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**BOTANIC TERMS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PICTURE OF THE
WORLD**



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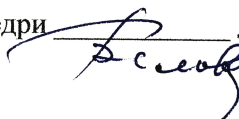
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АНОТАЦІЯ

Перехрестюк В.Л. Ботанічні терміни в англомовній картині світу. – Бакалаврська робота.

Бакалаврська робота присвячена дослідженню ботанічної термінології англійської мови у контексті англомовної картини світу. Актуальність дослідження зумовлена широкою сферою застосування ботанічних термінів у різних сферах життя, а також необхідністю системного вивчення їхніх структурних, семантичних та функціональних характеристик з урахуванням регіональної варіативності та дискурсивних особливостей. Об'єктом дослідження є ботанічна термінологія англійської мови, предметом – семантичні та структурні характеристики англійських ботанічних термінів.

Метою роботи є аналіз та характеристика ботанічної термінології, а також поглиблене вивчення її функціонування, організації та застосування в різних літературних і географічних контекстах. Для досягнення мети визначено такі завдання: опрацювання підходів до визначення ботанічної термінології та вивчення її історичного розвитку; класифікація термінів відповідно до структурного та семантичного аспектів; проведення порівняльного аналізу ботанічної термінології в різних різновидах англійської мови, зокрема британській, американській, новозеландській, австралійській та канадській англійській; дослідження ідіоматичної та символічної реалізації ботанічних термінів у дискурсі; аналіз функціонування термінологічних одиниць у літературному та науковому дискурсі.

Методологія дослідження ґрунтується на комплексному застосуванні описового методу, порівняльного аналізу, методу класифікації та дискурс-аналізу, що дає змогу всебічно представити ботанічну термінологію в різних контекстах. Дослідження базується на 550 ботанічних термінах, запозичених із спеціалізованих словників, наукових та літературних праць, ЗМІ та інтернет-ресурсів.

Структура роботи охоплює три розділи, що поступово розкривають тему праці, починаючи з теоретичних засад, та закінчуючи предметним лінгвістичним аналізом. Результати дослідження ілюструють широту можливостей застосування ботанічних термінів у різних цілях, включаючи опис біологічних явищ і процесів, характеристику людської діяльності; психічних, емоційних та фізичних станів за допомогою стилістичних засобів та усталених виразів, особливості яких, обумовлені лінгвістичним світоглядом англомовних народів, що розвивався під впливом різноманітних історичних, культурних та екологічних чинників.

Ключові слова: термін, мовна картина світу, ботанічна термінологія, англомовна картина світу, словотворення, семантична класифікація, регіональна варіативність, ідіоматика

ABSTRACT

Perekhrestyuk V.L. Botanic terms in the English language picture of the world. – Bachelor's Thesis.

This bachelor's thesis investigates botanical terms as a terminological system of the English language within the English language picture of the world. The relevance of the study stems from the broad application of botanical terms across all spheres of life and the need for a systematic examination of their structural, semantic, and functional characteristics, accounting for regional variation and discourse-specific features. The object of the research is botanical terminology in English, while the subject encompasses the structural and semantic characteristics of English botanical terms.

The purpose of the study is to analyse and characterise botanical terminology and to conduct a thorough investigation of its functioning, organisation, and application in various literary and geographical contexts. The research objectives include reviewing approaches to defining botanical terminology; classifying terminological units by structure and semantics; conducting an analysis of botanical terms' application across English varieties; exploring the use of botanical terms as symbols and in idiomatic expressions; in literary and scientific texts.

The methodology encompasses the descriptive method, comparative analysis, the method of classification, and discourse analysis, which allows for holistic representation of botanical terminology in different contexts. The present study is based on 550 botanical terms drawn from botanical dictionaries, scientific and literary works and Internet resources.

The thesis consists of three chapters, following a logical path from theoretical overview to specific linguistic analysis of botanical terminological units. The findings of the research illustrate the broadness of possibilities for botanical terms' application for description of biological phenomena and processes related to plants and for description of human activities; mental, emotional and physical states through stylistic

devises and set expressions both rooted in the linguistic worldview of English-speaking nations influenced by various historical, cultural and environmental factors.

Keywords: term, language picture of the world, botanical terminology, English language picture of the world, word-formation, semantic classification, regional variation, idiom.

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INTRODUCTION

Botanic terminology has accompanied humanity throughout history, as humans have always relied heavily on the surrounding flora for survival, particularly for food and medicine. In early history, people named plants after gods, mythical creatures, natural phenomena, and character traits. These ancient influences are still traceable in modern botanical naming conventions. Even Old English encompassed a vast number of plant names, reflecting a sustained Anglo-Saxon interest in botany.

A significant shift occurred during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, which saw a sudden and unprecedented increase in botanical knowledge. This was driven not only by European encounters with other parts of the world but also by the detailed study of indigenous flora and new opportunities offered by inventions like the microscope. The new knowledge provided the stimulus for the development of more extensive and specialised terminology, which subsequently required more elaborate terminological systems. Since then, numerous scholars have dedicated themselves to the analysis, organisation, and coinage of botanical terms [Berrens 2023, p. 205].

Botanic names also found broad application in the realm of literature and poetry. Famous writers such as Shakespeare, Milton, and Wordsworth implemented plant names with symbolic connotations, forming long-standing associations with specific plants in the public mind. Today, the usage of botanical terminology continues to increase due to technological advancements and new explorations. Consequently, scholars continue to work on the organisation and broadening of botanical terminology by establishing new classifications and creating new terms.

The topic of the botanic terminology is represented in numerous studies by both domestic and foreign scholars, such as E. Nowick, H. Welch, E. Lonati, H. Mason, D. Berrens, R. Sommer, A. Anisimova, I. Kyznezova, O. Opalko, H. Levytska etc.

The *topicality* of the research stems from the extensive scope of the study object, specifically botanical terminology across various varieties of English. Thus, the study offers a comprehensive overview of the historical and linguistic factors that have shaped this terminological system, as well as its detailed structural organisation and

classification. Consequently, the findings of the research serve as a contribution to the field of terminology studies and the investigation of regional variation within the English language.

The ***purpose of the present study*** is to analyse and characterise botanical terminology as a structured terminological system of the English language and conduct an in-depth analysis of its functioning, organisation, and application in various literary and geographical contexts within the English language picture of the world.

The ***objectives*** of the paper are the following:

1. to study approaches to the definition of botanical terminology and explore its historical development as a terminological system;
2. to classify the items of the botanical terminological system in relation to the structure and semantic meaning;
3. to conduct a comparative analysis of botanical terminology in different varieties of the English language;
4. to investigate the idiomatic and symbolic realisation of botanical terminology;
5. to analyse the usage of botanical terminology in literary and scientific discourse;

The ***object*** of the study is botanical terminology in the English language in the context of the English language picture of the world.

The ***subject*** of the paper is morphological, semantic and structural characteristics of English botanical terms, as well as their contextual realisation within written and oral discourses and across different varieties of the English language.

The descriptive method and comparative analysis are the basic ***research methods*** used in the paper employed to characterise botanical terminology from a linguistic point of view and reveal similarities and differences of its application in distinct varieties of the English language. *The method of classification and taxonomy* is used

to structure the terminological items into subgroups for further comprehensive analysis. *The discourse analysis method* is applied to investigate the use of terminological units in correlation to the environment (context).

Research material encompasses 550 botanical terms taken from specialised dictionaries, scientific and literary works, media sources, and Internet sources.

The results of the scientific inquiry were published and presented during the scientific conference: “*English Studies: The Key to a World of Discovery*” held on April 23, 2026, at Klaipeda University, Lithuania, with a presentation entitled “*The Metaphorical Dimension of Botanical Terminology in English and Ukrainian*”.

1. TERMINOLOGY STUDIES IN LINGUISTICS

1.1. The notion of term and terminology in Linguistics

The notion of a term has been integral to human intellectual activity throughout history. From the times of ancient Greek and Roman philosophers, scholars in different fields required specialised vocabulary to express new ideas and emerging concepts. The origins of the word “term” can be traced back to the early millennium, deriving from the Latin word “*terminus*,” which signifies “*end*” or “*boundary line*.” During the Medieval period, it evolved and acquired additional meanings “*expression*” or “*definition*.” [Стацюк 2016, p. 112]. It is believed that the first scholar to use the term “term” in its contemporary sense was the German scholar S. Schutz in 1786. Since then, under the influence of technological and scientific advancements, a number of scholars have taken an interest in this concept and offered their interpretations [Kuldashova 2019, p. 99].

Formulating a universal, comprehensive definition of a “term” is challenging, as it heavily depends on its relation to the concept it denotes, the specific field of knowledge in which it is used, and the personal interpretations of individual scholars. Therefore, it is essential to provide an overview of the most important definitions.

According to V. Karaban, *term is a linguistic sign representing a concept from a specific, professional field of science or technology* [Карабан 2004, p. 315].

M. Kochergan views a term as *a specialised word or phrase that serves as a precise designation for concepts within a particular field of science, and is characterised by monosemanticity and stylistic neutrality* [Кочерган 2001, p. 220].

T. Cabre defines a term as *a term is a unit which is described by a set of linguistic characteristics and has the property of referring to an element in a specific domain*. [Cabré 1999, p. 35].

I. Kvitko describes a term as *a word or verbal complex correlating with a concept in an organised branch of knowledge, which enters into systemic relations with other*

words to form a closed system characterized by high informativeness, precision, and expressive neutrality [Квітко 1976, p. 54].

M. Vakulenko argues that a term is a word or collocation which refers to a concept in a particular field of human activity: culture, science, sports, technology, art, etc [Вакуленко 2023, p. 18].

At the same time J. Sager defines a term as *a linguistic representation of the concept* [Sager 1990, p. 57].

Based on the definitions provided, a term can be defined as *a linguistic unit that designates a specific concept within a specialised field of knowledge*. As a linguistic entity inherent to specialised fields of study, a term differs significantly from a simple word used in everyday discourse. There are different views regarding the characteristics which a term must necessarily exhibit to retain this status. Having reviewed the ideas of different scholars, we have identified the following characteristics associated with a term.

Accuracy and Unambiguity. A term must clearly and precisely express a specific concept related to a specialized field without any vagueness. According to D.S. Lotte, accuracy and lack of ambiguity are fundamental requirements for establishing scientific and technical terminology [Фурт 2020, p. 113] and V. S. Marchenko argues the ambiguity of terms is a negative phenomenon that causes difficulties in using scientific literature, disrupts mutual understanding, limits the possibility of sharing experience, and leads to unstable ideas. Therefore, “*it is necessary to ensure that each term is unambiguous*” [Краснопольська 2010, p. 362].

Definitiveness. A term is definitional, i.e., it acts as a linguistic representation of a concept in a particular field of study that has a particular definition which strictly determines and delimits the scope of its functioning [Попович 2020, p. 204].

Systematicity. A term functions within a specific terminological system, relying on its connections to other terms to convey its meaning. If a term exists in its system or enters another, it may lose its intended meaning. For instance, “*runner*” in the

botanical terminology refers to a slender stem that grows horizontally, whereas in everyday language, it refers to a person who runs [Квітко 1976, p. 19].

Monosemanticity. Traditional terminological theory states that a term should have a single, fixed meaning within its specific field, avoiding polysemy (multiple meanings) and synonymy. E. Wüster strongly advocated for a strict “biunivocal” (one-to-one) relationship between a concept and its corresponding term, which is essential for the proper function of terms in various fields. However, as science and technology evolve rapidly, some terms begin to acquire new meanings and become polysemous. While this trend is typically viewed negatively in the scientific community, some scholars, such as L.V. Turovska, argue that polysemantic processes in terminology can reflect the development of a conceptual system within a particular field of knowledge and demonstrate linguistic economy [Краснопольська 2010, p. 363].

Stylistic neutrality. A term is a definite, objective designation devoid of emotional expressiveness, connotations, or stylistic colouring. I. Kvitko identified “*expressive neutrality*” as a key characteristic of a term within a closed system. Overall, the non-emotionality of terms distinguishes them from the general, expressive vocabulary of everyday language [Квітко 1976, p. 128].

Context independence. A term operates within a terminological system and maintains its meaning independently of the linguistic context in which it is used. This means that a term communicates the same concept regardless of its linguistic environment [Collet 2004, p. 100].

Terms and terminology are two interrelated concepts which exist in the same paradigm. The word “terminology” comes from the Medieval Latin “*terminus*” and the Greek “*-logia*,” meaning “*a dealing with*” or “*a speaking of*.” In contemporary usage, the term has two basic definitions:

1. *a branch of linguistics* that deals with the study of certain laws related to the place of terms at the grammatical level and their operation in the language.

2. *an organised set of terms* used in a particular field of scientific knowledge or professional activity to denote its professional concepts [Valeontis 2006, p. 1].

Terminology as a science began to develop in the early 20th century. Eugen Wüster, an Austrian engineer, is often regarded as the father of terminological study. With his engineering background, he sought to eliminate ambiguity in scientific and technical communication. He developed the General Theory of Terminology (Allgemeine Terminologielehre), which laid the foundation for technical terminology. Wüster's theory is characterised by a utilitarian view of specialised languages, seeing them as tools that need to be evaluated and optimised for efficiency and precision. He famously stated that *"all terminology work proceeds from concepts"*. In contrast to traditional lexicology, which moves from words to meanings (semasiological approach), Wüster's terminology begins with an abstract concept within a structured logical system, and only then assigns a term to it. Subsequently, Wüster argued that concepts must have clear, fixed boundaries. In his ideal system, the relationship between a concept and a term must be biunivocal (one-to-one). He believed that there is no place for polysemy and synonymy in terminology and that only precision can ensure clear professional communication. Also, Wüster excluded diachronic and etymological approaches, insisting that terminology must be strictly synchronic, focusing entirely on the logical relationships of concepts as they exist at a given moment [Trojar 2017, pp. 55–75].

Though Wüster is rightfully acknowledged as the founder of the Vienna School and a great contributor to terminology, his principles have faced growing criticism from specialists in cognitive science, language sciences, and communication sciences.

M. Teresa Cabré offers a modern, sociocognitive critique and expansion of classical Wüsterian terminology. While acknowledging Wüster's contributions, Cabré argues that terms are not isolated, artificial units, but pragmatic units of natural language used in real communicative situations [Cabré 1999, pp. 85–87].

Cabré questions the logicist mysticism and strict prescriptivism of Wüster's GTT. She embraces socioterminology, which accepts linguistic evolution, variation, and the

social contexts of terms. She argues that terminologists must account for the actual sociolinguistic realities and discourse practices of experts, rather than just imposing artificial standards. Unlike Wüster, who built concept systems a priori, Cabré emphasises that terminology must be extracted from real specialised texts and corpora. She argues that variation, polysemy, and synonymy are natural, functional parts of specialised communication that must be described rather than erased [Cabré 1999, p. 210].

In this paper, we will adopt Cabré's perspective on terminology. Since botanic terminology has its roots in ancient history and human activity, we cannot explore it without considering an etymological perspective.

