world food availability and in turn on population growth and the history of mankind (Diamond, 2005; Gunn, 2003). The introduction of plants between the New and Old World since the latter part of the 13th century has been described as “one of the most important aspects of the history of life on this planet since the retreat of the continental glaciers” (Crosby, 1972). In the 16th and 17th centuries, ship captains and diplomats routinely collected and sent unique plants to their home countries. This was especially true for several European countries. Plant exploration subsequently became officially supported by various governments and combined with the efforts of private and commercial plant collectors and botanical gardens, many exotic new species were introduced around the world. Expeditions by Joseph Banks, Joseph Hooker, Nathaniel Ward, David Fairchild, Frank N. Meyer, N.I. Vavilov and others provided a wealth of new species. Initially the focus was on finding superior cultivars; however, the emphasis shifted in the mid-20th century toward collecting germplasm with the focus now on unique genes (Harlan, 1975).

The introduction of a new species, however, does not equate to adoption. In many instances, even with ornamentals, new introductions represented little more than curiosities, seldom gaining wide spread popularity. What then drives the adoption of new crops? Demand is the key factor and the ease and avenue for creating demand differ widely among types of crops. With many agronomic (sunflower – *Helianthus annuus* L.) and industrial (longleaf pine – *Pinus palustris* Miller) crops, government and business interests create the demand and contract production with growers, guaranteeing purchase. Vegetable crops, on-the-other-hand, generally involve much lower production volumes and with

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successful introduction, demand increases slowly until the positive attributes of the crop become common knowledge. Gourmet restaurants, looking for unique entrees, represent one recent means by which the demand for new vegetables has increased. More importantly, increased exposure to new crops and the substantially greater variety of vegetable crops available in many local markets is due to immigration and, to a lesser extent, international travel. Cuban, Thai, Indian, Filipino, Chinese, Vietnamese and Cambodian immigrants arriving in South Florida in the later half of the 20th century brought with them an existing demand for specific vegetables that were an essential component of everyday life in their countries of origin. Crops, such as bitter melon – *Momordica charantia* L., chayote – *Sechium edule* (Jacq.) Swartz., guar – *Cyamopsis tetragonoloba* (L.) Taubert, luffa – *Luffa aegyptiaca* P. Miller, pea eggplant – *Solanum torvum* Swartz, pointed gourd – *Trichosanthes dioica* Roxb., tindora – *Coccinia grandis* (L.) Voigt, and winged bean – *Psophocarpus tetragonolobus* (L.) DC., began being grown locally and offered in ethnic markets (Lamberts, 1992). Some subsequently spread to more traditional markets and wider use. Similar stories are found in hundreds of locations around the world where immigrants congregate.

With the rapidly growing world population, vegetables have a critical role to play. Vegetable research is increasingly focusing on elevating productivity (kg/ha/day) and broadening diversity, while reducing inputs of water, fertilizer, fuel and pesticides.

Purpose of the book

The purpose of this book is to facilitate accuracy in communication among individuals working in agriculture, commerce, regulation, and other fields dealing with vegetable crops; encourage consistency in terminology; and better understand the extent and diversity of vegetable production and utilization worldwide. The book represents an essential reference source for research scientists to gardeners, with the information presented in a concise and readily accessible format. It provides up-to-date scientific names, synonyms, and vernacular names for the commercially cultivated vegetable crops of economic importance worldwide (402 crops), in addition to information on the plant parts utilized and their method of preparation. Vernacular names from 370 languages are presented along with information on each of the languages.

Increasing global economic interdependence and trade in agricultural products makes precise communication among individuals utilizing different languages essential. There currently is a wide range of vegetables shipped around the world as seasonal, economic and other forces are shifting markets from exclusively local toward global. This is especially so for crops that cannot be grown in the importing country or have a limited season of availability due to climatic conditions. Vegetables that are more probable candidates for import/export markets typically have sufficient postharvest longevity, allowing them to reach retail markets within the importing country in excellent condition.

Increased international exchange of agricultural products, as well as travel, too frequently results in confusion concerning the identity of many crops. Likewise, when new crops are introduced to an area, the common name used by the group introducing the crop is often maintained. In some cases, different names are utilized in neighboring markets run by the same or other ethnic groups. When the large number of vegetable crops is combined with the extremely large number of languages worldwide, the number of common names is in the tens of thousands. As a consequence, starting with a common name in an unfamiliar language, it can be difficult, if not impossible, to determine the crop in question. The information in this text allows indentifying such crops and is therefore of use to university and governmental researchers, libraries worldwide, agricultural organizations, agricultural scientists, embassies, international travelers, vegetable growers, shippers, packers, produce buyers, grocery store managers, gourmet restaurants, chefs, and gardeners.

Linguistic value of common names

The study of the origin of cultivated plants and the forces driving their introduction into other areas of the world utilizes an interdisciplinary approach that may involve genetics, linguistics, history, anthropology, archaeology, ethnology, economics, geography, food science, horticulture, plant pathology, climatology, and disciplines studying human behavior. Linguistic evidence, in some cases, can be exceptionally helpful in identifying the timing and therefore sequence of crop domestication and/or introduction into a particular geographic location (Alpern, 2008). The origins of taro (Williamson, 1993) and maize (Blench *et al.*, 1994) in West Africa were inferred from the distribution of the vernacular names among local languages and historical data. The names for maize in southern Nigeria indicated a northern, trans-Saharan origin instead of introduction by the Portuguese. According to Diamond (2005), the names for crops in the Niger-Congo language family in southern Nigeria can be separated into three groups; (1) those in which the words for a particular crop are very similar in all of the languages due to the crop probably being first domesticated there; (2) those in which the names are consistent within only a small subgroup of southern Nigerian languages and probably represented crops of Indonesian origin; and (3) names that are inconsistent among the languages and are thought to represent New World introductions. For a number of crops that are more recent introductions around the world, the vernacular name across many languages is fairly consistent. When tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* var. *esculentum* P. Miller) is contrasted with onion (*Allium cepa* L. Cepa group), a crop in which wild species are relatively pandemic, there is a tremendous range in the names of the latter across languages. Comparing the names for tomato/onion across several languages illustrates the point: (AFAR) tamaàtim/bàsal; (AFRIKAANS) tamatie/ui; (ALBANIAN, TOSK) domate/qepë; (AMHARIC) tomatim/gäyy šənkurt; (ARABIC) tamatum/bassal; (ARMENIAN) tomat/soch; (BAFUT) tòmatò/ányěšà; (BAOULÉ) tomati/djaba; (BASQUE) tomate/kipula; (BEMBA) matimati/kanyense; (BEROM) tùmatùr/àlbàsà; (BÉTÉ) tomaté/djaba; (BRETON) tomatez/ognon; (BULGARIAN) domat/luk; (CAROLINIAN) tumóótis/subwuyas; (CATALAN-VALENCIAN-BALEAR) tomatera/ceba; (CEBUANO) kamatis/sibuyas; (CHEROKEE) tamahli/svgi; (DAGAARE, SOUTHERN) tomati/zanmē; (DANISH) tomat/kepa-løg; (DENDI) timáti/albasa; (DUTCH) tomaat/ui; (ENGLISH) tomato/onion; (ESTONIAN) tomat/sibul; (ÉWÉ) tomatos/sabala; (FINNISH) tomaatit/sipuli; (FRENCH) tomate/oignon; and (GIANGAN) kamatis/sibuyas.

Derivation of common names

The derivation of common names occasionally represents an intriguing story. For example, the name for *Helianthus tuberosus* L. in a cross-section of European countries is “topinambur” [or a close variation thereof (Kays and Nottingham, 2007)] the use of which began in France in the early 1600s. A French expedition to South America returned to Paris in 1613 with six members of a warlike tribe of the Guaranis race, known as the Topinambous, who were taken from the Isle de S. Luiz de Maranhão in Brazil (De Malherbe, F., 1862). These exotic looking natives created a great attraction that more or less coincided with the introduction and sale in Parisian markets of the equally exotic and somewhat uncouth looking tubers of *H. tuberosus*. Street hawkers adopted the term topinambou to draw attention to their new offering (Salaman, 1940).

Buck (1949) lists the synonyms for the modern English word “cabbage”, describing the apparent derivation of names in a cross-section of Indo-European languages. The word appears to have evolved from the Greek *κavλός* (stalk) and subsequently *caulis* (stalk) in Latin. The subsequent similarity in names is quite striking: *cavolo* (Italian), *col* (French), *col* (Spanish), *cāl* (Old Irish), *cabāiste* (New Irish), *cawl* (Welsh), *kaolenn* (Breton), *kāl* (Old Norse), *kaal* (Danish), *kål* (Swedish), *cawel* (Old English), *cole*, *caboche* (Middle English), *cabbage* (New English), *kool* (Dutch), *cōl* (Old High German), *kōl* (Middle High German), and *kohl*, *kraut* (New High German). English words

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sauerkraut and coleslaw evolved from several of these words. In Eastern Europe, the names for cabbage appear to have been derived from ‘caput’ (head) to give the following: kopustas (Lithuanian), k aposts (Lettish), kupus (Serbo-Croatian), kapusta (Czech), kapusta (Polish), and kapusta (Russian). For many vegetables, however, there is relatively little information on the derivation of their names.

The first usage of a word for cabbage in the English language was in 1440 (Royal Society, 1790) “Take cabaches and cut hom on foure..and let hit boyle.” In 1495 Caxton (Jerome, *et al.*, 1495) wrote “He laboured the gardins, sewe the seedes for cabochis, and colewortes” and subsequently in 1580 Baret wrote “Cabage, or colewoort, *brassica*. Cabage, or cole cabege, *brassica capitata*.” The word cabbage appears to have evolved from colewort (Simpson and Weiner, 1989).