1.2. Linguistic specificity of botanic terminology

Botanical naming has always played a crucial role in human life. People use plants, trees, and shrubs for various purposes, such as reliable sources of food and materials for religious, cosmetic, and medical use. While some herbs can serve as effective cures and greatly aid human survival, others can be deadly poisonous and lead to irreversible consequences if consumed. Therefore, the identification, description, and classification of plants have become essential for humanity's survival.

The first scholar to approach the documentation of plant qualities as a science is considered to be Theophrastus, who is often regarded as the "father of botany". Being an outstanding disciple of Aristotle, he compiled two scientific works, "*Historia Plantarum*" (*The History of Plants*) and "*De Causis Plantarum*" (*The Causes of Plants*), which laid the foundation of modern botany. In his works, he described 550 plant species and varieties, classifying them into categories such as shrubs, trees, herbs, and under-shrubs. During the Medieval period, most scientists relied on his works for further plant descriptions [Zacharias 2022].

In the 18th century, the world witnessed great expansion and growth of the British Empire, which led to the exploration and colonisation of new lands in Asia, Africa and the New World, as well as the establishment of trade with China. Scientific expeditions began to encounter a great number of unknown plants that required examination and

description. Moreover, the import of goods such as tea and cocoa and the acclimatisation of exotic plants in Europe became a lucrative business, transforming botany from a purely theoretical science into an applied one.

During this period, the classification system proposed by early botanists began to malfunction. The principle used back then involved giving a plant *Genus* a specific name in Latin, whilst the *Species* was presented in the form of a written description, also in Latin. Initially effective, it eventually became cumbersome, hindering accurate plant classification and resulting in long, difficult-to-memorise names. At this time, a great Swedish scientist, Carl Linnaeus, made a breakthrough and in his work “*Systema Naturae*” (1735), described a new binominal naming system according to which each species is given a unique name consisting of two words. The first word of the so-called “binomen” identifies the organism as belonging to a genus, and the second one is a specific epithet in botany (for plants, for algae, and fungi) and determines the species within the genus to which the organism belongs (*e. g. Juglans regia* - *Persian walnut*). Such a system brought clarity into botany and laid the foundation for botanical terminology and nomenclature, which is used all over the world even today [Chaffey 2025; Welch 1991, pp. 44–46].

Botanical nomenclature, i.e., *a set of plant names which are universally accepted and effective for scientific communication* [Romero Solís 2025, pp. 1–2], is normally presented in the form of Latin or Greek names. Though it ensures clarity and universality, such naming is not understandable to the general public. Subsequently, each plant or its structural part, besides scientific Latin name, has a local adapted variant of a term (*e. g., lat. Zanthoxylum americanum* – *eng. Angelica Tree*) or even a folk, regional name for frequently used, widespread plants (*e. g., lat. Artemisia absinthium* – *eng. Wormwood* – *vern. Green Ginger*) (HNoGPP). However, it is worth mentioning that some adapted English terms have a vivid Latin etymological heritage (*e. g., eng. Amaranth* – *lat. Amaranthus* “*unfading flower*”; *eng. Petal* – *lat. Petalon* “*leaf, thin plate*”). Therefore, we may state that botanical terminology is a complex system which exists both inside the scientific terminological system and in common

usage. In this work, we will concentrate on the English language botanical terms with regard to their Latin / Greek etymology and vernacular or literary equivalents of these names (OEtD).

At this stage, it is relevant to define the concepts of botanical terminology and the terminological system.

According to N. F. de Keizer, a terminology *is a list of terms referring to concepts in a particular domain. Subsequently, we may state that botanical terminology is a list of terms referring to concepts in a botanical domain* [de Keizer 2000, p. 18].

As mentioned in the first chapter, one of the main characteristics of a term is systematicity, i.e., a term exists in a particular system of relatable terms that designate corresponding concepts. Thus, the notions of terminology and terminological system are essentially interconnected. According to E. Skorohodko *terminological system is a systematically organised collection of similar terms* [Скороходько 2015, p. 91]. R. Hamdamov defines a terminological system as *a certain set of terms ordered into a system of any field of knowledge or activity, which has its own theory* [Hamdamov 2021, p. 63]. While N. F. de Keizer views it *as a system relating concepts of a particular field, among themselves and providing their terms and possibly their definition* [de Keizer 2000, p. 18].

V. Horpynych has outlined several conditions that must be met for a terminological system (TS) to exist:

1. the existence of a special field that has sufficiently clearly defined boundaries;
2. the existence of a system of general concepts related to this field;
3. the existence of a sufficiently rigorous theory describing this field, so that the system of concepts is fully incorporated into this theory;

4. the existence of a certain natural language developed for special purposes, the lexical units of which can be used to denote the concepts (objects and their attributes) of this system of concepts [Горпинич 1999, pp. 54–76].

Thus, we may deduce that botanical terminology is a set of all terms related to the field of botany, while the botanical terminological system is an artificially compiled system of terms which designate particular concepts in the botanical field and may lose their meaning upon exiting the system. Though not identical, both these notions are integral to understanding the complex nature of botanical terms. As it was previously mentioned the units which comprise botanical terminology are quite flexible i. e. there are terms which change their meaning if used outside botanical context (*e. g. stem – the main part of sth. / in botany: the main axis of a plant above ground, bearing leaves, buds; branch – subdivision of sth. / in botany: lateral shoot of a plant*) and also ones which gain new meaning upon entering botanical terminological system (*e. g. cone – geometric shape / in botany: reproductive structure of gymnosperms; trunk – elephant’s nose / in botany: main woody stem of a tree*) (CD).

Now, it is relevant to outline some specific characteristics of botanical terminology:

Reliance on classical languages: Latin and Greek serve as the primary source for creating new botanical terms. Latin was adopted with regard to its universality as a language of higher learning in Europe; as a “dead” language, it remained stable and unchanged, allowing scientists from different nations to communicate precisely regardless of their native tongues, and this system persists even today [Rustamovna 2024, p. 459].

Metaphorical and analogical naming: The creation of botanical concepts often relies heavily on metaphors inherited from geometry and human anatomy. For example, the term *aster* transfers the concept of a celestial “star” to a terrestrial flower based on its radiant shape. Similarly, naming often relies on sensory associations, such as visual colour (violet) or olfactory attributes (like the carnation, which historically drew associations with the scent of clove/walnut leaves) [Mincu 2025, pp. 227–228].

Parallel naming systems: A unique feature of botanical vocabulary is that almost any given plant possesses multiple layers of identification: a rigorous scientific name, an adopted term, and a common or folk name. The scientific names are uniquely designed to convey cultural needs, pest problems, or plant relationships at a glance [Панасенко 2009, p. 39].

Use of affixation: Botanical vocabulary heavily utilises prefixes and suffixes to convey precise information about a plant's anatomy, characteristics, or taxonomic classification at a single glance (e. g. **-phyll** (from Greek *phyllon* for leaf) forms terms like *mesophyll* “middle leaf tissue” or *chlorophyll* “green leaf pigment”; **epi-** (upon/over) forms terms like *epigynous* “floral parts borne on or arising from the ovary”).

In this paper, we will analyse botanical terms with regard to the above-mentioned features and will aim to describe and characterise botanical terminology at all levels and in every potential sphere of use.

CONCLUSION TO CHAPTER 1

In this chapter, we explored the concepts of “term” and “terminology” from different perspectives. We examined the key characteristics that define a term (definitiveness, systematicity, monosemanticity, stylistic neutrality, context independence) while also analysing how terminological theory has evolved. Specifically, we contrasted Eugen Wüster's General Terminological Theory (GTT) with M. Teresa Cabré's modern sociocognitive approach. We noted that while the traditional Wüsterian model provides an ideal model for accuracy and precision, it fails to account for the natural linguistic phenomena of polysemy and variation that occur in real-world specialised communication. By adopting Cabré's approach, we acknowledged that terms are not static, artificial labels but dynamic units of language shaped by history and actual usage.

On this foundation, we then turned specifically to the domain of botany. We traced the history and linguistic development of botanical terminology, from the early classifications pioneered by Theophrastus to the pivotal binominal naming system

introduced by Carl Linnaeus. This section highlighted a key duality within botanical terminology: while it operates as a strict, universally accepted scientific system rooted in Latin and Greek, it is also present in an adaptive layer of English common and vernacular names. We identified that this dual nature illustrates the theoretical principles discussed earlier: botanical terms may be both rigidly systematic for clarity and remarkably flexible in general discourse. We also deduced that some terms may be present in both the terminological system of botany and general discourse or other terminological systems, which creates an additional field for research.

In conclusion, this analysis demonstrates that botanical terminology is a highly complex system operating on multiple levels. The inherent flexibility found in botanical naming – with its metaphorical roots, affixation, and multiple naming systems validates the need for a descriptive, usage-based theory of terminology. By adopting Cabré's flexible framework for this study, we establish a comprehensive foundation for analysing botanical terms not just as strict scientific categories, but also as dynamic terminological units shaped by history, art, and everyday human experience. Additionally, understanding how these terms function both inside and outside the botanical terminological system prepares us for a more nuanced and practical analysis in the chapters that follow.

2. THEORETICAL ASPECT OF LANGUAGE PICTURE OF THE WORLD

2.1. The notion of language picture of the world in Linguistics.

In contemporary world, it is evident that all objects, events, and phenomena are perceived by people through the prism of their own experience, values, and interpretations. These concepts constitute integral components of the worldview that

governs human activity and the perception of the surrounding environment. As V. V. Zhayvoronok mentioned, “*the world appears to a person as they come to know and understand it as they develop*” [Жайворонок 2002, p. 1]. Language serves as one of the most fundamental means of preserving and disseminating this worldview. It is a basic component of human consciousness: a person acquires language in childhood through society and their environment and uses it to shape their worldview. In this regard, the concept of the language picture of the world is anthropocentric and closely linked to an individual’s cognitive and social activity.

There are different sciences which deal with the study of the language picture of the world, e.g., sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics, et. al. The concept is well covered in the works of both foreign (A. Wierzbicka, W. von Humboldt, L. Weisgerber, E. Sapir, F. de Saussure, G. Lakoff, L. Wittgenstein, J. Trier) and Ukrainian scholars (O. O. Potebnya, V. V. Zhaivoronok, I. O. Holubovska, O. O. Selivanova, I. M. Zaremska, L. A. Lysychenko).

The term “*picture of the world*” first appeared in the works of the German scientist G. Gerz, who used it in relation to physical objects and their inner images, which shed light on their properties and behaviour. Gerz’s view of the concept was purely scientific and inherently connected to the need to study and interpret real-world patterns and assess possible future outcomes [Hertz 2025, p. 151–166].

The notion of the “*language picture of the world*” (*Weltbild der Sprache*) was subsequently introduced by Leo Weisgerber in his 1929 monograph “*Native Language and the Formation of the Spirit*”. Weisgerber’s formulation is deeply rooted in Wilhelm von Humboldt’s teachings on the “*inner form of language*”, which posited that language is an active force shaping a nation’s thinking and worldview, and that the character and structure of a language express the inner life and knowledge of its speakers. According to L. Weisgerber, “*language allows a person to integrate their experiences into a unified picture of the world and makes them forget how they perceived the world around them before learning that language*” [Weisgerber 1929, p. 51].

The relationship between language and perception received further elaboration in the work of Edward Sapir. In 1933, Sapir wrote: “*Language influences the manner of our perception and interpretation. That is to say, with the increase of our scientific experience, we must learn to overcome linguistic implications*” [Pross 1982, p. 10].

In combination with the works developed by his disciple Benjamin Lee Whorf, he also laid the foundation of “*Linguistic relativity*”, commonly referred to as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. The hypothesis is divided into two versions: the strong and the weak ones. The strong version posits that “*language has a profound influence on thought, plays a leading role in the process of world cognition, and the various mental characteristics of an ethnic group are determined almost exclusively by that group’s language*”. According to this view, every nation has developed its own picture of the world in the course of history, and the similarities between different perspectives depend solely on the affinity of their national languages. The weak version states that while language does not determine human cognition, it significantly influences it [Глущенко 2024, p. 6].

Although the hypothesis has faced significant criticism in scientific circles – particularly regarding its “strong” version – it effectively illustrates the extent to which language affects our perception of the world. This, in turn, supports the validity of the concept of the Language picture of the world.

One of the most influential Ukrainian researchers in the field of cognitive linguistics is Oleksandr Potebnya. In his works “*Thought and Language*” (1862), “*Language and Nationality*” (1895), “*On Nationalism*” (1905), he explored the connection between human thought, nation and language. His interpretations are often compared to the “Linguistic relativity”, though they were expressed a couple of decades prior and are rooted in Wilhelm von Humboldt’s ideas on language. Potebnya stated that the world exists as an object of knowledge solely through language, as it primarily forms human thought and is embodied in the literary and scientific products of human cognition. The scholar viewed language as inseparable from the culture of the people and treated it not simply as a means of conveying the thought but as a

mechanism for forming it. He believed that this ability is universal and inherent to all people and is justified by human nature: *“The word is a means of forming concepts, and not an external one ... but one suggested by human nature itself and irreplaceable; the clarity that characterises the concept, the relationship of substance to attribute, the necessity of their combination, the striving of the concept to take its place in the system: all this is primarily achieved in the word and transformed by it”* [Рєбрїї 2024, pp. 114–117].

The concept of the *“language picture of the world”* (LPW) is complex and encompasses various aspects for several reasons. Firstly, it is linked to multiple fields of study, including culturology, anthropology, and sociolinguistics, which allows diverse interpretations of the idea. Additionally, the notion of LPW is relatively new, so different scholars continuously propose new ways of understanding it. Below is a list of definitions suggested by linguists that align with our perspective on LPW.

According to V. Sas, the language picture of the world *is the set of largely subjective human perceptions of objective reality, expressed through a complex network of linguistic relationships* [Cac 2011, p. 275].

Iryna Holubovska views the language picture of the world *as the sensation and comprehension of the world expressed by means of a certain language* [Голубовська 2004, p. 6].

At the same time, I. Zaremska argues that the language picture of the world *is a system of conceptions about the world which, passing through human cognition, becomes mental constructs reflected at all levels of the linguistic system, and can be conveyed to other members of the community through the national language* [Заремська 2011, p. 398].

V. Zhayvoronok defines LPW as *a mosaic-like field structure of interrelated linguistic units which, through a complex system of phonetic phenomena, lexical-semantic and grammatical meanings, as well as stylistic characteristics, reflects a*

relatively objective reality ... , that is, in general, the picture of the world as such [Жайворонок 2002, p. 53].

Jerzy Bartmiski argues that the language picture of the world *is an interpretation of reality embodied in language, which can be seen as a set of judgments about the world, people, things and events, originating from the subjective perception and conceptualisation of reality by those who speak the language* [Bartmiński 2012, p. 261].

As we may observe, the definitions of the notion differ from scholar to scholar. Some rely on the socio-cultural aspect of the term (I. Holubovska, I Zaremska), while others choose a more linguistic approach (V. Zhayvoronok). Still, based on the aforementioned information and definitions, we may elicit the following definition of the language picture of the world:

The language picture of the world *is a system of subjective perceptions and interpretations of the objective reality, encoded in the linguistic units of a particular language and shared by its speakers.*

The LPW is a universal concept that applies to all people globally, though it is influenced by the specific characteristics of a particular language or nation. Leo Weisberger outlined a set of features inherent to all LPWs, which define the boundaries within which they operate.

According to L. Weisberger, Language picture of the world:

- is a system of various meanings: spiritual, which defines the distinctive features of the culture and mentality of a particular linguistic community, and linguistic, which defines the existence and functioning of the language itself;

- is linked to linguistic culture and specificity;

- is both a consequence and a cause of the historical development of a particular ethnic group and its language;

- is clearly structured and multi-layered in linguistic expression. It determines the phonetic and articulatory features of the language and its speakers, the vocabulary,

word-formation peculiarities, and the syntax of phrases and sentences. In general, it determines communicative behaviour and the interpretation of the surrounding world;

- changes over time and is prone to development;

- creates the homogeneity of linguistic essence, shaping the distinctiveness of how speakers of a particular language perceive the world and denote it through linguistic means;

- exists in the self-awareness of the linguistic community and is passed down from generation to generation through a specific worldview, rules of behaviour and way of life, reflected through the means of language;

- shapes the perception of the surrounding world [Бікезіна 2022, p. 151].

Overall, language is an integral component of the human worldview. Though it is not the sole component that shapes the perception of the world, it significantly affects how people appreciate the same phenomena differently based on their native languages. Through the influences from natural environment, historical events and cultural-behavioural aspects, LPW contributes to the presence or absence of certain concepts, grammatical structures, and the realisation of specific phonetic units within a language. In the following chapter, we will explore the history of formation and peculiarities of the English language picture of the world.

2.2. English language picture of the world

The LPW (Language Picture of the World) is a system of subjective interpretations of objective reality, reflected in the language system. Its formation is influenced by a combination of various factors, including history, culture, traditions, moral and ethical ideals, and the natural environment surrounding the speakers of a particular language. Language has a significant influence on its speakers' perception of the world, as it is essentially the only tool for consolidating socio-historical experience, both universal and national. The unique experiences of each nation shape the characteristics of its national language. *“The LPW consists of concepts (a system of basic notions), value orientations, national stereotypes, symbols, metaphors and idioms”*, which are prone to evolve and change over the course of history and cultural

development, and reflects both objective reality and the mental model of the world characteristic of a particular national group [Бойчук 2025, p. 211].

In the modern scientific world, the English-language worldview is a common subject of research, as digitalisation and globalisation have made English not only a highly represented language worldwide, but also the language of international and business communication.

The first characteristic of the ELPW (English Language Picture of the World) stemming from this is that, unlike most LPWs, the ELPW is polycentric, i.e., *it comprises several cultural varieties* [Бойчук 2025, p. 211], which encompass both a common foundation representing English-speaking identity and particular regional characteristics. For example, C. Biewer and K. Burridge note that the formation of English in Australia and the South Pacific was greatly influenced by local vernacular languages, as well as creoles that emerged from the fusion of Standard British English and local languages. This suggests that the ELPW of Australian English speakers may exhibit some differences in contrast to that of the BE (British English) speakers [Schreier 2020, p. 283].

Traditionally, the ELPW is considered characteristic of nations where English is the primary native language – namely the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand – though there are also somewhat broader views on this issue. A famous Indian-American linguist, Braj Kachru, developed *the Three Concentric Circles Model of English Language* according to which the World Englishes are categorised into three circles, where each represents “*the type of spread, the pattern of acquisition, and the functional domains in which the English language is used across cultures and languages*” [Al-Mutairi 2020, p. 86].

The Inner Circle encompasses countries where English is employed as a primary language in daily life and official institutions and which represent the traditional historical and sociolinguistic bases of the language in the English-speaking regions: *the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States of America, Australia and New Zealand*.

The Outer Circle presents the countries where English is not the native language but acts as the second official language, and is widely used in social life, governmental and business sectors. These places have colonial ties to the British Empire, and their speakers challenge the language norms and develop them. To this category *belong India, Nigeria, Malaysia, Pakistan, Singapore, Ghana, Kenya, South Africa, etc.*

The Expanding Circle includes countries where English plays no significant role in daily life or the administrative field but is still commonly incorporated in educational curricula and used for international communication and other limited purposes, e.g., scientific work or business communication. These countries use language norms established by the Inner Circle and developed by the Outer Circle. Under this category fall *Turkey, Saudi Arabia, Nordic countries, Japan, Taiwan, China, Korea, et. al.* [Valpa 2020; Al-Mutairi 2020, p. 86].

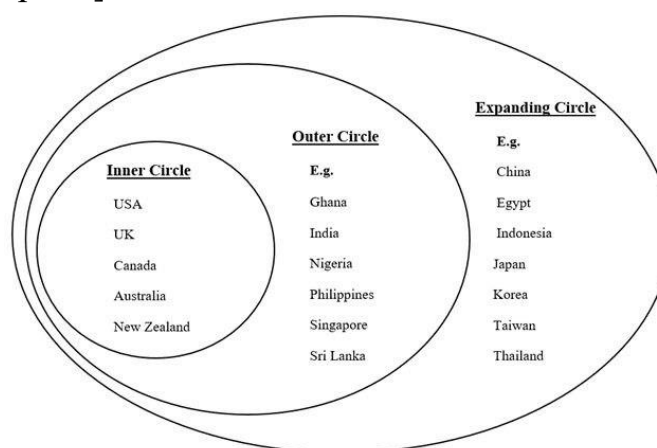


Figure 1. Braj Kachru's Three Concentric Circles Model of the English Language [Thumvichit 2018, p. 101]

According to this classification, we can assume that certain nations in *the Outer Circle* may, under specific circumstances, also be considered part of the ELPW. This is because they use English in various aspects of their lives, actively develop their own English varieties, and are influenced by English in their worldview.

As new varieties of English continue to emerge, another related phenomenon arises due to globalisation and the rapid spread of English across various fields. "*Anglocentrism is a tacit belief in the natural and neutral status of English words and meanings*". That is, English lexicon representing certain concepts begins to be seen as neutral due to its application in various scientific fields [Levisen 2019, p. 1]. However,

in fact, the process of conceptualisation in the ELPW was influenced by various factors throughout centuries, and thus, the lexical units that it produces may not be treated as neutral and universally applicable.

One of the most prominent critics of Anglocentrism is a Polish-Australian linguist, Anna Wierzbicka, who in her work *“Imprisoned in English”* (2013) contemplates the conceptualisation of *“violence”* and *“cooperation”* in the English language. She states that *“viewing human evolution in terms of a decline in ‘violence’ and the growth of ‘cooperation’ is a very Anglo way of looking at it, given that most languages don’t have words matching in meaning either of these words”* [Wierzbicka 2013, p. 55].

If we take the liberty of projecting her thoughts onto the Ukrainian language, we may observe that English *“cooperation”* and its closest Ukrainian equivalents *“снівпраця/снівробітництво”* conceptualise the same process differently. While the word *“cooperation”* inherently exhibits ameliorative connotation, i.e., *“the fact of being willing to be helpful and to do something that someone asks you to do”*, Ukrainian words *“снівпраця/снівробітництво”* are closer to the English *“collaboration”* and present neutral and even pejorative connotation in some contexts, e.g., *“У цьому місті поширена снівпраця з окупантами”*.

Thus, we may state that the ELPW heavily depends on the conceptualisation process of English native speakers, which may differ from non-native speakers and speakers of other languages.

Each English variety may exhibit its own regional features of ELPW. There are some developed by native English speakers and are deemed more or less universal:

Freedom: The concept of freedom serves as a fundamental lexical and ideological node in Anglophone varieties, especially American English, where it is employed in words and phrases that indicate rights, will, and national identity. Common phrases such as *“freedom of speech”*, *“freedom of choice”*, *“free will”*, *“free spirit”*, and the designation *“land of the free”* embed the idea that non-interference and self-determination are primary goods;

Individuality & Pragmatism: The ELPW prioritises the autonomous individual and values action-oriented towards concrete results. Lexical compounds such as *“self-*

made man” and phrasal imperatives like “*mind your own business*” and “*stand on one’s own two feet*” encode self-reliance and non-interference as normative ideals;

Class-consciousness: English linguistic practice exhibits high sensitivity to social hierarchy through an extensive vocabulary layer, which is deployed in various communicative situations. Crucially, in English-speaking countries, class is not determined by wealth or occupation, but by non-economic indicators such as speech, manners, and lifestyle choices. The specific words a person uses, such as saying “*loo*” instead of “*toilet*,” “*napkin*” instead of “*serviette*,” or “*sorry*” instead of “*pardon*”, instantly reveal their exact position on the social map and are present in the speech of the majority of English speakers belonging to a particular social class;

Courtesy: English courtesy is organised around negative politeness, the systematic avoidance of imposition, rather than the expression of warmth. The high frequency of “*please*”, “*thank you*”, “*sorry*” (including the reflexive apology on being bumped), and polite expressions such as “*I’m afraid...*”, “*Would you mind...?*”, and “*Could you possibly...?*” “*I don’t suppose...*” reflects an underlying rule: one must protect the other’s autonomy and personal space, which is almost the whole English language system of politeness is based on;

Success: The ELPW, especially in its American variant, treats success as a central measure of personal worth, which is closely connected to ambition, effort, and material advancement. This concept is lexicalised in such set expressions as “*American Dream*”, “*from rags to riches*”, “*self-made man*”, “*make it big*”, and the noun “*go-getter*”. There are also frequently employed metaphors, such as “*climb the ladder*” and “*get ahead*”, that further emphasise the importance of this concept and lexical units representing it in the ELPW;

Social Coldness and Restraint: A need for privacy and emotional restraint inherent to people belonging to the ELPW is lexicalised in a set of expressions of the English language. Proverbs and idioms such as “*An Englishman’s home is his castle*”, “*mind your own business*”, and “*keep yourself to yourself*” assert the criticality of personal space;

Modesty: English modesty operates through an ironic code of self-deprecation governed by strong prohibitions against boasting. Speakers understate achievements with phrases such as “*I do a bit of sport*” for an Olympic medallist, “*Not bad*” for outstanding quality, and the obligatory deflections “*just lucky*” or “*not as hard as it looks*” in response to praise. This rule is deeply ingrained in the minds of those belonging to the ELPW and is actively adhered to by the majority of speakers;

Fair Play: The principle of fair play is one of the central moral rules that governs conduct across a wide range of English social practices, from games to queuing to everyday judgements. It is reflected in a wide network of lexical and phraseological expressions: “*Fair’s fair*”, “*in all fairness*”, “*given a fair chance*”, and “*fair enough*” serve as conversational evaluators, while “*That’s not cricket*” and “*That’s not on*” frame rule-breaking as a moral violation. This component is an integral part of the ELPW and is present in the speech of the majority of speakers all around the world [Бойчук 2025, p. 211], [Fox 2004, pp. 150–154].

In conclusion, the ELPW is a complex multilayered system of values, opinions and interpretations deeply incorporated into the English language, which is used in all spheres of the speakers lives. Though some English varieties may exhibit their own unique features of the ELPW connected to the unique historical, cultural and environmental influences, there are some conceptualisations which are rooted in English in the form of vocabulary and expressions and are universal for all native English speakers. In the following chapter we will focus particularly on how the ELPW conceptualises plants and their parts in English.

2.3. Conceptualisation of flora within the English language picture of the world

Plants and humans have coexisted side by side for thousands of years. Plants are essential for sustaining the life of all other organisms on the planet, including humans. They produce oxygen for the atmosphere, provide food and form entire ecosystems. Since ancient times, people have sought to describe and name the various plants they encountered. Every civilisation managed to devise its own unique system of plant

naming, which functioned well within a particular ethnic group. However, in the 17th and 18th centuries, during the Age of Discovery and colonisation, people encountered a multitude of new plant species found only in specific climatic zones. The names used by local inhabitants often proved incomprehensible, difficult to pronounce and were simply forgotten during long journeys across continents. Consequently, European naturalists devised new names for such plants based on their own observations and understanding of the plants' properties [Opalko 2024, p. 124].

Thus, an extensive lexicon of vocabulary began its formation – phytonyms, *which fulfil not only a nominal function, but also pragmatic, evaluative, expressive and other functions* [Кузнецова 2024, p. 173]. Phytonyms (from the Greek "*phyto*" meaning plant and "*onyma*" meaning name) have recently garnered increased scientific interest. Coined in the 1970s, the term occupies a significant position within linguistic studies, particularly in the fields of ethnolinguistics and sociolinguistics. As mentioned in previous chapters, the uniqueness of botanical vocabulary lies in the fact that it includes both scientific taxonomy and folk terminology, which may refer to the same concepts. While scientific taxonomy usually relies on Latin, binary structures and rigid rules that ensure universality and unambiguity, folk names usually reflect plant properties and characteristics as they are seen in the eyes of a particular ethnic group. Exploration of flora lexicon formation may provide not just an understanding of the general properties of a plant but also conveys information about the moral and ethical norms, values and mindset of groups that created it. Moreover, phytonymic component is often present in language's stylistic devices (epithets, similes, metaphors, idioms), which provides an insight into the uses of flora conceptualisation and its association with other aspects of human life. Thus, plant names *are a rich source of information about a people's worldview and serve as an effective tool for linguistic and cultural comparison* [Кузнецова 2024, pp. 174–175].

The ELPW has a long history of plant description and conceptualisation. English-speaking countries cover a vast territory and possess a rich history, resulting in a wide range of motivations for naming plants. In this chapter, we will primarily focus on folk

names for plants and their parts, as these lexical units represent the unique features of the English-speaking worldview and how native English speakers perceive the natural world around them. As all subsequent names pertain to actual plants, they each have an official international name in Latin, in accordance with the rules of botanical nomenclature. These Latin names are typically listed alongside the folk or local names in botanical dictionaries and specialised literature. However, since our study focuses on the representation of phytonyms within the ELPW, we deem it reasonable to omit the Latin equivalents of these terms, as they are not the subject of our research.

According to I. Milică, the most important feature of the folk naming model is its empirical aspect, which involves naming plants on the basis of the observable properties of botanical objects, which may also be described as objective signs of motivation. These include the general aspect of the plant or of one of its parts: *Bull's-foot* (EDPNT0) 2) the colour: *Bluebell*; (EDPNT0) 3) the taste or smell: *Bitter Cress*, *Stinking Gladdon* (*On the popular names*); 4) the “behaviour” of the plant: *Jack-go-to-bed-at-noon*; (EDPNT0) 5) the properties of the sap: *Wolf's-milk* (EDPNT0) 6) the use of the plant: a) medicinal: *Cough-wort*; (OPNoBP) b) magic: *Devil's-bit*; (OPNoBP) c) ornamental: *Prince's Feather*; (OPNoBP) d) practical: *Butcher's Broom*; (OPNoBP) 7) the place: a) of growth: *Water-cress*; (EDPNT0) b) of origin: *London Rocket*; (OPNoBP) 8) the time: a) moment of the day: *Evening Primrose*; (OPNoBP) b) the season: *Lent Lily*; (EDPNT0) c) the holidays: *Christmas Rose* (OPNoBP) [Milićă 2013, p. 8].