Using the text

The publication contains of the following information:

- Common Names of Individual Crops
 - a. Listed by division, family, genus and species (Chapter 1).
 - b. Listed alphabetically (Chapter 2) with each of the common names given a numerical designation for the family and species, followed by the language.
- Scientific Names and Synonyms
 - Chapter 3 lists the correct scientific name (in bold with the family and species numerically keyed back to the taxonomic list) along with synonyms that are followed by the correct genus and species.
- Crops listed by Plant Part Consumed (Chapter 4)
- Crops Listed by Method of Preparation (Chapter 5)
- Languages
 - a. Language critiques – A short synopsis is given for each language listed (Chapter 6) that includes language synonyms, number of speakers, geographical location where spoken, language family classification, and dialects.
 - b. Language synonyms – Since many languages have more than one name, alternative names are also listed and keyed back to the appropriate name (Chapter 7).
 - c. Dialects – A number of languages are known by their dialect name. Chapter 8 keys the dialects to the language name utilized in the text.
- References
- Appendices
 1. Diacritics.
 2. Unique letters/symbols and alphabetization.

Starting with a common name and not knowing the language or scientific name of the plant, it is difficult to determine the species, and hence alternative names in the same or other languages using a taxonomic list alone. The information presented in this book evolved from a journal publication (Kays and Silva Dias, 1995) covering 15 languages. The current list greatly expands the amount of information presented and has transformed it into a much more readily accessible format.

To find a crop starting with the scientific name (e.g. *Aalius androgynus* Kuntze), look the binomial up initially in Chapter 3 to ascertain if it is correct or a synonym. In this case, *Aalius androgynus* Kuntze is a synonym for *Sauropus androgynus* (L.) Merrill that is followed by a numerical code (39.5) that keys back to Chapter 1. The number 39.5 indicates family 39 (Euphorbiaceae) and crop number 5 under that family. Starting with Division Sphendophyta, the families are listed in numerical order.

To find the scientific name of a crop starting with a common name, look up the common name which is arranged alphabetically in Chapter 2. For example, “kangkong” is followed by a numerical code (36.2). In Chapter 1, 36.2 corresponds to the family 36 (Convolvulaceae) and crop 2 (*Ipomoea aquatica* Forssk.). Looking over the names for the crop in different languages, “kangkong” is found to be a vernacular name for the crop in Tagalog, Malay, Ilocano, Pangasinan, Tok Pisin, Dutch and others.

To find all of the crops that are grown for a specific edible part (e.g. tubers), use Chapter 4. Under the heading of “Tuber” the individual crops are listed by their English (Chapter 4a) and scientific names (Chapter 4b). The edible part (EP) is also indicated in Chapter 1, to the right of the scientific name. When an additional part (or parts) of the plant has a secondary use, it is designated with a superscript “s” (e.g. root^s).

The methods of preparation (P) have been separated in Chapter 5 into the following classes (R - raw, C - cooked, P - preserved). Preservation includes pickled, salted, jellied, or preserved by other methods, excluding canning and freezing. When more than one method of preparation is employed, they are presented in the general sequence of frequency of use. As with the edible plant parts (Chapter 4), the plants categorized under each method(s) of preparation are listed by their English (Chapter 5a) and scientific names (Chapter 5b).

Crops

“Vegetable crop” is a somewhat nebulous term that usually denotes a plant cultivated for an edible part or parts and generally excludes sweet fruits and dried seeds. Vegetable is not a scientific term but rather one that is based largely on culinary and cultural traditions. Vegetables can be consumed raw, cooked, or preserved in some manner and prepared in innumerable of ways, though generally not as desserts. However, exceptions are common; for example, rhubarb (*Rheum rhabarbarum* L.), considered a vegetable, is almost invariably served as a dessert. Likewise, certain members of the Cucurbitaceae, such as watermelon (*Citrullus lanatus* (Thunb.) Natsum & Nakai) and cantaloupe (*Cucumis melo* L. Cantaloupensis group), are technically sweet fruits; however, their culture is essentially the same as a number of other members of the Cucurbitaceae that are vegetables and as a consequence, are commonly grouped together as vegetables. Therefore, what is considered a vegetable varies somewhat among the diverse range of individuals (e.g. scientists, government officials, gardeners, chefs) dealing with this food group.

In the text, vegetables are crops that are: (1) herbaceous or largely herbaceous plants or plant parts; (2) consumed by humans; (3) eaten raw, cooked, or preserved; and (4) typically eaten as part of the main course or appetizer, rather than as a dessert (Chittenden, 1951; Fritz *et al.*, 1989; Gove, 1971; Huxley, 1992; Parker, 1989; Seymour, 1990; Soule, 1985). The list of vegetables was further restricted by excluding: (1) non-cultivated species; (2) lower organisms (e.g. fungi); (3) most trees and woody shrubs; and (4) plants grown in or gathered from salt water (e.g. sea weeds). The list has several exceptions that were included: (1) banana inflorescence (*Musa paradisiaca* L. var. *paradisiaca*) and plantain fruit (*M. paradisiaca* L. var. *paradisiaca*) that are from herbaceous trees; (2) several species that are traditionally utilized as condiments but are consumed in sufficient quantities in salads in some areas of the world (e.g. basil or mint); (3) several species that could be considered woody shrubs but are cultivated as leafy vegetables, such as *Cnidoscolus aconitifolius* (Miller) Johnston and *C. chayamansa* McVaughn or as a root crop, *Manihot esculenta* Crantz.; and (4) a few that are sufficiently sweet as to be considered a dessert fruit.

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The list of crops was compiled with the help of horticultural and botanical authorities from over 40 countries, representing diverse climatic and ethnic regions.

Scientific names

Modern plant taxonomy began with publication of *Species Plantarum* by Linnaeus (Von Linné, 1753). While there was some initial resistance to acceptance of the binomial system established by Linnaeus (e.g. "... attempts to reduce the names of plants to a system, has rendered the study more difficult and more subject to error, than it would have been if the Student had only used his fight for the distinguishing of plants, and his memory for registering them." Brookes, 1763), it fairly rapidly became the universal standard.

Plant taxonomy is based on a hierarchy of categories to which taxa (plants) are assigned. The hierarchy, established by the International Code of Botanical Nomenclature (McNeil *et al.*, 2005), includes the order, family, genus, and species with each progressive category being more specific. Families are groups of plants that have distinctive reproductive and vegetative features and are subdivided into genera and species. Genera represent a category in which the included species have more characteristics in common than species of other genera and therefore represent an aggregation of closely related species. Individual species are characterized by distinct morphological differences from other closely related species and can be further subdivided into subspecies, variety and form. These latter categories are used to characterize variation within a population of plants of the same species.

A scientific name is not complete without indicating the author or authors who first described the taxon. These names are critical for accuracy and assigning priority. Authors who have named a number of taxa often have their names abbreviated. For example, Linnaeus is shortened to L. and A.P. de Candolle to DC. (see Brummitt and Powell, 1992 for a list of these abbreviations).

There are several variations in how the author is cited after the binomial that concur with established rules. For example in the binomial *Centella asiatica* (L.) Urban, the original author (Linnaeus) is listed in parenthesis when a later author (Urban) transferred the original species to another genus or rank. When the author designation has an "ex" connecting two authors (e.g. *Allium tuberosum* Rottler, ex Sprengel), the first author (Rottler) initially proposed the name but did not validly publish it; the second author (Sprengel) validated the name while citing the first author.

Synonyms

In the early days of plant classification, due in part to difficulties in communication, it was not uncommon for a specific taxon to be assigned a Latin binomial by more than one individual. A synonym is created when a taxon is given different scientific names by separate authors. Synonyms can greatly complicate the identification and communication of a species of interest. According to the International Code of Botanical Nomenclature (McNeill *et al.*, 2005), the first author naming the taxon has priority. Subsequent names are deemed synonyms and their use is incorrect. Synonyms are always referred to as a synonym of a particular taxon (e.g. *Acmella caulorrhiza* Delile is a synonym of *Acmella oleracea* (L.) R.K. Jansen). In the text, finding the correct vegetable crop in the botanical list (Chapter 1) is difficult, if not impossible, when starting with the incorrect scientific name. Therefore, synonyms for the crops are listed in Chapter 3, with the correct binomial indicated in bold, followed by a number that indicates the family and the specific crop within the family in Chapter 1 (e.g. 24.1. indicates the 24th family and the 1st crop).

Changes in scientific names

Changes in nomenclature occur due to the fact that the classification of a taxon is not absolutely fixed. While there are specific rules with regard to assigning binomials, there remains considerable debate on the phylogenetic level. Some taxonomists are more inclined to separate groups of similar plants into discrete species while others are more inclined to lump them together into one or a small number of species. The advent of molecular genetics and the emerging use of molecular evidence and cladistic analysis have further stimulated proposals for changes in existing classifications. For example, molecular evidence supports the tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* var. *esculentum* P. Miller) belonging in the *Solanum* genus (e.g. *Solanum lycopersicon* Blanco). As a consequence, there is a continuing debate between developing a more phylogenetically meaningful classification and that of preserving nomenclature that has been used, in some cases, for a century or more.

Another taxonomic problem is that a number of cultivated species have undergone considerable genetic manipulation by plant breeders. In certain instances, there are new forms of plants produced that represent hybrids between two species. These are generally denoted, as in the edible chrysanthemum, with the binomial for each species separated by an × sign (e.g. *Chrysanthemum coronarium* L. × *Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat.). Plant breeders continue to produce a diverse selection of cultivated plants that are termed “cultivars”, generally abbreviated as “cv”. A cultivar is a cultivated variety of a species that had been selected for specific desirable characteristics (e.g. fruit size, shape, color, flavor, postharvest longevity) that are genetically fixed with the offspring retaining the plant’s unique characteristics from one generation to the next.¹ Cultivars are reproduced under carefully controlled conditions, especially when they are a cross-pollinated species, and many are now routinely patented to prevent unwarranted sale by competitors.

Although the practice is declining, the term “variety” continues to be widely and incorrectly applied to cultivars. Variety is a taxonomic category and not an agricultural term. Cultivar names are not in Latin, begin with a capital letter and can be listed after the scientific name (e.g. *Zea mays* L. ssp. *mays* cv. Silver Queen).

In the taxonomic treatment herein, several closely related species in which the edible parts are very similar are grouped under the genus name (e.g. *Dendrocalamus*, *Amaranthus*) and the common names are listed collectively. When distinct names for particular species are available, they are indicated using a numerical superscript at the end of the common name indicating the species [e.g. *Dendrocalamus* spp. (e.g. *D. asper*¹, *D. brandisii*², *D. giganteus*³, *D. hamiltonii*⁴, *D. latiflorus*⁵, *D. membranaceus*⁶, *D. strictus*⁷) or *Amaranthus* spp. (*A. albus*¹, *A. caudatus*², *A. cruentus*³, *A. dubius*⁴, *A. hybridus*⁵, *A. lividus*⁶, *A. mangostanus*⁷, *A. spinosus*⁸, *A. sylvestris*⁹, *A. tricolor*¹⁰, *A. viridis*¹¹)]. Therefore “sraha nsoe⁸” is an Akan name for *Amaranthus spinosus* L.