M. Khoshimkhujieva mentions that the process of naming plants consists of two stages. Firstly, a person classifies them within the general class of plants, and then identifies them with already familiar plants or objects, guided by their personal experience, i. e., their worldview, religion, culture, way of life, place of residence, etc. Generally, to name a plant, people associate it entirely or its features like size, form, colour, texture, substance, or volume with other objects which are incorporated in their consciousness as cultural elements. Then she differentiates three different association fields, namely: Religion, Animals and Artifacts (house belongings), within which

notions that may represent characteristics of botanical entities are chosen [Khoshimkhujueva 2017, p. 180].

Religion. The ELPW was greatly influenced by the dominant religion of all English-speaking countries – Christianity. Many plants occur in religious texts in the form of allegories and Christian symbols. While religion no longer plays a central role in the functioning of English-speaking countries or in the daily lives of their citizens, it has left a significant mark on the terminology used to refer to plants. The following are examples of English plant names inspired by Biblical subjects: *St. John's Wort*, *St. Barnaby's Thistle* (OPNoBP), *Madonna Lily*, *Virgin Mary's Honeysuckle*, *Herb Trinity*, *Virgin Mary's Milkdrops*, *Solomon's Seal* (EDPNT0).

Animals. Animals, along with plants, are an integral part of our existence. Domesticated animals have always served as a mainstay and a guarantee of humanity's survival. Consequently, humanity in general - and in Anglo-speaking nations in particular - has drawn inspiration from animal characteristics when coining plant names. For instance, plant names such as *Horsetail*, *Bird's-foot*, *Toadflax*, *Snake's-head* (SD) have an animalistic component which represents some objective or relative features of these plants (*e. g.*, *Snake's-head has chequered petals like the scales on a snake's head*) (OPNoBP).

It is also important to mention the component “horse-”, which in the ELPW is used to denote the large size of a plant: *Horse-radish*, *Horse mint*, *Horse parsley*, *Horse-chestnut*, *etc.* [Khoshimkhujueva 2017, pp. 181].

Artifacts. Everyday objects also serve as a good source of inspiration for the naming of plant names in English. Botanical dictionaries contain a large number of terms derived from the names of tools, clothing and household items, *e.g.* *Shepherd's Purse*, which gets its name from its purse-like seed pods; *Bladder Campion*, *Monk's Hood*, *Lady's Slipper*, *etc.* (EDPNT0) [Khoshimkhujueva 2017, pp. 180–182].

I. Milică differentiates additional associative (conceptual) fields that may act as a source of inspiration for botanical naming in the ELPW. They include 1) man-made

goods and instruments: *Shepherd's Purse*, *Foxglove*, *Slipper-wort*, *Gladiolus*; (EDPNT0) 2) human relationships: *Lords and Ladies*, *Love-lies-bleeding* (OPNoBP), *Heart's-ease*, *Bachelor's Button*, *Sweet William*; (OPNoBP) 3) ethnical origin and/or imagology: *Welsh Onion*, *Welsh Poppy*, *Jerusalem Artichoke*, *Scotch Thistle*, *French Marigold*; (SD) 4) celestial bodies: *Sunflower*, *Aster*, *Starwort*, *Moon Daisy*, *Star-of-Bethlehem*; (EDPNT0) 5) time and space: *Michaelmas Daisy*, *Christmas Rose*, *Lent Lily*, *Pasque-flower*, *Snowdrop* (EDPNT0, SD, OPNoBP) [Milică 2013, p. 11].

In the modern ELPW, one more way of flora conceptualisation appears to be through famous personalities. Sandra Knapp, in her book *“In the Name of Plants”* (2022), analyses thirty botanical names inspired by famous people. The interesting thing is that in particular cases, these names denote *not a single species but an entire genus*. For instance, she describes an entire fern species, *“Gaga”*, that received its name thanks to an icon of American pop, Lady Gaga. Taxonomists explain that *“the genus Gaga is named in honor of the American pop singer-songwriter-performer Lady Gaga, for her articulate and fervent defense of equality and individual expression in today’s society”* [Knapp 2022, pp. 4, 62].

In conclusion, the rich historical, cultural, and religious heritage of English-speaking nations offers numerous ways to conceptualise plants. Different plant names are motivated by various factors, highlighting specific characteristics of the plants and the associations they evoke with other objects and concepts. Although the process of plant naming started centuries ago, it actively continues today. English speakers consistently develop new association chains and think of new motivations for flora naming.

CONCLUSION TO CHAPTER 2

In this chapter, we examined the notion of the language picture of the world, tracing its origins from the works of Humboldt, Weisgerber, and Sapir to its elaboration in contemporary Ukrainian and foreign linguistics. We analysed key definitions and identified the LPW as a system of subjective perceptions and interpretations of the objective reality, encoded in the linguistic units of a particular language and shared by

its speakers. We concluded that, while language is not the sole determinant of worldview, it profoundly influences how speakers conceptualise and evaluate reality. The LPW motivates the features of a language, including its grammar, vocabulary, phraseology and phonetics.

Then we proceeded to the English language picture of the world, specifically, highlighting its polycentric nature and the influence of history, culture, and globalisation on its formation. Drawing on Kachru's concentric circles model, we positioned the ELPW within a network of English-speaking varieties that nonetheless share a common conceptual core. We concentrated on key features universal to the English-speaking mentality: freedom, individualism, class-consciousness, negative politeness, success, social restraint, modesty, and fair play, which are all reflected in the language. Thus, we concluded that the ELPW is a multilayered system of values and interpretations that remains remarkably cohesive across diverse Anglophone communities, though it may exhibit some cultural peculiarities in certain English-speaking national groups.

Finally, we investigated the conceptualisation of flora within the ELPW, focusing on folk naming strategies. We traced how phytonyms arise from empirical observation and associative links to religion, animals, artifacts, human relationships, and other semantic fields, reflecting the way English speakers interpret the realm of flora through the prism of their cultural and historical heritage. We concluded that botanical terminology serves as an exhaustive source of knowledge about the national worldview, demonstrating naming motivation patterns that continue to evolve even into the present day through the inclusion of contemporary cultural assets.

In conclusion, these chapters demonstrate that the language picture of the world is a dynamic cognitive-linguistic construct through which a speech community interprets reality. The ELPW, shaped by a unique history, social environment, and culture, encodes a distinct set of values and common habits, which are reflected in the English language. The ELPW influences all aspects of speakers' cognition and the conceptualisation process, including the perception of the natural environment. The

extensive phytonymic lexicon vividly illustrates how English speakers' mindset works: it transforms objective botanical reality into a network of historically and culturally meaningful symbols, which is integrated into the consciousness of millions all over the world. The investigation of botanical terminology, with its extensive history and ubiquitous nature, acts as a perfect instrument for understanding a nation's worldview, which is especially applicable for the analysis of the English-speaking world.

3. BOTANICAL TERMS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PICTURE OF THE WORLD

3.1. Word-formation patterns of English botanic terminology

Botanical terminology occupies a significant place in the general vocabulary of the English language. Like any lexical-semantic layer of language, botanical terminology represents a wide range of concepts, including plants, plant structural parts, biological processes, and taxonomic classifications of plant domain, kingdom, division, class, order, family and genus. Thus, English botanical terminology exhibits a great variety of word-formation patterns.

Ingo Plag differentiates various word-formation patterns such as affixation (suffixation, prefixation), conversion, blending and compounding [Plag 2018, pp. 90–207]. In the following section, we will analyse such word formation patterns of

botanical terminology as: prefixation, suffixation, compounding, zero-derivation (conversion), and minor processes including blending, acronymy, clipping, and eponymous formation.

Affixation is an extremely productive way of word-formation. Most of the affixes used in botanical terminology have either Greek or Latin origin and possess a special meaning that helps to represent the concept clearly. Let us have a look at some of the affixes.

Prefixation is the attachment of a prefix – a bound morpheme placed to the left of a base – that modifies the meaning of the base without altering its grammatical category. Spatial and quantitative prefixes are among the most productive for botanical terms. The prefix poly- (*many*) generates a substantial group of terms: *polypetalous*, *polyandrous*, *polyphyllous*, *polyploid*, *polycarpic*, *polytopism* (KPG, DPS). Its antonym mono- (*one, single*) produces *monocotyledon*, *monandrous*, *monoecious*, *monotypic* (KPG). Prefix bi- (*with two*) produces such terms as *biferous*, *bipetalous*, *biennial*. Positional prefixes are equally well represented: epi- (*upon, on, over*) in *epiblast*, *epicarp*, *epicotyl*, *epizoochory*, *epipeltate*, *epiphyte*; hypo- (*under*) in *hypocotyl*, *hypogynous*, *hypostomatous*, di-, dis- (*between, away from*) in *dispersal*, *dissilient*, *disseminule*. Chromatic prefixes, which describe visible plant colouring, are also extremely productive: chromo- (*coloured*): *chromoplast*; chloro- (*green*): *chlorophyll*, *chlorenchyma*; xantho- (*yellow*): *xanthophyll*; cyano- (*blue-green*): *cyanobacteria*. There are also additional prefixes reflecting the degree of authenticity and cooperation: pseudo (*false*) produces *pseudocapsule*, *pseudocarp*, *pseudobulb*; syn- (*together with*): *synsepal*, *synanthous*, *syncarpous*. These prefixes demonstrate the efficiency of prefixation as a terminological tool: a single prefix can generate a systematic semantic field of related terms that together encompass an entire domain of botanical knowledge. According to our research prefixation is especially productive word-formation pattern for 1) adjectives which describe objective (visible) or internal characteristics of plants; 2) nouns which emphasize a particular characteristic of a plant e. g. *epiphyte* – *plant growing on and attached to another plant without deriving*

nourishment from it (KPG); 3) nouns describing botanical processes pertaining plants e. g. *dispersal - the process of scattering seeds away from the parent plant, by means of the wind, birds, animals, etc* (TLL, KPG, DPS).

Suffixation is the addition of a suffix to the right of a base. It acts as the primary mechanism for generating nouns, adjectives, and verbs in botanical English and for adapting classical stems to English grammatical patterns. Several suffixes are particularly productive in the botanical lexicon. The suffix -phyte (*Greek phyton: plant*) is among the most productive, combining freely with Greek and Latin bases to name plant types defined by habitat, structure, or ecological role: *hydrophyte, xerophyte, halophyte, epiphyte, cryophyte, lithophyte, saprophyte, autophyte*. The suffix -aceous/-eous (*having the nature of*) generates adjectives that assign taxa to botanical families or emphasise plant properties: *liliaceous, herbaceous, ceraceous, farinaceous*. The suffix -ate (*having a feature of*) produces participial adjectives encoding morphological shape: *carinate, ampliate, aperturate, furcate, ovate*. The suffix -ose/-ous represents structural peculiarities pertaining to quantity or surface character: *pilose, setose, tomentose, verrucose, rugose*. The suffix -gonous (*-angled*) forms such terms as *trigonous, digonous, heterogonous, tetragonous*, which denote the number of angles a plant or a plant part possesses. The suffix -ferous (*bearing, producing*) produces terms such as *lactiferous, coniferous, floriferous, fructiferous*. Abstract noun formation is served by -escence (*inflorescence, pubescence*), -ation (*germination, vernalisation, stratification*), -ism (*phototropism, thigmotropism*), and -ology (*phytopathology, bryology, pteridology*). It is necessary to mention a suffix of Old English origin -wort (*root*), which is present in a great number of English plant names: *coughwort, figwort, lungwort, liverwort, woundwort, adderwort, butterwort*, etc. Thus, we may conclude that suffixation as well as prefixation are primarily utilised to form botanical terms representing certain characteristics of plants, their parts and biological processes related to them, as well as a sub-domain of botany as a science (TLL, KPG, DPS, Collins Dict., CIGoBT).

Compounding, the combination of two or more free or bound morphemes to create a new lexical unit, *is the most productive type of word formation process in English* [Plag 2018, p. 169]. It also appears to be the single most productive word-formation mechanism in English botanical terminology, reflecting both the language's general tendency toward compound formation and the need to encode complex concepts in compact form, particularly in the realm of botany. Three major subtypes of botanical compounds may be distinguished. Neoclassical compounds, formed entirely from Greek or Latin morphemes, are mostly inherent to formal scientific nomenclature: *geocarpy* (*geo-* + *-carpy*), *chloroplast* (*chloro-* + *-plast*), *photosynthesis* (*photo-* + *synthesis*), *sporophyte* (*sporo-* + *-phyte*), *gametophyte* (*gameto-* + *-phyte*: *gamete plant*), *phytoplankton*, *gymnosperm* (*gymno-* + *sperm*: *naked seed*) (KPG, DPS, CIGoBT). The second subtype is Native English compounds, which are the most productive type of word formation for proper plant names and often reflect the folk-botanical tradition culturally-specific associations: *chickweed*, *fairy's thimbles*, *crowfoot*, *cow parsley*, *bluebell*, *foxglove*, *deadnettle*, *burdock*, *goosegrass*, *blackthorn* (EDPNTO). Hybrid compounds mixing classical and vernacular elements are especially productive in descriptive and ecological botany: *flower head*, *leaf blade*, *root cap*, *bark beetle*, *soil crust* (Collins Dict). Multi-element compounds of three or more constituents are also numerous and present an ethnic interpretation of the botanical world through complex lexical constructions: *bird's-foot trefoil*, *Bread-and-Cheese Tree*, *Kiss-me-over-the-garden-gate*, *Horses-and-chariots*, *etc* (EDPNTO). Thus, we may state that compounding is the most productive word-formation pattern of native English botanical terms which most vividly reflect the mindset of the English-speaking population. English botanical compounds may be additionally subdivided into 1) Compounds with “-and-” (paired or oppositional names), e.g., *Lords-and-ladies*; 2) Possessive compounds (noun + 's + noun), e.g., *Lady's Bedstraw* (Elservie).

Zero-derivation, or conversion, is the process by which a word changes its grammatical category without any change in its form [Plag 2018, p. 134–135]. In botanical English, conversion is most commonly observed in the noun-to-verb direction, where plant-part nouns acquire verbal meanings related to growth and

development: *to bud, to leaf, to flower, to fruit, to branch, to seed, to sprout, to root, to wilt* (Collins Dict.). The reverse direction, verb-to-noun, is represented by *a cutting, a graft, a slip, a runner* (CIGoBT). The adjective-to-noun direction produces substantive uses such as *the perennial, the annual, the biennial*, used in ecological and horticultural discourse. Subsequently, conversion is particularly valued in botanical English because it generates new functional units from established forms and thus does not disrupt the terminological system (KPG).

Among minor word-formation processes, *blending*, *clipping* and *eponymy* all contribute to the register of botanical vocabulary. *Blending* – the fusion of partial forms from two source words – produced the term *cultivar* (*cultivated* + *variety*). *Clipping*, the shortening of established forms, generates the abbreviations used in botanical publications: *lab.* (*laboratory*), *spec.* (*specimen*), *var.* (*variety*), *sp.* (*species*), *ssp.* (*subspecies*), *cv.* (*cultivar*), *f.* (*forma*) (KPG). *Eponymous naming* honours prominent personalities by deriving genus names from personal names: *Dahlia* (*after Andreas Dahl*), *Magnolia* (*after Pierre Magnol*), *Banksia* (*after Joseph Banks*), *Franklinia* (*after Benjamin Franklin*), *Hernandia* (*after Francisco Hernandez*) (Knapp 2022).

In conclusion, this section highlights the richness of botanical terminology in the English language and the various approaches to word-formation. We have examined the main types of word-formation characteristic of botanical terminology and may conclude that affixation is mostly characteristic of terms that describe a plant, its parts, or processes associated with them. Compounding is a highly productive word-formation pattern for folk plant names. Conversion ensures the economy and orderliness of botanical terminology as a system, while other types of word formation diversify botanical terminology by creating unique plant names, scientific terms, and abbreviations.

3.2. Structural and semantic classification of botanical terms

Botanical terms may be classified from two perspectives: their morphological structure i. e., the formal structure of the term and their semantic domain i. e., the area of botanical knowledge they designate. Both approaches are necessary for a

comprehensive account of the lexicon. The following classification organises botanical terms first into six structural categories and then into eleven semantic categories, each illustrated with a substantial number of examples.

Structural classification

Simple terms. Terms consisting of a single morphologically inseparable root. These units correspond to the broadest perceptual categories of the plant world and form the basis of both folk-botanical and scientific classification. Examples: *root, stem, leaf, seed, bud, fruit, wood, fern, herb, grass, vine, weed, bulb, spore, thorn* (KPG).

Prefixed derived terms. Terms formed by adding a Greco-Latin prefix to an existing base. Prefixation is the primary mechanism of systematic terminological extension in formal botanical registers, encoding certain plant characteristics e. g. spatial position, quantity, colour, ecological adaptation, etc. Examples: *epiphyte, hypocotyl, perigynous, monoecious, dicotyledon, achlorophyllous, xanthophyll, halophyte, apetalous, gymnosperm, angiosperm, exstipulate, chloroplast, hypostomatous* (DPS).

Suffixed derived terms. Terms formed by adding a suffix to a base, which generate nouns, adjectives, or abstract terms. Suffixed terms tend to be semantically transparent because their structure encodes information about the property they designate. Examples: *hydrophyte, lanceolate, inflorescence, germination, rugose, viscid, pubescence, deciduous, fabaceous, bullate, hispid, setose* (CIGoBT).

Compound terms. Terms formed by combining two or more morphemes into a single lexical unit, including neoclassical (Greco-Latin) compounds, native English compounds, and hybrid forms. Compounding is the most productive structural process in the botanical lexicon. Examples: *photosynthesis, sporophyte, gametophyte, bluebell, foxglove, deadnettle, snowdrop, burdock, goosegrass* (DPS, Collins Dict.).

Multi-word terminological phrases. Terms consisting of two or more words that function as a single lexical unit in discourse, avoiding paraphrasing or substitution of structural parts. This category is especially productive in ecology and physiology.

Examples: *leaf litter, mycorrhizal association, apical dominance, allelopathic compound, above-ground biomass, seed dispersal* (DPS, KPG).

Abbreviations and conventional symbols. Shortened terms or symbolic designations are customary and function as compulsory elements of taxonomic citations, herbarium labels, and botanical publications. These form a distinct sub-domain of botanical terminology and are characterised by extreme economy of expression. Examples: *spp.* (*species plural*), *cf.* (*compare to*), *syn.* (*synonym, syntype*), *s.l.* (*lat. sensu lato: in the broad sense*), *s.s.* (*lat. sensu stricto: in the narrow sense*), *ined.* (*lat. ineditus: unpublished*), *hort.* (*lat. hortorum: of gardens*), *var.* (*variety*), *GBIF*, *IUCN* (KPG).

Semantic classification

Organ and part terminology. Terms representing the structural components of plant bodies. This is the largest and most foundational semantic category in botanical English, constituting the basic anatomical vocabulary of plant domain. Examples: *root, stem, leaf, petiole, lamina, stipule, node, axil, bud, flower, sepal, petal, stamen, anther, pistil, stigma, peduncle, pedicel, bract, bracteole, inflorescence, fruit, seed, cotyledon* (DPS).

Morphological descriptors. Adjectives and adjectival phrases describing the shape, texture, apex, base, and surface of plant organs. These terms form the specialised language used in taxonomic descriptions, allowing for clear and accurate identification of different groups of organisms. Examples: *lanceolate, ovate, obovate, elliptic, linear, spatulate, cordate, lyrate, palmate, pinnate, serrate, dentate, crenate, undulate* (KPG).

Taxonomic and systematic terms. Terms designating the ranks, units, and procedures of plant classification and nomenclature, from the highest systematic ranks to the most specific nomenclatural categories. Examples: *kingdom, phylum (division), class, order, family, genus, species, subspecies, variety, forma, cultivar, hybrid, taxon, clade, monophyletic, paraphyletic, polyphyletic, isotype, lectotype, binomial* (CIGoBT).

Ecological terms. Terms that describe how plants interact with their non-living (abiotic) and living (biotic) environments encompass various factors such as types of vegetation, categories of adaptation, and distributional descriptors. Examples: *habitat, niche, community, climax, invasive, native, endemic, cosmopolitan, relict, ecotype, biome, tundra, taiga, chaparral, savanna, steppe, littoral* (DPS).

Physiological and biochemical terms. Terms denoting the metabolic, developmental, and molecular processes of plant life. This category has expanded substantially with the growth of molecular biology and plant biochemistry. Examples: *photosynthesis, respiration, transpiration, guttation, turgor, osmosis, plasmolysis, vernalisation, dormancy, germination, phototropism, thigmotropism, senescence, abscission* (DPS).

Reproductive biology terms. Terms covering all aspects of plant reproduction, pollination ecology, and seed and fruit dispersal. Examples: *pollination, cross-pollination, self-pollination, entomophily, ornithophily, anemophily, hydrophily, pollen, pollen tube, fertilisation, double fertilisation, embryogenesis, seed dispersal, zoochory, endozoochory, epizoochory, apomixis, tuber, runner* (DPS, KPG).

Developmental and architectural terms. Terms designating patterns of plant growth, form, and structural organisation over developmental time. Examples: *meristem, apical meristem, cork cambium, fastigate, prostrate, decumbent, stoloniferous, caespitose, rhizomatous, caulescent, acaulescent, rosette, sympodial, monopodial* (CIGoBT).

Anatomical terms. Terms designating the microscopic structure of plant tissues and cells, constituting the vocabulary of plant anatomy and histology. Examples: *epidermis, cuticle, stomata, guard cell, mesophyll, palisade cell, spongy cell, vascular bundle, sclerenchyma, fibre, cortex, pith, phelloderm, phellogen* (DPS).

Ethnobotanical and horticultural terms. Terms connecting scientific botanical knowledge to cultural, agricultural, and applied domains, including both technical vocabulary and folk-botanical terms with long cultural histories. Examples: *cultivar*;

landrace, heirloom variety, grafting, budding, layering, cutting, division, propagation, nursery stock, pleaching, pollarding, coppicing, half-hardy, frost-hardy, zone rating (Collins Dict., CIGoBT).

Phytogeographical and palaeobotanical terms. Terms situating plants in geographic space and geological time, including the vocabulary of plant distribution, floristics, and plant fossil science. Examples: *refugium, disjunct distribution, endemic flora, fossil flora, compression fossil, amber inclusion, macrofossil, dendrochronology* (DPS).

Proper plant names. Terms that refer to specific plant species. One of the broadest and most fundamental categories of botanical terminology. These terms are not typically used in scientific discourse but are common in everyday speech and literary works. Examples: *foxglove, chickweed, lungwort, hawthorn, dandelion, bluebell, cowslip, ivy, poppy, rosemary, thistle, snowdrop, hazel, bramble, forget-me-not* (HNoGPP).

Enumerated classifications provide a comprehensive overview of the most fundamental concepts in botany as a science and, accordingly, the terms used to describe them. In the next section, we will focus on the differences in the interpretation of botanical concepts in British and American English.

3.3. Comparative analysis of botanic terminology in British and American English

Botanical terminology has played a crucial role in the establishment of various societies. It reflects the peculiarities of the formation and development of the natural environment, as well as the cultural traditions of the language speakers. The formation of British and American variants of botanical terminology took place under the influence of various geographical, socio-cultural and historical factors, leading to the emergence of both shared and distinctive features in botanical terminology.

The main differences between British and American English can be traced in vocabulary, grammar, and phonetics. At the same time, certain differences can also be traced in the use of common and special vocabulary, including botanical terms. When

the first English settlers arrived in North America in the 17th century, they brought with them various dialects and accents common to the British Isles at that time. Throughout the centuries, the isolation of the American colonies from the metropolis, as well as the influence of other languages and cultures, e.g., Irish, German, Spanish and French, contributed to the formation of a unique terminological landscape, including botanical. As a result, new words related to local nature and flora appeared in the vocabulary. The primary reason for this was that a significant part of the plants growing in North America were absent in Great Britain. Consequently, English settlers, upon encountering unfamiliar plants, were forced to give them new names, or borrow names from the indigenous peoples of America. This led to a significant part of botanical terminology having its roots in Native American languages. Meanwhile, in Great Britain, the English language continued to evolve independently, preserving traditions and borrowing botanical vocabulary from other European languages [Марюхно 2026, p. 187].

The cultural traditions and lifestyles of both speakers of English also had a significant impact on the formation of botanical vocabulary in the respective varieties. In BrE, botanical terminology is associated with the traditional rural landscape, gardens, parks, as well as the specific cultural symbolism of individual plants. For instance, in European traditions, there was a cult of the oak, which was considered a sacred tree, the abode of the gods, the heavenly gate through which the deity could appear before people. The oak acted as a world tree: it symbolised the world axis of the flow of divine energy, which connects the supernatural and natural worlds. The term oak was also established in BrE, where it became a symbol of stability and national strength. In the symbolic spaces of English folklore ballads (in particular, in the ballads about Robin Hood), the oak is considered a sacred tree. In addition, there is a proverb associated with this tree: *Every oak has been an acorn* (Борзенко 2011, p. 77). In contrast, in American culture, botanical vocabulary is often a reflection of the natural features of the continent, i. e., *prairies*, *sequoias*, and desert vegetation. Thus, American and British English have become two autonomous variants of a single language system, which have their own lexical norms of botanical terminology.

In the course of its development, botanical terminology has also found its reflection in phraseological units, idioms, and catchphrases that fix symbolic images of plants and reflect the peculiarities of the national worldview of Americans and the English. Such language units reflect the cultural values, traditions, and associative thinking of speakers of American and British English. In particular, the American language contains countless allegorical and figurative references, words, symbols, phrases, analogies, metaphors and similes that relate to plants and their associated behaviour. In particular, as K. Bryant notes, *“the American language uses many phrases and words related to plants to describe the vicissitudes of life. When everything is going well, life is a “bed of roses” or “a bowl of cherries”. When misfortunes and shocks occur, life becomes a “bed of thorns”. An unstable situation puts us “out on a limb” or “up a tree”. A dilemma is a “thorny” problem, and a really difficult task is a “tough nut to crack”. ... Misfortune, retribution or punishment for an evil act or inappropriate, hedonistic behavior is “reaping what one sows””* (Bryant 1992, p. 173). BrE also contains a significant number of botanical idioms with floral components to describe human traits, emotional states, or life circumstances. Examples include *“shrinking violet”* (used to describe a shy person) (CD, s.v. «shrinking violet»), *“be pushing up (the) daisies”* (a euphemism for death) (CD, s.v. «pushing up daisies»), and *“the grass is (always) greener (on the other side)”* (reflecting a person’s tendency to idealise someone else’s life or situation) (CD, s.v. «grass is greener»).

One of the differences between English and American English botanical terminology is the presence of so-called lexical doublets. Lexical doublets are different words for the same concept [Мапюхно 2026, p. 188]. That is, in British and American English, a number of plants have different names, which is due to the above-mentioned historical, cultural and linguistic features of the formation of botanical terminology. In particular, in British English, the term *“maize”* is used to refer to corn, while in American English it is *“corn”*. It is quite simple to explain this difference: for Americans, corn was one of the main agricultural crops, so its name in everyday life *“corn”* has become entrenched in the language. At the same time, it should be noted

that in British English the term “*corn*” is also used, but only in the sense of “*grain*” in general (Salvador).

1. To denote “*eggplant*” in British English, the term “*aubergine*” is used, while in American English, the term “*eggplant*” is used (Kessler 2024);

2. To denote “*zucchini*” in British English, the term “*courgette*” is used, while in the American version, the term “*zucchini*” is used (“Courgettes” 2014);

3. To denote “*sweet pepper*” in British English, the term “*sweet pepper*” is used, while in the American version, the term “*bell pepper*” is used (CD);

4. To denote “*table beet*” in British English, the term “*beetroot*” is used, while in American English, the term “*beet*” is used (Why is beet 2024);

5. To denote “*arugula*” in British English, the term “*rocket*” is used, while in the American version, the term “*arugula*” is used (Rocket or arugula 2024);

6. The terms “*swede*” and “*rutage*” are used to refer to “*swedes*” in British and American English, respectively (You say swede 2019);

7. The terms “*spring onion*” (British) and “*green onion*” (American) are used to refer to “*green onions*” (Obs. on Br & Am 2007);

8. The terms “*coriander*” (leaves) (British) and “*cilantro*” (American) are used to refer to cilantro (US & UK 2023);

9. The term “*blackberry bramble*” is used in British English, while the term “*blackberry bush*” is used in American English (Blackberries or Bramble 2023);

10. The terms “*plantain*” (weed) and “*broadleaf plantain*” are used to refer to “*plantain*”, respectively (Plantain Weed 2020);

There are also certain semantic differences between British and American botanical terminology, namely, the same terms are used in different meanings. For instance, the term “*bluebell*” in British English is used to refer to the forest plant *Hyacinthoides non-scripta*, which grows in British forests and has a significant cultural role. In contrast, the same term “*bluebell*” in American English is used to denote another plant: *Campanula* or *Texas bluebell*. This proves that the same botanical term can lead to the emergence of different botanical associations (SD, p. 6).

Additionally, the difference in the botanical terminology of both English varieties is reflected in spelling. For instance, in the BrE, the term “*mould*” is more often used, while in the American version, “*mold*” is used. Such differences arise as a result of a number of spelling reforms in American English aimed at simplifying spelling (CD).

The following differences in the botanical terminology of British and American English are differences in phraseology [Мапюхно 2026, p. 188]. Some fixed expressions have different forms: “*to nip something in the bud*” (BrE) – “*to cut something off at the root*” (AmE) - both variants are used to denote a situation when the solution to the problem occurs at an early stage, however, the British version uses the image of a bud (“*bud*”), and the American version uses the image of a root (“*root*”); “*as fresh as a daisy*” (BrE) – “*fresh as a cucumber*” (AmE) (DoI, DS) - both phraseologisms are used to denote a cheerful and rested state of a person, however, these phraseologisms are based on different botanical images. Such phraseological differences are not only linguistic but also cultural in nature, reflecting different social traditions. An important feature of American botanical terminology, as already noted earlier, is a significant number of borrowings from the languages of indigenous peoples. It is thanks to this that the names of plants that were not known to Europeans before the development of the American continent were fixed in the American version of English. Such botanical terms include “*pecan*”, “*hickory*”, “*persimmon*”, “*pawpaw*” etc. (ToNAм) In contrast, in the BrE these terms were not used at all for a long time or were perceived as regionalisms of American origin.