With some species, breeders have created such diversity in morphology that they are segregated using group categories (e.g. *Allium cepa* L. Cepa group, *Allium cepa* L. Aggregatum group). While several authors have separated crops within the Brassicaceae into groups (e.g. *Brassica oleracea* Botrytis group vs. *B. oleracea* L. var. *botrytis* L.), the older, more widely adopted botanical variety designation has been utilized in the text. In *B. oleracea*, this treatment was followed, taking into consideration the morphological diversity and cultural traditions associated with the kales and other compacted rosette coles like tronchuda cabbages (*Brassica oleracea* L. var. *costata* DC.).

¹ With the exception of hybrids.

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The taxonomy within some of the Cucurbitaceae is also a problem, with distinctions among some crop types occasionally being nebulous at best. For example, pumpkins can be found in both *Cucurbita maxima* Duch. and *C. moschata* Duch. ex Poir. Therefore common names, especially more generic ones, may be assigned to multiple species. In the Cucurbitaceae, classification is further complicated by hybridization among some species.

Taxonomic sources

Taxonomic divisions follow Raven, Evert, and Eichhorn (1992) in the text, with classification terminology within parentheses following Cronquist (1988). Alternate family names, that have the correct ending (*-aceae*), have been sanctioned by the Code [e.g. Apiaceae (Umbelliferae), Asteraceae (Compositae), Brassicaceae (Cruciferae), Fabaceae (Leguminosae), Lamiaceae (Labiatae)] and adopted by many taxonomists. The newer version has been used in Chapter 1. Genus and species names, where applicable, largely follow the USDA-ARS Germplasm Resources Information Network (GRIN) of the National Plant Germplasm System (NPGS) treatment <<http://www.ars-grin.gov/cgi-bin/npgs/html/taxecon.pl>>. In several instances where large numbers of species have been used similarly (e.g. amaranths, lily), the group is condensed under the genus, with a representative list of the species grown, though not as individual crops. Where distinct differences are evident among subspecies, the nomenclature used in the primary country of utilization is adopted. For example with *Brassica juncea* (L.) Czern., a vegetable that originated in China and has undergone extensive morphological manipulation in breeding programs there, the classification system presented by Yang *et al.*, 1988 is adopted.

Common names

Sources

A publication of this nature would be impossible without the help of a number of horticultural and botanical authorities from around the world (see Acknowledgements). Vernacular names have also been gleaned from an extremely wide range of published sources.

Alphabetization

In a number of instances (e.g. some of the African languages), the 26 Latin characters used as the basis for the English language are not adequate for creating all of the sounds required. As a consequence, it has been essential to include several AfroRoman characters as well as certain other unique characters from other languages. Where multiple languages are used, even when using the same alphabet, the appropriate alphabetical order is not always clear. For example, in French é and ô are simply accented letters while á, í, and ö in Icelandic are distinct letters. The common names listed herein (e.g. Chapter 2) are alphabetized in the following order: a/á, æ/ae, b/þ, c/ç, d/dʹ/d̄, e/é/ĕ/ě, f, f, g, h/h̄, i/í, j, k/k̄, l, m, n/n̄/ñ, o, p, q, r, s, ß, t, u, v, w, x, y/ȳ, z, ð, ñ. A / between letters indicates that they are handled as equivalents with regard to alphabetization. Diacritics (see Appendix I) are ignored during alphabetization. For a more detailed explanation of non-Latin characters see the Appendix II.

The crop names are derived from a number of alphabets (e.g. Hebrew, Greek, Cyrillic, Armenian, Arabic) and logograms (e.g. Chinese, Korean, Japanese). Presenting the names in a uniform text necessitates transcription or transliteration of unique characters into the Latin alphabet (Romanization) or in some instances, AfroRoman characters. Conversion can vary among individuals, resulting in slight differences in spelling for a specific word. Alphabet and logogram alterations come from the

source of the names and are accepted as received. When variation in spelling is present between two sources, both versions are included.

Most appropriate name

When possible, the most widely used common name has been listed first for each language, followed by less frequently used names. However, the source for some languages did not indicate the preferred name; as a consequence, in a number of instances, accurately prioritizing the names is not possible. In others several names are comparable in the frequency of use. The priority for the names may also differ among countries using the same language. For example, Crioulo is a Portuguese Creole language that is spoken in Cape Verde as well as certain countries in West Africa (e.g. Guinea-Bissau, Senegal). Many Crioulo names differ markedly with location. The situation is made even more complex when the most appropriate common name varies with location within a country as in the case of a number of Spanish names for vegetables in Mexico. In some instances, due to the complexity of distinguishing the most appropriate name for individual locations, the common names are simply listed. As a consequence, the first name listed may not necessarily be the most frequently used.

When foreign names are used locally (“loan words”), they have been included [e.g. “aubergine” for *Solanum melongena* L. in England versus “eggplant” in the United States]. The occurrence of loan words is fairly common, especially with more recent introductions. For example oca, a Quechua word from the Cusco region of the Andes for *Oxalis tuberosa* Molina, has been adopted by several languages [oka (Czech), oka (Danish), oca (English), oca (Portuguese), oca (Spanish), oka (Vlaams)] even though the crop is not grown or consumed in most locations where the languages are spoken. The absence of a name for a crop in the language, the willingness to adopt loan words, and the relative ease of pronunciation by speakers of the language adopting the name are factors affecting adoption.

Many of the crops listed lack names in one or more languages. Likewise, the presence of a name in a language does not necessarily indicate that the crop is grown in the country where the language is spoken.

Number of names

The list does not include all possible common names for a crop within a language and the level of thoroughness varies somewhat among languages. Hung *et al.* (1992), for example, lists 34 common names for tomato in Chinese. While the Chinese characters for a vegetable name are uniform across dialects, the pronunciation of the name can vary widely depending upon the dialect. Therefore, the preferred common name can vary with dialect, as well as with location. Including every name for each language was simply not feasible due to the number of vegetable crops. What has been included, in the case of 8 Chinese dialects covered, is the name designated by Hung *et al.* (1992) as the most widely used. While this name may not be the most appropriate across all of the dialects and/or locations in which Chinese is spoken, a more detailed treatment was not within the scope of the current work.

Lack of a common name

There is an extremely wide range in the number of common names listed across languages. Inuktitut and Aleut, for example, are used in the very northern latitudes where the growing season and/or temperature tremendously limit the vegetable species that can be successfully cultivated. As a consequence, there are very few Eskimo names for vegetables. In contrast, speakers of certain other languages very readily coin names for new crops, even those that are not grown or, in some cases,

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even known where the language is spoken. In some instances, the new name simply represents the name used in the country of the plant's origin. This is often the case when the language in question is on the wane and the names for new crops are generally derived from the replacement language (e.g. English names for vegetables being used by many speakers of Native American Indian languages).

The existence of a name in a particular language does not necessarily mean a vegetable is cultivated in the area where the language is spoken. Conversely, the absence of a name does not necessarily mean that the crop is not cultivated. As indicated earlier, the existing collection of vernacular names is a “work in progress” and there are numerous additional names and languages that would be advantageous to eventually include.

Generic terms

Generic names, names that refer to a general kind or group of plants or plant products, are widely used in cultivated crops. Unfortunately in some instances, generic names can create a problem due to their lack of specificity. Bean or beans, for example, can be correctly applied to the edible fruit or seeds of a number of legumes that are used as vegetables. So when one refers to a bean, is it a green, lima, sword, jack or other type of bean? Likewise, corn (maize) can be equally applied to sweet corn, field corn, popcorn and other forms. The term corn is also used for wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) and oats (*Avena sativa* L.) in Europe and occasionally for certain other cereals. Generic names/terms are commonly used in a number of languages. In some cases, they indicate all forms that are not distinguished using more specific names. A similar situation occurs for the name used for both banana and plantain in some languages, where the two plant types are not distinguished. Likewise, the generic term “mint” includes *Mentha spicata* L., *Mentha pulegium* L. and a number of wild mint species. Spinach is the English name for *Spinacia oleracea* L.; however, spinach is also used for other leafy greens such as *Amaranthus* spp. in Africa and *Basella alba* L. in parts of Asia. In such cases, it is important to be cognizant of the setting in which the name is used. The potential for confusion when using generic names is a primary reason to know and, when appropriate, use the scientific name for a crop in question.

Dried crops

Vegetables are routinely thought of as relatively succulent, fresh products; however, in some instances, they are dried (e.g. beans, corn, peas, radish leaves) or altered in some manner before using, often to increase the postharvest longevity of the product. A number of the legumes are consumed as both fresh and dried products (e.g. cowpeas, *Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp. ssp. *unguiculata*). Dried seed is the prevalent form in which cowpeas are utilized worldwide, though in the United States the seeds are generally harvested and used prior to significant drying in the field or after harvest.

Languages

While there are over 6800 languages worldwide (Gordon, 2005), 96% percent of the people of the world speak only 4% of the languages. In contrast, 25% of the languages are spoken by fewer than 1000 people. It is currently estimated that a language becomes extinct every two weeks. Sabah and Sarawak in Malaysia are now extinct and there are similar losses elsewhere. In the United States, the number of monolingual speakers for many Native American languages has declined markedly [e.g. Kiowa Apache (18), Caddo (25), Kickapoo (6)] with the remaining speakers generally limited to older adults (Gordon, 2005). The death of languages results in a loss in language diversity, ethnic identity, a repository of history, a part of human knowledge, and simply interesting subjects in their own right (Crystal, 2000). While a few previously undiscovered languages are identified each year,

they do not numerically compensate for those lost and are often also in a precarious position with regard to their own future.