Thus, the comparative analysis of British and American botanical terminology demonstrated that the differences in its formation were caused by a number of factors: geographical, natural, cultural, as well as the peculiarities of the development of the language environment of their speakers. These differences are manifested in different names of the same plants, the use of the same terms with different semantic meanings, simplified spelling of botanical terminology in the AmE, as well as in phraseological units and idioms related to plant symbolism.

3.4. Botanic terminology in the world's varieties of English

Throughout history, the English language has spread across the globe and become an integral part of international communication. Moreover, it has become the native language not only of Great Britain and the United States, but also of countries like New Zealand, Canada and Australia. Each of these nations has developed its own variation of English, shaped by the socio-cultural, historical, and environmental factors unique to its region. The differences among these variations are particularly evident in botanical terminology, the development of which was influenced by many factors, including intercultural communication, the characteristics of the natural environment and cultural features. In this section, we will compare the botanical terminology of British English, regarded as the standard, with the botanical vocabulary of other English-speaking countries to identify certain distinctive features.

British and New Zealand botanical terminology differ from each other in the following ways:

There are some semantic differences, i.e. certain botanical terms may sound the same, but their meaning is, in fact, different. For instance, in BrE the term “*bush*” is used to refer to a bush, while in New Zealand English the term “*bush*” is used to refer to “*woodland*” or wild natural areas. These discrepancies arise from the unique characteristics of New Zealand's natural environment (OED, s.v. «bush»).

Lexical doublets are also present in British and New Zealand botanical terminology, i.e. different terms are used to refer to the same concepts. For instance, in BrE the term “*bramble*” has become widely used to refer to blackberry (*Rubus fruticosus*), while in New Zealand English the term “*blackberry*” is more commonly used. At the same time, the term “*bramble*” in Scottish English predominantly refers solely to the fruit rather than to the bush. (NZPCN, EDPNTO).

There are also cases of complex terminology substitution. For instance, the term “*pohutukawa*” is used to refer to *Metrosideros excelsa*, which has no separate equivalent in BrE, and is commonly referred to as “*New Zealand's Christmas tree*”. Another example is “*celmisia*”, which is also a New Zealand endemic and is called “*New Zealand daisy*” in the BrE. This shows that New Zealand botanical terminology

is shaped by its unique natural environment. Additionally, it is important to note that New Zealand English actively incorporates plant names borrowed from Māori tribes. That is why there is often no clear equivalent for these terms in British English, or combinations of words are used to explain them. Such terms include “*ackama*” (meaning a genus of flowering plants in the Conuniaceae family) “*kauri*” (meaning a genus of conifers in the Araucariaceae family), “*manuka*” (meaning a tea tree), “*kowhai*” (meaning a small woody legume tree in the Sophora genus), “*totara*” (meaning a species of conifer in the Podocarpaceae family; in BrE “*podocarp tree*” is used), “*apomixis*” (meaning a form of plant reproduction in which seeds are produced without the usual method of sexual fusion), “*bidibid*” (denoting one of the Acaena species), “*kauri*” (meaning a large coniferous tree), “*totara*” (denoting podocarp tree) etc. (NZPCN, SD).

Additionally, the tradition of plant naming after famous personalities (mostly researchers, scientists, and discoverers) is also vividly exhibited by New Zealand English. For instance, the term “*hectorii*” or “*Hector’s tree daisy*” was inspired by Sir James Hector, a Scottish geologist and botanist who contributed to New Zealand exploration in the 18th century (SD).

Although British and New Zealand botanical terminologies share similarities, the New Zealand variety displays unique features due to the peculiarities of the natural and cultural environment influencing its development.

Similarly, British and Canadian botanical terminologies also share a common basis. However, under the influence of the special natural and cultural conditions, the languages of indigenous people, and the influence of American English on its formation, Canadian botanical terminology has also developed certain distinguishing features.

For instance, the term “*cedar*” in BrE traditionally designates Mediterranean or decorative varieties of cedar, while in Canadian English this term is used to represent local coniferous trees, which, according to botanical nomenclature, do not belong to cedars (*Cedrus*) (25il). The term “*pine*”, which in BrE refers to pine (CD), in Canadian

English is used as a generalised name for various coniferous species, which is connected to the specifics of Canadian forest systems.

Some Canadian botanical terms have equivalents in the BrE, e.g., the term “*sugar maple*” (*Acer saccharum*) refers to a special variety of maple, which is used in the production of sugar syrup. In the BrE, it is referred to as “*rock maple*” (Ingram 1869); “*balsam fir*” (*Abies balsamea*) denotes a coniferous tree that has become widespread in the boreal forests of Canada, the equivalent term for which in BrE is “*fir tree*” (MA., s.v. «balsam fir»). Additionally, a substantial part of Canadian botanical terminology is rooted in the languages of indigenous people. For instance, the term “*tamarack*” is used to refer to *Larix laricina* and is of Algonquin origin (The Tenacious Tamarack 2025). In British English, the term is rarely used, as the generic term “*larch*” is used to refer to this plant (Brit., s.v. «larch» 2026). Canadian English generally tends to follow British spelling norms but is also influenced by American spelling. In botanical terminology, this is reflected in the parallel use of certain spelling variants. For example, the British form “*grey alder*” is sometimes used in Canadian texts alongside the Americanized variant “*gray alder*”. Canadian English also retains the original spellings of plant names of local origin, which emphasises the multicultural nature of the Canadian botanical terminology (CD).

In addition, there are certain differences in the use of botanical terms in phraseology and figurative expressions in British and Canadian English. While in BrE it is more traditional to use phraseology related to the rural landscape, e. g., “*to be in full bloom*”, Canadian English phraseology employs terms related to wildlife, e. g., “*to weather the winter like a pine*”. These differences reflect cultural and ecological differences and the uniqueness of symbolic plant codes inherent in British and Canadian linguistic and cultural traditions (20 NII 2026, 100 CI&S 2026).

While comparing the botanical terminology of British and Australian English, the following differences have been identified:

Semantic differences: the term “*gum tree*” in BrE is used to refer to a general group of trees that secrete resin, while in Australian English it denotes *eucalyptus*, i. e., a specific plant common in Australia (Bryant 1992). Another example is the term

“*wattle*”, which in British terminology has a traditional association with wicker structures or fences, while in Australia, this term is used to refer to the *acacia* as one of the important national symbols of the country (Wattle 2026).

Australian botanical terminology, similarly to New Zealand and Canadian terminologies, actively uses its own botanical terms, which are absent in BrE or are replaced by other words or word combinations. A significant part of such terms originates from the languages of Australian Aborigines. In particular, in Australia, the use of the terms “*eucalypt*”, “*wattle*”, “*banksia*”, “*waratah*”, “*jarrah*”, “*mulga*”, “*mallee*”, “*budgeroo*” “*quandong*”, “*karri*” “*boronia*”, “*wollemi*” has become widespread to designate local plants (APS).

Modern botanical terminology continues to develop under the influence of globalisation and scientific progress. The discovery of new plant species, the development of genetics, ecology, and biotechnology, lead to the emergence of new terms and concepts. English, as the language of international scientific communication, actively absorbs and disseminates botanical innovations. At the same time, regional variations of English retain their own botanical features and develop new ones, which demonstrates the combination of global scientific unification and local linguistic diversity.

Therefore, botanical terminology represents not only a system of scientific names, but also an important element of cultural memory and linguistic worldview. It reflects historical processes, geographical conditions, national traditions, and scientific achievements, forming a unique layer of the English lexical system.

Thus, botanical terminology in different varieties of English, namely New Zealand, Canadian, and Australian, was formed under the influence of specific natural and geographical factors, as well as cultural and linguistic factors. That is why the existing differences between British, New Zealand, Canadian, and Australian botanical terminology are manifested in semantic shifts in the meanings of individual terms, the presence of lexical doublets, borrowings from indigenous languages, as well as in the formation of regionally determined botanical terms and phraseological units.

3.5. Idiomatic and symbolic aspects of botanic terminology

Plants are an essential part of human life across all cultures around the world. Each society attaches special significance to the plants that surround them, often linked to various beliefs, events, or their medicinal properties. Over the centuries, people have transferred real and perceived characteristics of plants onto their own identities, a process that is now reflected in their national languages. Consequently, the symbolism of plants, which has evolved alongside society and language, has become deeply incorporated into many linguistic units in the English language. In this section, we will examine the representation of botanical lexicon in the figurative dimension of the ELPW.

Conceptual metaphor is the most pervasive figurative mechanism through which botanical terms enter non-specialist English. According to *Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT)*, introduced by American linguists George Lakoff and Mark Johnson, metaphors are fundamental cognitive structures that allow us to understand abstract concepts through more concrete, physical experiences. Botanic imagery is a perfect example of such an occurrence, as it represents how abstract notions are represented through tangible or visible characteristics of plants [Lakoff 1980, p. 212]. The ROOTS metaphor represents the processes of conception and birth, symbolising a beginning. “*ideas took root*,” “*deep-rooted prejudices*,” “*put down roots*,” “*be at the root of sth.*” (Grbavac 2010, p. 246). The TREE metaphor is particularly rich and culturally stable: “*the family tree*” relates genealogical relations to the tree structure; “*the tree of knowledge*” symbolises the structure of knowledge, while “*to be out of your tree*” encodes irrationality and abnormal behaviour. The semantic colouring of tree metaphors is predominantly positive and draws on the cultural association of trees with deep-rootedness, stability, and endurance. (Grbavac 2010, p. 249). The FRUIT metaphor represents the concepts of productivity and efficiency in the ELPW: “*the fruit of one’s labour*,” “*to bear fruit*,” “*low-hanging fruit*” (Grbavac 2010, p. 251). In a religious context, it may also be associated with temptation: “*Forbidden fruit*” (ODEI).

Simile is probably the most productive stylistic device in terms of botanical imagery use. Similes using botanical comparisons encode physical and character traits through explicit comparison with plant characteristics. There is a vast number of similes that have different semantic colouring (positive or negative) and represent various concepts. The majority of similes relate to physical appearance or facial traits: “*slim as a willow*,” “*thin as a willow rod*” encode thinness and a slender body, while “*as red as a rose*,” “*as red as a beet*” represent blushing and redness of the face. Attractiveness and freshness are conveyed by “*fair as the wild rose*,” “*fresh as a daisy*,” “*fresh as a rose*,” “*fresh as an orchard apple*,” and “*fine as a carrot newly scraped*.” Similes with floristic components may also represent bodily conditions and sensory qualities, e.g., “*deaf as a post*” (hearing loss), “*dry as peanut shells*” (extreme dryness), “*firm as well-cured olives*” (solidity), etc. Some similes encode human mental and emotional states: “*cool as a cucumber*” constitutes calmness, “*keen as a mustard*,” “*hot as mustard*” represent enthusiasm and fiery temper, while “*as limp as a wilted flower*” denotes utter exhaustion. Additionally, some abstract notions, e.g., similarity (*like peas in a pod*) and sudden growth (*like mushrooms*), may be expressed by similes (ODEI; DoI; DS; Brezolin 2023, pp. 55–60; Sommer 1988, pp. 665–670).

Symbolic meaning is also often attributed to botanical terms. Throughout the centuries, some plants have become deeply ingrained in the consciousness of English speakers and acquired special cultural meaning. *The red rose* is the most deeply coded symbol in the English botanical lexicon, representing a whole range of concepts, including romantic love from the medieval period onward, passion, joy, health, tenderness, desire, and beauty, with secondary notes of danger (the thorn) (Stoyanova 2023, p. 67). *The white lily* carries a symbolic meaning of purity and innocence, reflecting human associations with the white colour (RHS Meaning Fl). In the Biblical context, the lily symbolises the Virgin Mary and represents femininity and fertility. In Byzantium, the lily was used by Christianised Franks as a key symbol, leading to its association with royalty (Cirlot 1983, p.189). *The daisy* symbolises innocence; (Ingram 1869, p. 266) and the forget-me-not encodes faithful remembrance. According to John Ingram, the name of forget-me-not originated from a story about a beautiful lady and

a knight, who tried to pluck a flower from the stream for her. However, due to the weight of his armour, he could not get out of the stream and, on his last breath, screamed “Forget me not!” (Ingram 1869, p. 172). *The pansy*, (from French pensée: thought) symbolises thoughtfulness (Pansy Flower Mean.); *the lavender* carries associations of devotion, longevity and domestic virtue (Fărcaș 2015, p. 195). *The oak* symbolises endurance and hospitality (Ingram 1869, p. 313); *The poppy* has acquired in British and Commonwealth English a layer of symbolic meaning specific to that linguistic community: while initially the poppy acted only as a symbol of consolation and oblivion (Ingram 1869, p. 140), since the First World War, *the red poppy* has been the symbol of remembrance for fallen soldiers. (Genter 2025, p. 1). However, particular plants (especially poisonous ones) may represent negative concepts, e.g., *foxgloves* encode insincerity and hidden intentions (Ingram 1869, p. 231), *Angel’s trumpet* – bewitchment and hallucinations (Dietz 2012, p. 295), *moonwort* – forgetfulness (Ingram 1869, p. 276) and *hemlock* – mortality and injustice (Dietz 2012, p. 252).

Idioms are fixed figurative expressions in which botanical terms lose their primary semantic meaning but retain their metaphorical power. There are a great number of idioms with a floral component in English which express a whole range of concepts and semantic colouring, so by grouping them by plant or plant part we may illustrate the diversity of meanings they represent. From roots: “*to take root*” (to become established); “*grassroots*” (ordinary people); “*root cause*” (fundamental origin) (Grbavac 2010, p. 246). From seeds: “*to sow the seeds of discord*” (to initiate, often negative); “*seed money*” (initial capital); “*seedy*” (disreputable) (CD). From leaves: “*to turn over a new leaf*” (to reform); “*to leaf through*” (to browse casually) (Anisimova 2020, p. 92). From buds: “*to nip in the bud*” (to prevent at an early stage). From branches: “*to branch out*” (to diversify); “*branch office*” (subordinate location) (Grbavac 2010, p. 247). From wood: “*dead wood*” (unproductive people or things) (CD). From bananas: “*drive someone bananas*” (annoy or madden); “*go bananas*” (become very excited or angry); “*top banana*” (the most important person in an organisation); “*banana republic*” (a small, politically unstable country); “*banana skin*” (a potential cause of embarrassment or trouble) (CD). From nuts: “*drive someone*

nuts” (irritate greatly); “*go nuts*” (become crazy); “*go off one’s nut*” (go insane) (CD). From lilies: “*gild the lily*” (to spoil something beautiful by unnecessary addition); “*lily-livered*” (cowardly) (Anisimova 2020, p.92; CD). From beans: “*full of beans*” (lively, energetic); “*spill the beans*” (reveal a secret); “*give somebody beans*” (scold or punish severely); “*hill of beans*” (something of little value); “*not to know beans*” (to know nothing about something) (ODEI; 19D). From straws: “*grasp at straws*” (to try any desperate measure); “*the last straw on camel’s back*” (the final problem that causes collapse); “*draw the shortest straw*” (to be the unlucky one) (Alimova 2019, p. 150–151; CD). From roses: “*a bed of roses*” (an easy, comfortable situation); “*come up roses*” (to turn out very well); “*the bloom is off the rose*” (the initial attraction or freshness is gone); “*rose-coloured glasses*” (an excessively optimistic outlook); “*gather life’s roses*” (to enjoy life’s pleasures); “*the days of wine and roses*” (a time of pleasure and indulgence) (Stoyanova 2023, p. 67; CD). From cherries: “*the cherry on the cake*” (a final detail that makes something perfect); “*life is a bowl of cherries*” (life is pleasant and enjoyable); “*cherry-pick*” (to select only the best or most desirable) (CD). These examples demonstrate the remarkable capacity of botanical imagery to capture human traits, actions, and abstract concepts across the full spectrum of experience.

In conclusion, the use of botanical terminology in idiomatic and metaphorical expressions is extremely widespread and botanical symbols play a significant role in world cognition and perception by English speakers.

3.6. Botanical terminology in literary and scientific discourse

Botanical terminology plays a significant role in many aspects of our daily lives, influencing both personal interactions and scientific discussions. For instance, when we choose flowers to give our mothers on special occasions, or when scientists examine the environmental threats facing forests, we engage with botanical language. The same interplay is present in literature, where botanical terms are used in the narratives of fiction and scientific papers. In this section, we will analyse the use of botanical vocabulary in different contexts by comparing examples from literature and scientific

writing. Our research encompasses two literary works – Thomas Hardy’s “*The Woodlanders*” (1887) and Richard Powers’s “*The Overstory*” (2018), and two scientific texts: Judd et al.’s “*Plant Systematics: A Phylogenetic Approach*” (2016, 4th edition) and the research article by Krishnappa and Pandey et. al. published in “*Discover Forests*” (2026).

Thomas Hardy’s “*The Woodlanders*” is often referred to as a novel of “*Character and Environment*,” [Pigoń 2024, p. 439] demonstrating his brilliant ability to present complex human relationships through natural scenery and the use of floristic symbols. The work was provoked by ongoing industrialisation in Great Britain, which endangered the rural areas, with their breathtaking nature. Set in the secluded woodland village of Little Hintock, the plot revolves around a tragic love quadrangle involving the loyal woodsman Giles Winterborne, his childhood love Grace Melbury, the charming but unfaithful Dr Edred Fitzpiers, and the wealthy widow Felice Charmond.

The author utilises a vast number of phytonyms with descriptors to represent the atmosphere of the scenery or of particular scenes happening in the plot: *naked-legged Elm (after being cut), holly-berries in full-red, fair apples, streaked-jacks, golden arcades, etc.* (Hardy 1887) It is particularly noteworthy how Hardy uses natural symbols to depict the character most closely associated with nature in the entire novel: Giles Winterborne. He is portrayed as “*Autumn’s very brother, his face sunburnt to wheat-colour, his hands clammy with apple juice, his hat sprinkled with pips” (Hardy 1887, p. 204). When Grace romanticises him in memory, he rises as “*the fruit-god and the wood-god in alternation.*” (Hardy 1887, p. 274). The author includes various stylistic devices with floristic components in his work, mostly to underscore the beauty of certain plants or to portray human appearance. Similes appear to be especially productive. For instance, Fitzpiers’s exotic intellectual pursuits are compared to *a tropical plant in a hedgerow* (Hardy 1887, p. 50), while Giles’s eyes are depicted *blue as corn-flowers* (Hardy 1887, p. 204). When Marty decides to cut her hair after discovering Giles’s love interest, her locks lie on the table *like ropy weeds*, which emphasises their lifeless appearance and the grief of their owner (Hardy 1887, p. 19).*

At the same time, similes are used in the description of plants, e.g., *apples are red as evening sky* (Hardy 1887, p. 173), *woodbine stem resemble old ropes* (Hardy 1887, p. 310), and *fungi are stemless and yellow like lemons and apricots* (Hardy 1887, p. 308). Additionally, it is important to highlight the symbolic significance of plants in this novel. For example, apples in Giles's garden act as a symbol of decay and loneliness as they accumulate with no one to pick them (Hardy 1887, p. 184). The fall of golden leaves into a "*degraded mass*" is masterfully employed by the author to represent shattered dreams and expectations of Gile and Grace for a happy marriage. (Hardy 1887, p. 215). The author also uses epithets and metaphors, e.g., *chestnut hair, veins of the tree, etiolated arms of ivy, proud trunks, etc.*, (Hardy 1887) in order to breathe life into sometimes seemingly stoic representatives of the floristic realm. Thus, we may conclude that the artistic prose of this novel employs predominantly folk and common botanical names with the vast use of stylistic devices, which represent the scenery, describe human characters and reflect their state and emotions.

Richard Powers's "*The Overstory*" (2018) is a captivating American novel and a classical representative of modern environmental fiction. The plot unfolds through the depiction of the lives of nine different characters, each of whom shares a profound connection to trees. Notably, the very structure of the novel resembles tree rings: nine people from different times and places who could never cross paths still share one thing – a connection to nature. Unlike Hardy, who uses botanical imagery to portray humans, Powers humanises plants themselves, treating them as conscious beings with their own will. From the very beginning of the novel, trees are portrayed as capable of speech that humanity has lost the ability to understand (Powers 2018, p. 7), particularly the Hoel tree; transcending multiple storylines, it represents resilience, kinship and the passage of time. While withstanding a devastating blight, the Chestnut is personified as a patient, purposeful being: "*Keep still. Wait... There's work to do.*" (Powers 2018, p. 15), who is not just a plant in the backyard but a family member: "*Old trees are our parents, and our parents' parents...*" (Powers 2018, p. 11). Particularly intriguing appears to be the image of the seed throughout the plot. The very first plotline begins with a pocketful of seeds, which makes a seed a symbol for all the beginnings (Powers

2018, p. 12). At the same time, one of the stories masterfully combines modern technology with botanical imagery: Mimi Ma's father uses a seed image to explain the potential of microprocessors, showing Neelay a photograph of a fig tree that sprouted from a tiny seed and eventually swallowed an entire temple, representing that even small things can become great over time (Powers 2018, p. 101). Another character, Patricia Westerford, starts a project to collect a seed bank in an attempt to preserve thousands of tree species facing extinction. The vault is filled with "*sleeping seeds ... all waiting for their DNA to awaken.*" (Powers 2018, p. 371). This way, the author treats a seed as a symbol of faith in a better future where human-inflicted damage to the trees may be reversed. As a bright example of modern fiction, "*the Overstory*" actively makes use of scientific botanical terms e. g. *mycorrhizal network*, *nurse log*, *old-growth forest*, *canopy layer*, *root exudate*, *allelopathy*, *cambial layer*, *phloem*, *xylem* (Powers 2018) to vividly depict condition of the natural environment and bring it an educational element. By analysing these two works, we deduced that botanical imagery in artistic prose may not only act as a complementary source of inspiration but also become the very core of the plotline, representing philosophical allegories on the truths of Being.

By contrast, scientific literature presents botanical terminology from a completely different perspective. Judd et al.'s "*Plant Systematics: A Phylogenetic Approach*" (2016, 4th edition) represents the gold standard of contemporary anglophone systematic botany. The work explores approaches to plant systematics and classification, and is characterised by maximal precision, systematic organisation, and explicit definitional practice. The following passage illustrates the density of the scientific register: "*Ulmaceae, Mirbel. Trees; growing by a central plagiotropic axis ... often with tannins, cystoliths present, laticifers absent*" (Judd 2016, p. 386) This passage encodes detailed morphological information relying entirely on the reader's prior familiarity with such terms as plagiotropic axis, cystoliths et. al., which are most likely incomprehensible for the general public. One notable characteristic of botanical terminology in scientific discourse is the heavy reliance on Latin-based nomenclature "*Within the chlorophytes there are three ... clades Chlorophyceae, Ulvophyceae, and*

Trebouxioophyceae” (Judd 2016, p. 161), which ensures unambiguity and precision necessary in this context. The other features are monosemy and stylistic neutrality. Unlike the figurative floristic symbols found in literary works, the scientific botanical context strives for absolute clarity. Each term is meant to have exactly one denotative meaning, entirely devoid of emotional, expressive, or associative connotations: “*Like fireweed... Tolmiea menziesii (Saxifragaceae) contains a diploid and autopolyploid*” (Judd 2016, p. 150). We may also observe reliance on statistical data in the representation of botanical terms in scientific works: “*Hybridization may occur in about 25% of plant species...*” (Judd 2016, p. 135). Thus, unlike literary works which employ botanical terms for emotive and symbolic purposes, scientific literature puts emphasis on informativeness, clarity and universality.

The research article “Trends and patterns in microbial research within forest ecosystems: bibliometric insights from 2010 to 2025” offers additional insight concerning the use of botanical nomenclature. Firstly, it is a highly definitional and straightforward character of its representation: “*Forests are vital sources of renewable energy that contribute to global biodiversity.*” (Krishnappa 2026, p. 1). Secondly, there is term accumulation: while in literary discourse phytonyms and floristic imagery are deployed occasionally, scientific articles prioritise including more information in a concise manner, leading to comprehensive lists of botanical terms e. g. “*...foliage, wood of living trees, bark surface, ground vegetation, roots and rhizosphere...*” (Krishnappa 2026, p. 2).

In conclusion, botanical terminology has a widely applicable, ubiquitous nature. While it is actively used across various contexts, it manifests itself in different ways depending on the genre, the time period and the author’s personal views and objectives.

CONCLUSION TO CHAPTER 3

In this chapter, we explored the multifaceted nature of English botanical terminology, analysing its structural patterns, regional variations, and usage across different types of discourse. In the first section, we examined the primary word-formation processes that constitute the foundation of botanical lexicon. It was

determined that formal scientific naming heavily relies on affixation of Greek and Latin origin for exact precision. At the same time, native English compounding and conversion are highly productive for creating culturally rich plant names and generally comprehensible botanical terms, e. g., “to fruit”. By classifying these terms into subgroups based on morphological and semantic criteria, we specified the scope of concepts and notions that are represented by botanical terms.

Then, we conducted comparative research which illustrated the differences in botanical terminologies among English varieties, including British, American, New Zealand, Canadian, and Australian Englishes. We concluded that discrepancies mostly occur in the conceptualisation of the same plants or phenomena by different English-speaking nations and the application of a single term to denote different concepts. Additionally, unique terminological units, which emerged due to the adoption of indigenous people’s words, the presence of unique plants on particular territories and other historical and cultural causes were explored.

Beyond strict botanical identification, we also analysed the figurative power of these terms. Conceptual metaphors, similes, and idioms with floral components are deeply embedded in the English language, allowing speakers to express abstract human emotions, character traits, physical characteristics, and societal concepts. It was discovered that some plants also serve as symbols of various abstract notions, which is connected to their physical properties, historical uses, or the legends associated with them. Finally, by contrasting literary and scientific texts, we observed how botanical language adapts to a particular context and, subsequently, performs different functions. While scientific discourse employs botanical terms primarily to inform the recipient, resulting in absolute clarity, strict monosemy and use of Latin-based nomenclature, fiction utilises botanical imagery as a constituent part of stylistic devices and idiomatic expressions to portray human experiences and personify the natural world.

In conclusion, botanical terminology is much more than a rigid, scientific classification system. It is a dynamic, evolving layer of the English language that

successfully bridges the gap between objective scientific observation and the rich, cultural, and everyday experiences of humanity.

CONCLUSION

In this thesis, botanical terms were explored as a multi-layered system of the English language. Throughout the research, a total of 552 botanical terms and expressions with floral components were identified and analysed, categorised into three groups, including scientific terms (Appendix 1), common plant designations (Appendix 2), and idiomatic expressions (Appendix 3). This study explores botanical terminology through the lens of its contextual application across diverse discourses and English varieties, providing a comprehensive overview of the historical and cultural foundations of the field. While the linguistic richness of botanical terms offers endless opportunities for further research, this work serves as primary evidence that botanical terminology is a complex entity with a wide range of applications, valued not only for its descriptive and informative function but for expressive and figurative force.

The theoretical overview has shown that botanical terminology possesses a dual nature. On the one hand, it encompasses a rigid scientific nomenclature based predominantly on Latin, whose primary purpose is to ensure universality, precision, and comprehensibility among specialists worldwide. From this point of view, botanical terms perform an informative function and aim to eliminate ambiguity in scientific communication. On the other hand, this terminological system includes native English units (mainly plant names) which are motivated by metaphorical thinking, cultural associations, traditional beliefs, and everyday observations of language speakers. These names often emerge through analogies with animals, objects, colours, or human activities and therefore reflect the worldview and collective experience of particular communities. Consequently, botanical terminology combines seemingly opposite characteristics, including monosemanticity and semantic variability, stylistic neutrality and expressiveness, scientific precision and metaphorical richness. This duality makes botanical terminology a particularly valuable object of linguistic study.

The research has also explored botanical terminology in the context of the English language picture of the world, i.e., various English-speaking varieties. Contrary to the widespread belief that English is a culturally neutral, international language, English

is, in fact, impregnated by a specific set of beliefs and values, transmitting a specific vision of reality formed over centuries under various historical, social, religious, and cultural influences. Fundamental English values and patterns of perception are reflected in numerous language expressions characteristic of English-speaking societies. As the British Empire expanded across different continents, the English language spread worldwide and interacted with diverse cultures, climates, and natural environments. This process resulted in the emergence of numerous native and non-native varieties of English, each contributing to the development of botanical terminology. Consequently, botanical vocabulary in English reflects not only the British linguistic tradition but also the cultural experiences and ecological realities of English-speaking communities all over the world.

The analysis of plant names has revealed that botanical terminology is formed through a wide range of naming motivations. Many plant names are based on observable physical characteristics such as colour, shape, smell, taste, texture, or general appearance. Other names originate from more abstract features, including place of origin, life cycle, growth behaviour, or medicinal properties. Also, numerous plant designations are connected with aspects of human daily life, like religion, holidays, folklore, domestic animals, tools, and household objects associated with particular plants in language-speakers' consciousness. Therefore, plant names reflect the surrounding reality of language speakers, the spheres of their practical and cultural interests at a particular historical stage, as well as the scope of knowledge available, which enabled them to establish logical associations between plant properties and elements of their physical or cultural environment. Additionally, the practice of naming plants after notable figures illustrates human capacity to create symbolic connections between the plant and human realms while recognising the significance of plants in honouring the memory of influential individuals through botanical names.

Special attention in this thesis was devoted to scientific botanical terminology, which plays a crucial role in the interpretation and conceptualisation of reality by humans. Scientific botanical terms provide opportunities to describe not only

biological processes pertaining exclusively to plants but also natural phenomena that we observe every day, and that shape our reality. The study has shown that different word-formation patterns used in the creation of botanical terms fulfil distinct linguistic functions, including ensuring precision, consistency, economy of expression, and cultural colouring. As a result, botanical terminology functions as a coherent and well-structured lexical system capable of representing both objective reality and subjective human interpretation through language.