Language families

A language family is a group of related languages that have evolved from a common ancestor (i.e. a proto-language). The objective herein was to include as many language families in the text as possible, and while the number of families less than desired, the text does provide the most detailed cross-section of families to date. Languages families and the number of languages within each are: Afro-Asiatic (14), Algic (4), Altaic (9), Austro-Asiatic (5), Austronesian (61), Dravidian (6), Eskimo-Aleut (3), Hmong-Mien (2), Indo-European (69), Indo-Iranian (1), Iroquoian (2), Kartvelian (1), Khoisan (2), Kiowa Tanoan (1), Misumalpan (1), Muskogean (2), Na-Dene (2), Northeast Caucasian (1), Niger-Congo (128), Nilo-Saharan (6), Quechuan (1), Sino-Tibetan (18), Siouan (2), Tai-Kadai (4), Uralic (3), Uto-Aztecan (3), language isolates (4), Creole (8), mixed (1), unclassified (6).

Individual languages

In Chapter 6, a very brief critique of each of the languages is presented that includes the family and further sub-categorization, synonyms, number of speakers, and locations where spoken. Individual languages in the text are: Abua, Adamawa Fulfulde, Afar, Afrikaans, Agta, Aja, Akan, Akan-Akuapem, Akan-Asante, Akan-Fante, Akha, Aklanon, Akpa, Akwa, Aleut, Amharic, Ando, Anuak, Anyin, Arabic, Armenian, Assamese, Baatonum, Badaga, Bafia, Bafut, Baga, Balanta-Kentohe, Balti, Balkan Romani, Bamanankan, Bamileke, Baoulé, Basque, Bassari, Belarusan, Bemba, Bembé, Bengali, Berom, Bété, Bete-Bendi, Binukid, Blackfoot, Bodo, Bokyi, Bontoc Central, Bosnian, Botolan Sambal, Breton, Budik, Bughotu, Buhid, Bulgarian, Bullom So, Bulu, Burmese, Butbut Kalinga, Butuanon, Cajun French, Cape Verde Crioulo, Car Nicobarese, Carolinian, Casiguran Dumagat Agta, Catalan-Valencian-Balear, Cebaara Senoufo, Cebuano, Central Bicolano, Central Khmer, Central Palawano, Central Sama, Chechen, Cherokee, Chickasaw, Chuwabu, Comanche, Croatian, Cusco Quechua, Czech, Dagbani, Dakota, Dangme, Dangme-Krobo, Danish, Dendi, Digo, Ditammari, Doondo, Dutch, Eastern Canadian Inuktitut, Eastern Farsi, Eastern Maninkakan, Eastern Panjabi, Ede Nago, Edo, Efik, English, Estonian, Éwé, Ewondo, Fijian, Filipino, Finnish, Fon, French, Fulfulde, Ga, Gaddang, Galician, Gà, Ganda, Gbaya, Gbe-Vhe, Gen, Georgian, German, Gangan, Gikuyu, Gola, Gonja, Gourmanchéma, Gourmantché, Greek, Gujarati, Gun, Guro, Haitian French Creole, Hakka, Hanunoo, Harari, Harsüsi, Hausa, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Herero, Hiligaynon, Hindi, Hindustani, Hmong, Daw, Hmong-Njua, Hopi, Hungarian, Ibaloi, Ibanag, Icelandic, Iceve-Maci, Ifugao, Igbo, Ilocano, Indonesian, Irish Gaelic, Isnag, Italian, Itawit, Ivatan, Izon, Japanese, Javanese, Jicarilla Apache, Jola-Fonyi, Jula, Junkun Takum, Kabiyé, Kalagan, Kankanaey, Kannada, Kanuri, Karen, Kashmiri, Kati, Kazakh, Kiowa, Kirghiz, Kiribati, Konkani, Konkomba, Kono, Koongo, Korean, Koro, Krio, Kung-Ekoka, Kuranko, Kwangali, Kwanyama, Kwéyòl, Ladino, Lahu, Lakota, Lao, Latvian, Limba, Lisu, Lithuanian, Loko, Lower Sorbian, Luo, Luxembourggeois, Luyia, Macedonian, Madura, Maguindanao, Maithili, Makhwa, Malagasy, Malawi Lomwe, Malay, Malayalam, Malimba, Maltese, Mandarin, Manding-Bambara, Manding-Mandinka, Manding-Maninka, Mandinka, Mandjak, Maninka, Mankanya, Manobo, Manu'a Samoan, Manx Gaelic, Maori, Maranao, Marathi, Marinduque, Marquesan, Marwari, Mehri, Mende, Micmac, Min Bei, Min Nan, Minangkabau, Mizo, Mohawk, Mongolian, Mòoré, Morisyen, Mundari, Muskogee, Nama-Damara, Navajo, Ndali, Ndonga, Nepali, Newar, Ngizim, Ngundi, Niue, Northern Azerbaijani, Northern Kissi, Northern Kurdish, Northern Pashto, Northern Sotho, Northern Thai, Norwegian, Nupe-Nupe-Tako, Nyakyusa-Ngonde, Nyanja, Ogbia, Ogbia-Agholo, Oriya, Pali, Pampangan, Pamplona Atta, Pangasinan, Plains Cree, Polish, Portuguese, Potawatomi, Pulaar, Pular, Pumé, Rarotongan, Romanian, Ronga, Russian, Samoan, Sanga, Sanskrit, Santali, Sarangani Blian, Scots, Scottish

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Gaelic, Sena, Serbo-Croatian, Serer-Sine, Shan, Shona, Sidamo, Sinhala, Slovak, Slovenian, Somali, Songhay, Southern Bobo Madaré, Southern Dagaare, Southern Kisi, Southern Paiute, Southern Sotho, Spanish, Sranan, Stellingwerfs, Subanon, Sumo-Mayangna, Sunda, Susu, Swahili, Swedish, Tagalog, Tagbanwa, Tajiki, Tamil, Tatar, Tausug, Teke, Telugu, Tem, Thai, Themne, Tibetan, Tigrigna, Tinà Sambal, Tiruray, Tiv, Tok Pisin, Tonga, Tongan, Tosk Albanian, Tsonga, Tswana, Tulu, Tumbuka, Tupuri, Turkish, Turkmen, Twi, Ukrainian, Upper Guinea Crioulo, Upper Sorbian, Urdu, Uyghur, Uzbek, Vai, Venda, Vietnamese, Vlaams, Waama, Waci Gbe, Wamey, Wáray-Wáray, Welsh, West Central Oromo, West Greenlandic Inuktitut, Western Farsi, Western Maninkakan, Wolof, Wú, Xhosa, Xiang, Yala, Yalunka, Yao, Yiddish, Yom, Yoruba, Yue, Zarma, Zulu, Zuni.

The language names used correspond to the preferred names identified in *Ethnologue Languages of the World* (Gordon, 2005). If a language of interest is not found listed above, consult Chapter 8 that lists synonyms.

Language critiques

A short critique of each of the languages is provided in Chapter 6. It includes synonyms for the language, number of speakers, geographical locations where the language is spoken, language family classification and dialects. Each language has a three letter ISO/DIS 639-3 identity code, established by the International Organization for Standardization. The three letter identifier provides a condensed means of enumerating living, extinct, ancient and other languages and has many uses, in particular in computer systems. In instances within the text where the identity of a language is not definitive, a temporary code in italics has been assigned.

Language synonyms

Many languages have a number of synonyms for individual vegetables. For example, Gourma, Gourmantche, Gurma, Mígulimancema, Goulmacema, Gulmancema, Gulimancema, Gourmantché are synonyms for Gourmanchéma. In some instances, a synonym or synonyms are currently or were previously widely used. When reviewing earlier literature synonyms are routinely encountered. See Chapter 7 for an alphabetical list of language names and synonyms with the latter keyed to the name utilized in Chapter 1 and 2 of this text.

Dialects

In some instances, certain languages are identified by their dialect name. Chapter 8 lists the dialects of the languages covered in the text and keys back to the correct language name.

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Chapter 1. Common names of the cultivated vegetable crops of the world, listed by division, family, genus and species

Division Sphendophyta¹

1. Equisetaceae

1.1. *Equisetum arvense* L.

(EP)² young strobili; (P)³ C,P.

(AFRIKAANS) perdestertvaring; (ARABIC) el-konbath, zail el-hosam; (BELARUSAN) hvost poljave; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) wen jing; (CHINESE, WÚ) wen jing; (CZECH) přeslička rolní; (DANISH) ager-padderokk; (DUTCH) heermoes; (ENGLISH) horsetail, field horsetail; (ESTONIAN) osi; (FINNISH) peltokorte; (FRENCH) prêle des champs; (GERMAN) Zinnkraut, Acker-Schachtelhalm; (GREEK) lippoyris, dolycombi; (HEBREW) shvatvat, shvatvat ha-sadê; (HUNGARIAN) mezei zsurló; (ICELANDIC) kloelfting; (ITALIAN) coda cavallina; (JAPANESE) sugina, tsukushi; (KALAGAN) mangobyon; (KAZAKH) hvosch; (LATVIAN) tūruma kosa; (LITHUANIAN) dirvinis asiūklis; (MACEDONIAN) polska pršlika; (MALTESE) denb iz-ziemel; (MONGOLIAN) khuduugiin shivlee; (NEPALI) aankhle jhar, kurkure jhar; (NORWEGIAN) åkersnelle; (POLISH) skrzyp polny; (PORTUGUESE) cavalinha, cavalinha dos campos, pinheira, cauda de cavalo; (SERBO-CROATIAN) preslica, poljska; (SPANISH) cola de caballo, equiseto menor; (STELLINGWERFS) lidruske, peerdestat, peerds, peers, robol, lidrus; (SWEDISH) fråken; (TAJIKI) chilbughum; (TURKISH) tarla atkuyruğu, at kuyruğu, çam otu, çiğçiğ, ekleme; (TURKMEN) mejdan nwoşy; (URDU) mathi arwin; (VLAAMS) heermoes, akkerpaardestaart; (WELSH) marchrawn-yr-ardir.

Division Pterophyta

2. Dennstaedtiaceae

2.1. *Pteridium aquilinum* (L.) Kuhn

(EP) immature fronds; (P) C.

(AFRIKAANS) adelaarsvaring; (ARABIC) sarkhas; (ASSAMESE) dhekia; (BELARUSAN) arljak zvanchine, paparats; (BLAAN, SARANGANI) saphong; (BONTOC, CENTRAL) anamam, anamam; (CEBUANO) agsam; (CHINESE, GÀN) jue; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) huo jue cai; (CHINESE, MIN BEI) jue cai; (CHINESE, WÚ) jue; (CHINESE, YUE) jue cai; (CRIOULO, CAPE VERDE) fetó; (CZECH) hasivka orličí; (DANISH) ornebregne; (DIGO) mvwiko; (DUTCH) adelaarsvaren; (ENGLISH) bracken, bracken fern, pasture brake, eagle fern; (ESTONIAN) kilpjakg; (FINNISH) sananjalka; (FRENCH) ptéride à l'aigle, ptéris aigle, fougere aigle; (GAELIC, IRISH) raitheach; (GBAYA) ndélé; (GERMAN) Adlerfarn; (GREEK) fteri; (HANUNOO) sunkuk buladlad, tuyapak; (HEBREW) evronit ha-nesher; (HUNGARIAN) sasharaszt; (IBALOI) alam-am; (ICELANDIC) arnarburkni; (IFUGAO) apatapat an tawayan, tayawan; (ITALIAN) felce aquilina; (JAPANESE) warabi; (JAVANESE) pakis gemblung; (KALAGAN) tollobang, tollobong; (KANKANAHEY) annapat; (KISSI, NORTHERN) kumtō; (KONO) kumbi, kumbili; (KOONGO) kougou; (LAHU) da_v ka; (LATVIAN) parastā ērgļaparde, jāņa paparde; (LITHUANIAN) stambialapis šakya; (MACEDONIAN) obična orlova paprat; (MALAY) pakis gila; (MALTESE) felci; (MAORI)

¹ Taxonomic divisions follow Raven *et al.*, 1992.

² EP = Edible part of the plant.

³ P = Method of preparation: C-cooked, R-raw, P-processed (e.g. pickled, salted).

Chapter 1

raarahu, rahurahu, maakaka, manehu, rarauhe, taakaka; (MENDE) gbühö; (MONGOLIAN) egel bavran; (NEPALI) unyu; (NORWEGIAN) einstape; (PANJABI, EASTERN) kakhash, deo, kakei, lungar; (POLISH) orlica pospolita, paproć; (PORTUGUESE) fetó ordinário, fetó fêmea, samambaia do campo; (QUECHUA, CUSCO) chakcchaca; (ROMANIAN) ferigă mare, paproi; (RUSSIAN) arljak ohyknovennyi, paparatnik; (SERBO-CROATIAN) bujad, obična; (SPANISH) helecho comun; (SUNDA) andam dangdeur, paku geulis; (TAJIKI) pharn; (TAMIL) parnai; (THAI) kut kia, kut kin, chon yai; (TURKISH) kartal eğreltisi, eğrelti, kizilot, papra, ifteri otu; (VIETNAMESE) guy[ees]t; (VLAAMS) adelaarsvaren; (WELSH) cyffrhedyn.

3. Osmundaceae

3.1. *Osmunda cinnamomea* L.

(EP) immature fronds; (P) C.

(ARABIC) el-khenshar alkarfy; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) fen zhu zi qi; (CHINESE, WÚ) fen zhu zi qi; (CZECH) podezřeň; (ENGLISH) cinnamon fern; (FARSI, WESTERN) darchin; (FRENCH) osmonde cannelle; (GERMAN) Zimtrispfenfarn; (GREEK) osmounda to kinnamomios; (HEBREW) sarach hakinamon; (HMONG DAW) kaus suab; (JAPANESE) yamadori zenmai; (LATVIAN) papardes; (MALTESE) bastun talkanella; (NEPALI) rani unyu; (POLISH) paproć cynamonowa; (PORTUGUESE) fetó cinanono, osmunda; (SPANISH) osmunda; (TAJIKI) dorchin, dolchin; (TURKISH) tarçin eğreltisi, tarçini kral eğreltisi; (VLAAMS) kaneelvaren.

3.2. *Osmunda japonica* Thunb.

(EP) immature frond; (P) C.

(CHINESE, MANDARIN) zi qi; (CHINESE, WÚ) zi qi; (ENGLISH) Japanese flowering fern; (FRENCH) osmonde du Japon; (HEBREW) sarach yapani; (JAPANESE) zenmai; (NEPALI) rani unyu; (POLISH) paproć japońska kwitnaca; (PORTUGUESE) osmundo do Japão; (SPANISH) osmunda japonesa; (TURKISH) Japon çiçekli, eğrelti, cayir sedef olumsu; (URDU) japoni phol wala fern; (VLAAMS) Japanse bloeiende varen.

4. Parkeriaceae

4.1. *Ceratopteris thalictroides* (L.) Brongn.

(EP) young leaves; (P) C.

(AFRIKAANS) watervaring; (ARABIC) el-khenshar almaee; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) shui jue; (CHINESE, MIN BEI) wu ma jue; (CHINESE, WÚ) shui jue; (CHINESE, YUE) wu mao jue, long chuan jue; (CRIOULO, CAPE VERDE) fetó d'água; (CZECH) rohatec žlutúchový; (ENGLISH) water fern, watersprite, floating stag's horn, pod fern, oriental water fern; (FILIPINO) pakong-roman; (FINNISH) riisisaniainen; (GREEK) fteri to ithrohari; (HANUNOO) banawug sapat; (HEBREW) sarach hamaim; (HMONG DAW) kaus suab; (IFUGAO) bakkaku; (INDONESIAN) pakurioh, pakis rawa, paku tespong, paku cai; (ITALIAN) paku roman; (JAPANESE) mizu-warabi; (LAO) kok karn pu; (LATVIAN) papardes; (MACEDONIAN) vodna paprat; (MALAY) paku ruan, paku roman, sayur kodok; (MARANAO) pako a paletaw; (NEPALI) unyu; (POLISH) paproć wodna; (PORTUGUESE) fetó aquático, mururé; (SAMBAL, BOTOLAN) pako buaya; (TAGALOG) makahirak-hirak, pakong sungai, pakong tubig, pakong-roman, saguray; (THAI) phak khaakhiat, phak kuutnam, phak kuut kao kkuang; (TURKISH) boynuz eğrelti, boynuz eğrekti, su eğreltisi; (URDU) pani ka fern; (VIETNAMESE) r[as]ng g[aj]c nai, quy[ees]t g[aj]c nai, rau c[aaf]n tr[oo]i; (VLAAMS) watervaren; (WELSH) marchrhedyn-y-dwr.

5. Polypodiaceae

5.1. *Diplazium esculentum* (Retz.) Swartz (EP) young leaves; (P) C.

(ARABIC) el-klenshar alkhamel; (BUHID) tigafun; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) cai jue; (CHINESE, WÚ) shuang gai jue; (DANISH) spiselig fjerbregne; (ENGLISH) vegetable fern; (HMONG DAW) kaus suab; (IFUGAO) appaku, pako a saladeng; (INDONESIAN) puka beunteur, paku sayur, paku tanjung; (JAPANESE) kuware-shida; (JAVANESE) pakis ijo, pakis wilis; (KABIYÉ) amalore; (KANKANAÉY) appaku, pakpakong; (MACEDONIAN) zelenčukova paprat, paku tanjong, paku benar; (MALAY) paku, pakis; (NEPALI) nigurio, neuro; (POLISH) paproć warzywna; (PORTUGUESE) fetó; (SUNDA) paku beunyeur, paku leuheur; (TAGALOG) pako, tagabas, pakong-kinakain; (THAI) phak kuut, hasdam, kuut khue; (TURKISH) sebze eğreltisi, yenebilir diplazyum; (URDU) khana ka fern; (VLAAMS) pako; (WÁRAY-WÁRAY) pako.

Division Anthophyta (Magnoliophyta)⁴

Class Monocotyledons (Lilopsida)

6. Alismataceae

6.1. *Sagittaria sagittifolia* L. subsp. *leucopetala* (Miq.) Hartog (EP) corms; (P) C.

(ARABIC) kewi; (BICOLANO, CENTRAL) tikog; (CEBUANO) gauai-gauai; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) ye ci qu; (CHINESE, WÚ) ye ci gu; (ENGLISH) Chinese arrowhead, arrowhead, arrow-weed, swamp potato; (FRENCH) fléchière commune, sagittaire de Chine; (GERMAN) gemeines Pfeilkraut; (HEBREW) hatzetzon tlat-'alim; (INDONESIAN) bea-bea; (ITALIAN) erba saetta chinese; (JAPANESE) kuwai, shiro-guwai; (KHMER, CENTRAL) slök lumpaèng; (LAO) phak sôb; (MACEDONIAN) trolisten strelolist; (MALAY) ubi keladi, keladi chabang; (POLISH) uszyca trójlistna; (PORTUGUESE) erva frecha chinesa; (SPANISH) flecha chinesa, saeta chinesa; (SUNDA) eceng genjer; (THAI) khakhiat, taokiat, phakkhangkai; (TURKISH) çin su oku; (URDU) chini sir naza; (VIETNAMESE) rau m[as]c, t[uwf] c[oo], c[ur] ch[os]c; (VLAAMS) kuwai.

6.2. *Sagittaria sagittifolia* L. subsp. *sagittifolia* (EP) corms; (P) C.

(AFRIKAANS) lansblaar; (ARABIC) raas el-saham; (BELARUSAN) shalnikavaja strelkslist; (BENGALI) chhoto-kut, muya muya; (BICOLANO, CENTRAL) lagbang, tikog; (CEBUANO) longiloba, tikog; (CHINESE, GÁN) ci gu; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) ci qu; (CHINESE, MIN BEI) shu zai yu; (CHINESE, WÚ) ci gu; (CHINESE, YUE) ci gu, wu yu; (CREOLE, HAITIAN FRENCH) malanga; (CZECH) šípatka střelolistá, šípatka vodní; (DUTCH) pijlkruid; (ENGLISH) arrowhead; (ESTONIAN) kõõlusleht; (FILIPINO) tikog; (FINNISH) pystykeiholehti; (FRENCH) fléchière, flèche d'eau, sagittaire; (GAELIC, IRISH) rinn; (GERMAN) echtes Pfeilkraut; (GREEK) saggitaria to velofyllos; (HEBREW) hatseson, hatzetzon hitzi, hazezon; (HUNGARIAN) nyílfű; (ICELANDIC) örvarblad; (INDONESIAN) bia-bia; (ITALIAN) sagittaria commune, erba saetta, barba silvuna; (JAPANESE) kuwai; (KAZAKH) strelolist strelolistyj; (LATVIAN) parastā bultene; (LITHUANIAN) strėlialapė papliauška; (MACEDONIAN) običen strelolist; (MALAY) ubi keladi; (NORWEGIAN) pilblad; (POLISH) strzałka wodna, uszyca; (PORTUGUESE) seta, erva frecha, chapéu de couro; (POTAWATOMI) wabasi'binik; (SPANISH) saeta de agua, flecha de agua;

⁴ Classification terminology within parentheses follows Cronquist, 1988.

(TAGALOG) gáuai-gáuai; (TURKISH) adi suoku, suotu, adi su oku; (URDU) sir naza; (VLAAMS) pijlkruid; (WARAY-WÁRAY) gaway, gaway-gaway; (WELSH) saethlys.

7. Alliaceae

7.1. *Allium ampeloprasum* L. var. *ampeloprasum* (EP)⁵ bulb and leaves⁵; (P) C,R.

(ARABIC) tum-zu el-raas; (BELARUSAN) tsabulevaja; (BULGARIAN) biseren luk; (CATALAN-VALENCIAN-BALEAR) all porret; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) da tou suan, nan ou suan.; (CHINESE, WÚ) da suan, da tou suan; (CHINESE, YUE) da suan, suan; (CZECH) pór zahradní, pór; (DAGAARE, SOUTHERN) zamē-var; (DANISH) perleleg, orientalsk løg; (DUTCH) wilde prei, wild look; (ENGLISH) great-headed garlic, levant garlic, wild leek; (ESTONIAN) pärlsibul; (FRENCH) ail d'orient, ail gros, poireau d'été; (GERMAN) Perllauch, Ackerknoblauch; (GIKUYU) gītūngūrū; (GREEK) ampelopraso; (HEBREW) shum gavoha; (HUNGARIAN) francia hagyma, gyöngyhagyma; (INDONESIAN) bawang prei; (ITALIAN) porrandello, porraccio, porro selvatico; (LATVIAN) sīpoli, puravi; (MACEDONIAN) golemoglavest luk; (MALTESE) kurrat slavagg; (MONGOLIAN) songino; (NORWEGIAN) perleløk; (POLISH) czosnek wielocebuloowy; (PORTUGUESE) alho porro bravo, alho gigante; (PULAR) ladji; (ROMANIAN) ceapă margaritar; (RUSSIAN) luk vinogradnyi; (SERBO-CROATIAN) biser luk; (SERER-SINE) ladj; (SLOVAK) pór; (SLOVENIAN) srebrna čebulica; (SPANISH) puerro agreste, puerro salvaje, puerro silvestre, cebollino; (SWEDISH) pärllok; (TAGALOG) kutsai; (TAJIKI) siri tez; (TURKISH) yaz sarimsağı, kaya sarimsağı, yalanci pırasa, bağ pırasası, yaz sarmaşığı; (TURKMEN) ýapyşak şogan; (URDU) bara sir wala lasan; (VLAAMS) parelui; (WELSH) nionyn dodwy, craf-y-geifr.

7.2. *Allium cepa* L. var. *aggregatum* G. Don (EP) pseudostem and leaves; (P) R,C.

(AFRIKAANS) salot, aanteelui; (ALBANIAN, TOSK) qepë shalotë; (ARABIC) bassal el shallut; (ASSAMESE) asomiya piyaj; (BASSARI) diábá; (BELARUSAN) tsabulja shalot; (BEMBÉ) bala; (BENALI) ghundhun; (BICOLANO, CENTRAL) cebollas, sibolyino, sibulyas; (BINUKID) salaysay; (BONTOC, CENTRAL) idaya; (BRETON) chalotez; (BULGARIAN) šalot; (BULLOM SO) sibola; (BURMESE) kyet-thun-u-galay; (CATALAN-VALENCIAN-BALEAR) ascaluina; (CEBUANO) lasona, lansona; (CHICKASAW) atofalaa' himona', bala' albilha, itti' tiyya', bala' sinti, bala' okchemali', balokchamali'; (CHINESE, GÀN) xi xiang cong; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) fen nie yang cong, hu ts'ung; (CHINESE, MIN BEI) xiang cong; (CHINESE, MIN NAN) chhang, chhang-á, lō-giō; (CHINESE, WÚ) fen nie cong, fen cong; (CHINESE, YUE) fen cong, hu cong, xiang cong; (CREOLE, HAITIAN FRENCH) echalott, echalot; (CZECH) cibule šalotka množilka, šalotka; (DAGAARE, SOUTHERN) zamē; (DANGME) sabola; (DANGME-KROBO) samana, samanatɕupa; (DANISH) skalotteløg, kartoffelløg; (DUTCH) sjalot; (EDE NAGO) alubosa; (ENGLISH) shallot, potato onion, multiplier onion; (ESTONIAN) šalott; (FILIPINO) sibuyas-tagalog; (FINNISH) ryväsipuli, salotten sipuli, salottisipuli; (FRENCH) échalote, oignon-patate, ail stérile; (FULFULDE, ADAMAWA) lawasi, lawasiji; (GA) sabola; (GAELIC, IRISH) seallóid; (GBE-VHE) sabala; (GERMAN) Eschlauch; (GIKUYU) gītūngūrū; (GOURMANCHÉMA) djaba nachine; (GOURMANTCHÉ) salbissa; (GREEK) kremmydi to askoclonio; (HANUNOO) lasuna; (HAUSA) ǎlbásàà, ǎlbásàà mai-gora, ǎlbásàà mai-kara, ǎlbásàà mai-wuya, f̀wàn kádàà, ramuza, safa, shafa, safa mai-gora, shalamta, shalanta, tsattsafi, yár bààkin kòògíí, yár bààkin rààfíí, yár làmbúú, zalbo; (HEBREW) shum shakelon; (HINDI) gandana; (HUNGARIAN) mogyoróhogyoma, aslottahagyma; (ICELANDIC) skalotlaurkur; (IFUGAO) amput an dumalom, danggu, pumalapaggar danggu; (INDONESIAN) bawang merah, bawang abang mirah; bawang

⁵ A superscript *s* indicates a plant part that has a secondary use.

acar, dasun merah, berambang, brambang; (ITALIAN) scalogno; (ITAWIT) lasuna; (JAPANESE) sharotto; (JAVANESE) brambang, brambang abang, bawang merah; (JOLA-FONYI) eladje; (JULA) djaba; (KHMER, CENTRAL) khtüm krâhââm; (KIRGHIZ) kyrk muun pijaz; (KIRIBATI) te anian; (KONKOMBA) tčèbènur; (KRIO) shilot, lif yabas; (LAO) hoom bwàx; (LATVIAN) dârza sîpols, sîpols loki, šalotes sîpoli; (LUO) atung gula; (MACEDONIAN) skalunka; (MALAY) daun bawang, bawang merah, bawang kecil; (MANDING-MANDINKA) catinhá-ô, jabô; (MALTESE) ix-xalloti; (MENDE) yabasi-laa; (MOHAWK) anonksheera; (MÖORÉ) gâbdo, albaharé; (NEPALI) pyaz; (NGUNDI) bala; (NORWEGIAN) sjalottlök, potetlâk; (PANGASINAN) lasona; (PANJABI, EASTERN) gandana, gandhan, piâz, gæda; (POLISH) cebula kartoflanka; (PORTUGUESE) chalota, cebolinha-de-bubinhos, cebolinha; (ROMANIAN) ceapă esalota; (RUSSIAN) luk-šalot; (SERBO-CROATIAN) kozjak; (SINHALA) rathu loonu; (SLOVAK) šarlotka; (SLOVENIAN) šalotka; (SONGHAY) âlbésel; (SORBIAN, UPPER) šalota, worješenc; (SPANISH) chalote, escaluña, ascalonia; (STELLINGWERFS) sjelot, slotten; (SUBANON) genda; (SUMO-MAYANGNA) onyan; (SUNDA) bawang acar, bawang beureum; (SWAHILI) vitunguu shaloti; (SWEDISH) scharlottenlök; (TAGALOG) sibuyas talalog, bawang-pula, luku, sibuyas, sibuyas-Tagalog; (TAJKI) pioz; (TEM) alebassa; (THAI) hom, hom-daeng, hom-lek; (TOK PISIN) lip anian; (TURKISH) yabani sarmisak, askalon; (TURKMEN) adaty şogan; (TWI) gyeene; (UKRAINIAN) šalot; (URDU) piâz; (VIETNAMESE) h[af]nh ta, h[af]nh t[aw]m, h[af]nh n[es]n; (VLAAMS) sjalot; (WĀRAY-WĀRAY) sibuyas-bombay; (WELSH) sibwn; (WOLOF) soblé, soblé futô; (XHOSA) uhlobo oluthile lwetswele; (YORUBA) alubosa, âlubòsà eléwé, âlubòsà onişu.

7.3. *Allium cepa* L. var. *cepa*

(EP) bulb; (P) R,C.

Dialects of Luyia (Bukusu¹, Itsukha², Kabarasi³, Marama⁴)

(ABUA) áyo; (AFAR) bàsal; (AFRIKAANS) ui; (AKPA) árùbàsá; (ALBANIAN, TOSK) qepë; (ALEUT) kianartok; (AMHARIC) gäyy šankurt; (APACHE, JICARILLA) ttöshchîni, ttöchîni; (ARABIC) bassal; (ARMENIAN) soch; (ASSAMESE) piyaj, piyaz, ponoru; (AZERBAIJANI) sogan; (BAATONUM) uwasaku; (BADAGA) ułli, bengue, benguve; (BAFUT) ángyěsò; (BALTI) tsong; (BAOULÉ) djaba, djé n'dé; (BASQUE) kipula, tipula; (BASSARI) diábá; (BELARUSAN) tsabulji zepchatyi, tsabulji repchatui; (BEMBA) kanyense; (BEMBÉ) bala; (BENGALI) palandu, piyaj, piâj, pyanj; (BEROM) âlbásá; (BÉTÉ) djaba; (BETE-BENDI) à-lábásyà; (BICOLANO, CENTRAL) sibuyas; (BINUKID) ganda; (BLACKFOOT) pisatsiinikimm; (BODO) sambram gøjah; (BOKYI) eyebe; (BONTOC CENTRAL) sibuyas; (BOSNIAN) luk, zviBEL, sogan; (BRETON) ognon; (BUDIK) dyaábá; (BULGARIAN) luk; (BULLOM SO) sibòla, yábas; (BULU) anyon; (BURMESE) kyet-thun, kyet-th-wonini; (CAJUN FRENCH) oignon; (CAROLINIAN) subwuyas; (CATALAN-VALENCIAN-BALEAR) ceba; (CEBUANO) sibuyas; (CZECHEM) xox; (CHEROKEE) svgi; (CHICKASAW) atofalla'a', atofalla'ha'a, atofalaa', atofalla'a' homma', atofalla'a' lakna', atofalla'a' tohbi'; (CHINESE, GÁN) cong tou; (CHINESE, HAKKA) ts'òung-t'èou, ts'òung-tzè; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) yang cong, congto; (CHINESE, MIN BEI) fan zai cong; (CHINESE, MIN NAN) chhang-thâu, iú-chhang; (CHINESE, XIANG) yuan cong; (CHINESE, WÚ) yan cong; (CHINESE, YUE) yang cong, cong tou; (COMANCHE) kuukanaruhka?, kuuká; (CREE, PLAINS) wihcekaskosiy, wâpiskaskosiy; (CREOLE, HAITIAN FRENCH) zonyon; (CRIOULO, CAPE VERDE) cabola; (CROATIAN) luk; (CZECH) cibule kuchaňská, cibale; (DAGAARE, SOUTHERN) zanmê; (DAGBANI) gab'nyule; (DAKOTA) pšij; (DANGME-KROBO) samana; (DANISH) kepa-lø; (DENDI) albasa; (DIGO) chitunguu madzi; (DUTCH) ui; (EDE NAGO) alubosa gambari; (EDO) alubarha; (EFIK) òyím, òyím mbàkárá; (ENGLISH) onion, common onion, bulb onion; (ESTONIAN) sibul; (ÉWÉ) sabala; (FARSI, EASTERN) piyâz; peaj; (FARSI, WESTERN) piyâz, piâz; (FILIPINO) sibuyas; (FINNISH) sipuli, ruokasipuli; (FON) ayomasa; (FRENCH) oignon; (FULFULDE, ADAMAWA) albacce, albasa, albasal, tingyeje gordè, tingyère, tingyere, tinyère, tinyère, tinggère,

toiyeeere, kárán álbásàà, katakata, lāvāshii, wúyàn mákwárwáá; (GA) blofo sabola; (GADDANG) danggu; (GAELIC, IRISH) oinniún; (GAELIC, MANX) unnish; (GAELIC, SCOTTISH) uinnean; (GALICIAN) cebola; (GANDA) butungulu; (GBE, WACI) sabule; (GEN) sabulevi; (GEORGIAN) khakhvi, chachvi, háhvi; (GERMAN) Speisewiebel, Küchenzwiebel; (GIANGAN) sibuyas; (GIKUYU) gītūngūrū-kīa-ngwacī; (GONJA) gébú, kálébásà; (GOURMANTCHÉ) djaba napaan; (GOURMANTCHÉ) djaba; (GREEK) kremmy di to koino, kremmy di, kremmydi; (GUJARATI) dungari, dungli, kando; (GUN) ganganlubassa; (HARARI) šenkurta; (HAUSA) albasa, albása, álbásàà, álbásàà gudàájíí, àlibácá, gingen tasa, gūdán álbásàà, kuduru; (HEBREW) batzal ha-ginna; (HERERO) !kharo-i, onjanga; (HILIGAYNON) sibúyas; (HINDI) piaz, piyaz, piaz, pyāj; (HINDUSTANI) piyáz, basal, gatthá; (HMONG DAW) dos; (HOPI) siiwi; (HUNGARIAN) vöröshagyma, vörösjagyma; (IBALOI) shanghu; (IBANAG) sibuyas, sibolyas; (ICELANDIC) höfudlaukur, rauolaukur; (IFUGAO) sibuyas; (IGBO) yabasi, àyàbaasi, ayo, yàbaasi; (ILOCANO) lasona, sibulyas, cebollas, siboyas; (INDONESIAN) bawang manis, bawang lampoeng, bawang Bombay, bawang merah, bawang besar; (INUKTITUT, WEST GREENLANDIC) inanitsoq, uvanitsoq; (ITALIAN) cipolla; (ITAWIT) seboliat; (IVATAN) buliyas; (IZON) útuta, yabási; (JAPANESE) tamanegi, tamane; (JUNKUN TAKUM) pádòn, ribásá; (KABIYÉ) cahoun; (KANNADA) eerulli, irulli, nirulli, neerulli, neerulli, ullaagedde; (KANURI) lebasar, lùwásàr; (KASHMIRI) prān, prāna-bagāra; (KATI) trašhtu; (KAZAKH) luk repčatyj, piyaz; (KHMER, CENTRAL) khtüm barang; (KIRGHIZ) pijaz tup, piyaz; (KIRIBATI) te anian; (KONKANI) kando, piyaavu; (KOREAN) dungulpha, yangp'a; (KORO) álpása; (KRIO) yabas, yabasi, alibosa; (KURDISH, NORTHERN) pyáz; (KWANGALI) uriri; (KWEYÖL) lonyon, gwo-löyon; (LADINO) sevóya; (LAHU) shu; (LAKOTA) pšīŋ (LAO) bwāx fālangx; (LATVIAN) sīpols; (LUXENBOURGEOIS) Ęnn; (LIMBA) oyaba; (LITHUANIAN) valgomasis svoqūnas; (LOMWE, MALAWI) anyenzi; (LUO) atung gula; (LUYIA) bitungulu¹, shitunguo³, eshitukwo^{2,4}; (MACEDONIAN) običen kromid; (MAITHILI) peāju; (MALAGASY) tongolo; (MALAY) bawang, besar, bawang besar; (MALAYALAM) iravengaayam, ulli, eerulli, bavang, chuvannauli; (MANDING-BAMBARA) diaba; (MANDING-MANDINKA) jabbo; (MANINKAKAN, WESTERN) ladio; (MALTESE) il-basal; (MAORI) aniana; (MARANAO) lasona, siboyas, tukupun; (MARATHI) kanda, kanda; (MEHRI) bašələt, bašəl; (MENDE) yabas, yabasi, yawe, siba; (MICMAC) əpsāāsisk; (MIZO) purun, purun sen; (MOHAWK) anonk, anonkshera; (MÓORÉ) zāyō, gābdo, alba; (MORISYEN) zonion; (MUNDARI) peāju; (MUSKOGEE) tafvmpe; (NAMA-DAMARA) onyanga; (NAVAJO) t'ohchin; (NDONGA) nyanga; (NEPALI) pyaz; (NEWAR) chāp; (NGIZIM) álbásár; (NIUE) aniani; (NORWEGIAN) kepaløk, vanlig kepaløk, løk, matløk, rødløk; (NUPE-NUPE-TAKO) àlùbása, lùbása; (OGBIA) àyò; (OGBIA-AGHOLO) àyò; (ORIYA) peas, ulli; (OROMO, WEST CENTRAL) kulobi dima, shunkurti; (PAIUTE, SOUTHERN) sevoy'u; (PALI) palañđu, sukandako; (PAMPANGAN) sibuyas; (PANGASINAN) sibúyas; (PANJABI, EASTERN) ganda, piaz, payaz; (PASHTO, NORTHERN) pyáz, piyáz; (POLISH) cebula, cebula jadalna; (PORTUGUESE) cebola; (POTAWATOMI) shakwesh, skakwe'shak; (PULAAR) wasalde, soblere; (QUECHUA, CUSCO) chabura; (ROMANIAN) ceapă ceaclama, ceapa cultivată, penrubulb; (RUSSIAN) luk repčatyj, louk repčatyi, louk zepchatnyi, louk repka; (SAMOAN) aniani; (SANGA) aburuma; (SANSKRIT) palaandu, nripakanda, palandu, raktakanda, deerghapathra, durghandh, mahaakanda, nripapriya, nripavhaya, nripeshtha, raajapalaandu, raajapriya, raajeshtha, raktakanda, rochaka, yavaneshttha; (SANTALI) peaj, piāj; (SCOTS) ingan; (SENOUFO, CEBAARA) djabahou; (SERBO-CROATIAN) luk, crniluk; (SERER-SINE) soblé; (SHONA) hanyanisi, nyanyisi; (SIDAMO) tuma, tuma shunkurta; (SINHALA) luku loonu; (SLOVAK) cibul'a kychyňská; (SLOVENIAN) čebula, navadna čebula; (SOMALI) basal; (SORBIAN, LOWER) cybula; (SORBIAN, UPPER) cybla; (SOTHO, NORTHERN) eie; (SOTHO, SOUTHERN) eie; (SPANISH) cebolla; (SRANAN) ayun; (STELLINGWERFS) siepel, oje, oije; (SUNDA) bawang Bombay; (SWAHILI) kitunguu maji, kitunguu; (SWEDISH) lök, matlök; (TAGALOG) sibuyas bombay, sibuyas buyas, sibuyas; (TAJIKI) pioz; (TAMIL) vengayam eerulli, periya venkayam, ira-vengayam, irulli, vella-vengayam, vengayam, erangayam, iravengaayam; (TATAR) sugan; (TAUSUG) sibuyas; (TELUGU) neerulli, nirulli, vulli,

ulli, gaddalu, urigaddalu, erragaddalu, erra ulligadda, vulligaddalu, vullipayalu; (THAI) hom, hom-yai, hom-huayai; (THEMNE) ka-yaba, *koe*-yaba, *ta*-yaba; (TIBETAN) tsön; (TIV) ḡḡbusa; (TOK PISIN) anian; (TSWANA) eie; (TULU) neerullikande; (TURKISH) soğan; (TURKMEN) sogan; (TWI) anyau; (UKRAINIAN) cibulja; (URDU) piaz; (UYGHUR) piyaz; (UZBEK) piyoz, piëz; (VAI) siba; (VENDA) nyanisa; (VIETNAMESE) cu hánh, h[af]nh c[ur], h[af]nh t[aa]y; (VLAAMS) ui, ajuin, ai; (WAMEY) dyaba; (WÁRAY-WÁRAY) sibuyas; (WELSH) nionyn; (WOLOF) soblé; (XHOSA) itswede; (YALA) èjím, yalibáca; (YIDDISH) tsibehleh; (YOM) amisambæ; (YORUBA) àlubòsà, àlubòsà gambari, àlubòsà keta, èlubàsà; (ZULU) u-anyanisi; (ZUNI) moqqi.

7.4. *Allium chinense* G. Don.

(EP) bulb; (P) C.

(ARABIC) tum el-khabazeen; (CHINESE, GÀN) qiao tou; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) xie; (CHINESE, MIN BEI) qiao tou; (CHINESE, XIANG) qiao tou; (CHINESE, WÚ) cong, xie; (CHINESE, YUE) qiao, qiao tou; (DANISH) rakkyo; (ENGLISH) rakkyo, Baker's garlic; (FRENCH) echalotte chinoise, rakkyo; (HEBREW) shum sini; (HMONG-DAW) dos; (HMONG-NJUA) dlog; (HUNGARIAN) iyabasi; (INDONESIAN) bawang ganda; (JAPANESE) rakkyou; (MALAY) lokyo; (POLISH) szczypiorek chiński; (PORTUGUESE) chalota chinesa, cebolinha para picles; (SPANISH) chalote chinesa; (THAI) krathiam-chin, hom-prang, hom-paenyuak; (VIETNAMESE) ki[eej]u.

7.5. *Allium fistulosum* L.

(EP) pseudostem and leaves; (P) R,C.

(AFRIKAANS) bindui, soepui; (ALBANIAN, TOSK) qepë dimrore; (ARABIC) bassal el-mustatere, bassal el-ankudy; (ASSAMESE) Welsh onion; (BASQUE) tipulatxi; (BELARUSAN) tasbulja repchataja, tsabulja tabchataja, tsabulja batun; (BRETON) sivolez, krak-sivolez; (BULGARIAN) zimen luk; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) cong, ts'ung; (CHINESE, MIN NAN) tōa-chhang; (CHINESE, WÚ) cong, da guan cong, da cong; (CHINESE, YUE) da cong, mu cong, shui cong; (CRIOULO, CAPE VERDE) cabolinha; (CZECH) cibule zimní, cibule sibiřská, ošlejš; (DANISH) pibe-løg; (DUTCH) grof bieslook; (ENGLISH) Welsh onion, Japanese bunching onion; (ESTONIAN) talisibul; (FINNISH) pillisipuli, talvispuli; (FRENCH) ciboulette, cive, ail-ciboule, ciboule; (GEORGIAN) tshlacvi; (GERMAN) Winterzwiebel; (GONJA) gebu, kalebasa; (GREEK) kremmydi to syriggodes, pikpo kremmydi; (HEBREW) batzal yapani; (HMONG DAW) dos; (HUNGARIAN) metélőhagyma, téli hagyma; (IFUGAO) buyah, buyas; (INDONESIAN) bawang daun, bawang daven, bawang bakung, bawang semprong, bawang sop, bawang benggala; (INUKTITUT, EASTERN CANADIAN) uaniujaq; (ITALIAN) cipolla d'Inverno, cipolletta; (JAPANESE) negi; (JAVANESE) bawang onchang; (KAZAKH) luk batun; (KHMER, CENTRAL) khtüm sânlök; (KIRGHIZ) batun pijazi; (KIRIBATI) te anian; (KOREAN) pha; (LATVIAN) stobrainais sīpols, batūnsīpoli; (LITHUANIAN) tuščialaiškis česnakas; (LUO) atung gula; (MACEDONIAN) zimski kromid; (MALAY) daun bawang; (MORISYEN) lake zonion; (NEPALI) pyaz; (NORWEGIAN) pipeløk; (PALAWANO, CENTRAL) tawar; (POLISH) cebula siedmiolotka; (PORTUGUESE) cebolinha, cebolinha comum, cebolinha de todo o ano, cebolinha verde; (ROMANIAN) ceapă de tuns; (RUSSIAN) luk batun; (SERBO-CROATIAN) aršlama; (SLOVAK) cibul'a zimná; (SLOVENIAN) zimski luk, qulë dimrore; (SPANISH) cebolleta, cebolleta común, cebollino de verdeo común; (SUNDA) bawang bakung, bawang sop, bawang cina, bawang daun; (SWEDISH) piplök, sallada lök; (TAGALOG) nebuka; (THAI) hom-ton, hom-chin; (TURKISH) kiş soğani, gal soğani; (UKRAINIAN) cibulja-batun; (VIETNAMESE) h[af]nh hoa, h[af]nh h[uw][ow]ng; (VLAAMS) Japansc bosui, bieslook; (WELSH) nionyn cynmru; (YIDDISH) tsibekhes; (ZARMA) albasan.

7.6. *Allium kurrat* Schweinf. ex K. Krause

(EP) pseudostem and bulb; (P) C,R.

(ARABIC) kurrat; (CHINESE, WÚ) nan ou suan; (ENGLISH) kurrat; (FRENCH) kurrat; (GIKUYU) gītūngūrū; (HEBREW) karrash, kresha, shum kurrat; (HUNGARIAN) kurrat; (INDONESIAN) prei; (JAPANESE) kratto; (POLISH) por dziki, kurat; (PORTUGUESE) kurrat; (SPANISH) kurrat; (VLAAMS) kurrat.

7.7. *Allium macrostemon* Bunge

(EP) leaves; (P) C,R.

(CHINESE, WÚ) xie bai; (ENGLISH) Japanese garlic; (FRENCH) ail du Japon, nobiru; (GREEK) kineziko skordo; (ITALIAN) aglio giapponese; (JAPANESE) nobiru; (PORTUGUESE) alho do Japão; (SPANISH) ajo del Japon; (TURKISH) Japon sarmisaği, sarmisak; (URDU) japani lasan; (VLAAMS) nobiru.

7.8. *Allium porrum* L.

(EP) pseudostem and leaves; (P) C,R.

(AFRIKAANS) prei; (ALBANIAN, TOSK) presh, pras; (ARABIC) kurrat; (ASSAMESE) leek; (BASQUE) porru; (BELARUSAN) poréi; (BENGALI) paru; (BOSNIAN) praziluk, prasa, poriluk; (BRETON) pour; (BULGARIAN) praz; (CATALAN-VALENCIAN-BALEAR) porro; (CEBUANO) sibuyas-bisaya, sibuyas-Bisaya, sibuyas-litmo; (CHINESE, HAKKA) kiòu-ts'ói; (CHINESE, MANDARIN) jiu cong, nan ou ts'ung; (CHINESE, MIN NAN) kú-chhài, kú, soàn-á; (CHINESE, WÚ) jiu cong; (CREE, PLAINS) wehcekaskosiy; (CREOLE, HAITIAN FRENCH) poro, powo; (CROATIAN) poriluk; (CZECH) pór zahradní setý, pór; (DAGAARE, SOUTHERN) zanmē-var; (DAKOTA) pšij; (DANISH) porre; (DUTCH) prei; (ENGLISH) leek; (ESTONIAN) porrulauk; (FARSI, EASTERN) gandana; (FARSI, WESTERN) tarché farangy; (FILIPINO) kuchai, leek; (FINNISH) purjo; (FRENCH) poireau, porreau; (GAELIC, IRISH) cainneann; (GAELIC, SCOTTISH) cainneann, creamh-gàrraidh; (GALICIAN) porreta; (GEORGIAN) prassa, prása; (GERMAN) Porree; (GIKUYU) gītūngūrū; (GOURMANCHÉMA) djaba vortz; (GREEK) praso; (HAUSA) àlbásàà-mai-kara; (HEBREW) karrash, kresha, shum hakarash; (HINDI) kirath; (HINDUSTANI) gandáná, piyáz ki taran kadaraḡht; (HMONG DAW) dos ntaj; (HUNGARIAN) póréhagyma; (ICELANDIC) bladylaukur; (ILOCANO) leek; (INDONESIAN) bawang prei, bawang péré, bawang sayuran; (ITALIAN) porro, porretta; (JAPANESE) liiki, niranegi; (JAVANESE) bawang sayuran, bawang pre, pre; (KASHMIRI) godu; (KAZAKH) luk porej; (KHMER, CENTRAL) khtüm khchâl; (KIRGHIZ) porej pijazi; (KIRIBATI) rike; (KWÉYÒL) powo; (LADINO) prása, puerro; (LAKOTA) pšij; (LAO) pèènz fàlangx; (LATVIAN) puravi; (LITHUANIAN) poras; (LUXENBOURGEOIS) porett; (MACEDONIAN) običen praz; (MALAGASY) tongolobe; (MALAY) lik; (MALTESE) kurrat; (MAORI) riiki; (MARANAO) genda; (MORISYEN) pwaro; (NGUNDI) poilo, poireau; (NORWEGIAN) purre; (PAMPANGAN) kuse; (PANGASINAN) kusay; (PASHTO, NORTHERN) gandana; (POLISH) por, warzywo; (PORTUGUESE) alho porro, alho francês; (ROMANIAN) praz; (RUSSIAN) louk parei, luk porej; (SCOTS) foos; (SERBO-CROATIAN) praziluk; (SIDAMO) shunkurta; (SINHALA) leek; (SLOVAK) pór; (SLOVENIAN) pór, pór pravý; (SORBIAN, LOWER) porej; (SORBIAN, UPPER) porej; (SPANISH) ajo porro, ajo kiras; (SUNDA) bawang pere, bawang parai, bawang bali, bawang pire; (SWAHILI) vitunguu liki, namna ya kitunguu kidogo; (SWEDISH) purjo lók, purjo; (TAGALOG) kutsai, leek; (TEKE) poilo, poireau; (THAI) krathiam-ton, krathiam-bai; (TIBETAN) ñūqtsoon; (TURKISH) pirasa; (UKRAINIAN) cibulja-porej; (VIETNAMESE) lò chàn lóng, t[or]i t[aa]; (VLAAMS) prei; (WELSH) cenhinen; (WOLOF) poro; (XHOSA) iliki, uhlobo oluthile lwetswele; (YIDDISH) pureh-tsiebehleh.