Furthermore, we explored a number of plant symbols and idiomatic expressions that reflect processes of human cognition, associative thinking, and cultural memory transmitted from generation to generation, reflected in the language. Such expressions have become deeply rooted in English-speaking consciousness and now act as an inseparable part of the language itself. Floristic idioms and symbolic meanings demonstrate how closely human thought is connected with the natural world and how botanical imagery is employed to conceptualise emotions, character traits, social relations, and abstract ideas. Appendix 3 presents a collection of common idiomatic expressions with floristic components that have become integral to modern English and are widely used by English speakers throughout the world.

The comparative analysis of botanical terminology in different English varieties has shown that, despite sharing a common linguistic foundation, each variation of botanical lexicon demonstrates unique lexical, semantic, and cultural features. Local flora, historical development, indigenous influences, and cultural traditions significantly affected the formation and usage of botanical vocabulary in different regions and are reflected in assimilated borrowings from indigenous languages, the emergence of lexical doublets and terminological polysemy. These distinctions greatly contribute to the richness of the English language, enabling it to represent unique objects, phenomena, and cultural experiences inherent to different English-speaking communities.

In order to compare the use of botanical terminology across different types of discourse, we analysed two literary works and two scientific texts. This comparison

revealed that botanical terms serve different functions depending on the communicative context. In literary discourse, botanical vocabulary is primarily employed to create imagery, symbolism, emotional atmosphere, and character representation through devices like metaphors, similes, and personification. In some cases, botanical images act as a basis of the whole plotline, reflecting their potential for storytelling. In contrast, scientific discourse emphasises precision, clarity, consistency, and universality, utilising specialised terminology and Latin-based nomenclature to convey information objectively. This analysis, one more time, illustrates the multifaceted nature of botanic terms and a vast list of functions they perform.

In conclusion, this thesis confirms the significant linguistic and cultural value of botanical terminology within the English language picture of the world. The research demonstrates that botanical terms serve not merely as scientific designations but also as important carriers of historical memory, cultural symbolism, and collective human experience. The findings of this work contribute to a deeper understanding of the relationship between language, culture, and cognition while also creating a foundation for further research in linguistics, cultural studies, cognitive semantics, and terminology studies.

SUMMARY

У даній кваліфікаційній роботі було досліджено ботанічні терміни як структурні одиниці ботанічної термінології англійської мови, що охоплює наукові терміни, загальновживані назви рослин і фразеологічні одиниці з флористичним компонентом. До аналізу залучено 552 ботанічні одиниці, що були розглянуті у різних контекстах функціонування, включаючи регіональні особливості. Дослідження довело, що ботанічні терміни слугують не лише задля позначення об'єктів та явищ природного оточення, а й являють собою вагомую частину культурної спадщини народів і відображають особливості їх мовних картин світу. Робота також засвідчила значний потенціал цієї тематики для подальших лінгвістичних дослідження, особливо у сфері культурної мотивації найменування рослин та їх символічного потенціалу.

З'ясовано, що ботанічна термінологія має подвійну природу. З одного боку, вона представлена суворою науковою номенклатурою на латинській основі, покликаною забезпечити точність, однозначність і універсальність наукової комунікації. З іншого, вона включає в себе систему найменувань рослин та загальновживаних ботанічних термінів, що формуються під впливом асоціативного мислення, культурних традицій, вірувань і щоденного досвіду носіїв мови. Таким чином, ботанічна термінологія фігурує у всіх сферах життя людини, що свідчить про її багатофункціональність та потенціал.

Окрему увагу приділено ботанічній термінології у контексті англійської картини світу. У ході дослідження було з'ясовано, що англійська мова, на відміну від загальноприйнятої думки сформованої під впливом глобалізаційних процесів, є культурно та ідеологічно забарвленою і відображає систему цінностей, світогляд та історичний досвід її носіїв. Поширення англійської у світі та її взаємодія з різними культурами, природним середовищем і мовами спричинили виникнення численних варіацій англійської мови, кожна з яких зробила свій внесок у формування та розвиток ботанічної лексики. Наслідком цього стали регіональні особливості ботанічної термінології, що виражаються у

наявності різних термінів на позначення однієї і тієї ж рослини або явища у різних регіонах, унікальних запозичень з мов корінних народів і термінологічної полісемії.

Аналіз рослинних назв показав, що в їхній основі лежать різноманітні мотиваційні ознаки. Найчастіше назви пов'язані із зовнішніми характеристиками рослин (кольором, формою, запахом, лікарськими або поведінковими властивостями). Назви рослин можуть також відображати релігійні уявлення, народні звичаї, побут, особливості господарювання і навіть конкретні історичні події. Таким чином, ботанічна лексика постає своєрідним дзеркалом способу життя та системи знань певного суспільства, оскільки номінація рослин нерозривно пов'язана з прагненням людини пояснювати навколишній світ через близькі й зрозумілі асоціації.

Важливим аспектом роботи стало вивчення символічного та фразеологічного вживання рослинних назв. Було з'ясовано, що флористичні образи глибоко вкорінені в англійській свідомості й активно слугують для вираження емоцій, опису характеру людини, суспільних відносин та абстрактних понять. Ботанічні компоненти у складі фразеологізмів яскраво демонструють нерозривний зв'язок між мовою, культурою і процесами мислення. Порівняння художнього та наукового дискурсів засвідчило, що ботанічна термінологія виконує різні функції залежно від комунікативної мети: у художніх текстах вона творить образність і символіку, у наукових – забезпечує точність і системність викладу.

Отже, результати дослідження підтверджують вагому мовну та культурну цінність ботанічної термінології в англійській мові. Ботанічні терміни — це не лише наукові одиниці, а й носії історичного досвіду, культурних уявлень і колективної пам'яті. Проведена робота сприяє глибшому розумінню взаємозв'язку між мовою, культурою та пізнанням і закладає підґрунтя для подальших досліджень у галузі лінгвістики, когнітивної семантики й термінознавства.

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APPENDIX 1

SCIENTIFIC BOTANICAL TERMS

1. **Above-ground biomass** – the total living organic matter in the shoots, stems, leaves, and reproductive organs of plants in a given area, expressed per unit area.
2. **Abscission** – the shedding of plant organs such as leaves, flowers, fruits, or seeds by formation of a specialised separation zone (abscission zone).
3. **Acaulescent** – lacking an obvious aerial stem; appearing stemless, with leaves arising at or near ground level.
4. **Achlorophyllous** – lacking chlorophyll; describing plants or plant parts that are unable to photosynthesise.
5. **agg.** – abbreviation for aggregate; used to denote a group of closely related species or microspecies treated as a collective unit.
6. **Allelopathic compound** – a chemical substance produced and released by one plant that inhibits the germination, growth, or reproduction of another plant.
7. **Allelopathy** – the inhibition of growth or germination of one plant by chemical substances released by another.
8. **Alpine** – relating to or occurring in the zone above the treeline in mountains, characterised by low temperatures, high radiation, and dwarf vegetation.
9. **Amber inclusion** – a plant fragment or organ preserved in fossilised tree resin (amber), often retaining exceptional three-dimensional detail.
10. **Ampliate** – enlarged.
11. **Anemochory** – seed or fruit dispersal by wind; associated with structures such as wings, plumes, or balloon-like enclosures.
12. **Anemophily** – pollination by wind; associated with small, inconspicuous flowers producing large quantities of light, smooth pollen.
13. **Angiosperm** – a flowering plant whose seeds are enclosed within a ripened ovary (fruit); the dominant group of land plants, comprising about 300,000 species.

14. **Annual ring (literary)** – the visible growth ring in a tree's cross-section used both literally (in dendrochronology) and as a literary symbol of time passing and life recorded in a tree's body, as in Powers's *The Overstory*.
15. **Aperturate** – 1. with an opening, not closed; 2. of a pollen grain with one or more apertures.
16. **Apetalous** – lacking petals; describing flowers from which petals are absent, either by reduction or evolutionary loss.
17. **Apical dominance** – the inhibition of lateral bud growth by the apical meristem, mediated primarily by auxin, resulting in a main stem growing faster than lateral branches.
18. **Apical meristem** – the meristematic tissue at the tip of a root or shoot, responsible for primary elongation growth.
19. **Apomixis** – a form of plant reproduction in which seeds are produced without the usual method of sexual fusion.
20. **Autophyte** – a plant synthesising its own food from carbon dioxide
21. **Axil** – the upper angle between a leaf or branch and the stem from which it grows; the position from which axillary buds develop.
22. **Bark** – the outer protective covering of woody stems and roots, comprising all tissues external to the vascular cambium.
23. **Bark beetle** – any beetle of the family Scolytidae (or Curculionidae: Scolytinae) that bores beneath the bark of trees, potentially killing them and transmitting fungal pathogens.
24. **Beech forest** – forests in New Zealand, dominated by *Nothofagus* (southern beech) species.
25. **Biennial** – taking two years from seedling stage to maturity, seed-set, and death.
26. **Biferous** – flowering or fruiting twice a year.
27. **Binomial** – the two-part (genus + specific epithet) Latin name of a species, introduced by Linnaeus as the standard system for biological nomenclature.

28. **Biodiversity** – the variety of life on Earth at all levels, from genes to ecosystems, including the diversity of species, genetic variation within species, and ecosystem diversity.
29. **Biological invasion** – the establishment and spread of a non-native species in a new region, often following human-mediated introduction.
30. **Biome** – a large-scale ecological community characterised by its dominant vegetation type and climate, such as tropical rainforest, tundra, or desert.
31. **Bipetalous** – with two petals.
32. **Bipinnate** – twice pinnate; having the leaves pinnately divided.
33. **Bole** – the trunk of a tree, particularly the main stem below the lowest branch.
34. **Boreal forest** – the transcontinental belt of coniferous forest in the subarctic and cool temperate zones of Canada, Russia, and Scandinavia, dominated by spruce, fir, and pine; also called taiga.
35. **Bract** – a modified leaf associated with an inflorescence or flower, often differing from foliage leaves in size, shape, or colour.
36. **Bracteole** – a small bract borne on a flower stalk (pedicel) below the flower itself.
37. **Bryology** – the branch of botany studying bryophytes
38. **Bud** – an undeveloped shoot consisting of meristematic tissue enclosed by protective scales or leaves, capable of developing into a stem, leaf, or flower.
39. **Budding** – a form of grafting in which a single bud with a small portion of bark is transferred from one plant (scion) to another (rootstock).
40. **Bulb** – a short underground stem enclosed by fleshy leaf bases storing nutrients and serving as a vegetative propagule, as in onion and tulip.
41. **Bullate** – having a blistered or puckered surface appearance, with raised areas between the veins.
42. **Bush regeneration** – An environmental practice of restoring native Australian vegetation by controlling invasive plants and fostering natural regeneration processes.

43. **Canopy closure** – the degree to which the crowns of adjacent trees or shrubs overlap, reducing light penetration to the understorey; expressed as a percentage of sky obscured.
44. **Canopy layer** – the uppermost layer of a forest, formed by the crowns of the tallest trees, which intercepts most of the incoming solar radiation.
45. **Carbon flux** – The movement of carbon between different pools in an ecosystem.
46. **Carinate** – with a keel
47. **Caulescent** – having a well-developed, visible aerial stem.
48. **Cellulose** – a structural polysaccharide forming the primary component of plant cell walls, composed of glucose units linked by glycosidic bonds.
49. **Ceraceous** – waxy, either in appearance or in colour (very pale whitish cream).
50. **cf.** – abbreviation for compare; used in botanical nomenclature to indicate a tentative or approximate identification.
51. **Chaparral** – dense, drought-adapted shrubland of California and the American Southwest.
52. **Chlorophyll** – the green pigment in plant cells that makes photosynthesis possible.
53. **Chlorophyte** – any of the green algae from Chlorophyta division.
54. **Chloroplast** – a plastid containing the green pigment chlorophyll necessary for photosynthesis.
55. **Chromoplast** – a plastid containing a pigment, especially the red, orange or yellow pigments known as carotenoids.
56. **Clade** – a group of organisms comprising an ancestor and all of its descendants, forming a monophyletic group in phylogenetic analysis.
57. **Class** – a taxonomic rank below phylum and above order, grouping related orders.

58. **Climax** – the relatively stable end-point of ecological succession in a given climate, theoretically in equilibrium with the prevailing environmental conditions.
59. **Community** – an assemblage of populations of different species living in the same area and interacting with one another.
60. **Compression fossil** – a plant fossil formed by compression of organic material between sediment layers, preserving a flat impression of the original structure.
61. **Coniferous** – bearing cones.
62. **Conocarpium** – a multiple fruit, i. e., many fruits on a common receptacle, as in a strawberry.
63. **Coppice** – a woodland management system in which trees are cut to near ground level on a regular cycle to stimulate multiple straight shoots.
64. **Cordate** – heart-shaped; with a basal notch and two rounded lobes.
65. **Cork** – the outer layer of bark, composed of dead cells with suberised walls impermeable to water and gases.
66. **Cork cambium** – a lateral meristematic tissue in woody plants responsible for secondary growth, producing protective cork (phellem) on the outside and phelloderm on the inside.
67. **Cortex** – the tissue in roots and stems between the epidermis and the vascular cylinder.
68. **Cosmopolitan** – occurring naturally in most parts of the world; having a very wide global distribution.
69. **Cotyledon** – the seed leaf of an embryo, the first leaf or leaves to emerge from a germinating seed, sometimes serving as food storage organs.
70. **Crenate** – having rounded teeth or scalloped margins.
71. **Cross-pollination** – pollination by pollen from a flower on a different individual of the same species, promoting genetic recombination.
72. **Cryophyte** – an organism, especially an alga or moss, that grows on snow or ice.

73. **Cultivar** – a cultivated plant variety that has been selected and maintained by humans for specific desirable characteristics.
74. **Cuticle** – a waxy, waterproof layer, reducing water loss from plant surfaces.
75. **Cutting** – a portion of stem, root, or leaf separated from a parent plant and induced to form roots, used as a vegetative propagation method.
76. **cv.** – abbreviation for cultivar; a cultivated plant variety selected for desirable characteristics and maintained by selective propagation.
77. **Cyanobacterium** – a type of photosynthetic, prokaryotic microorganism.
78. **Cystolith** – a microscopic crystalline outgrowth, typically composed of calcium carbonate, formed on the inner surface of the cell wall within specialized epidermal cells called lithocysts.
79. **Deciduous** – shedding leaves seasonally, typically in autumn in temperate climates.
80. **Decumbent** – reclining or lying on the ground with the tip ascending; describing stems that grow horizontally before curving upward.
81. **Dendrochronology** – the science of dating tree rings, using annual growth increments to establish chronologies and reconstruct past climate conditions.
82. **Dentate** – toothed along the margin, with teeth pointing outward rather than forward.
83. **Dicotyledon** – a member of the class Dicotyledoneae, characterised by two seed leaves (cotyledons) in the embryo.
84. **Digonous** – with two angles.
85. **Discoidal** – resembling a disc, i.e. thin, flat, and circular.
86. **Disjunct distribution** – a distribution pattern in which a species occurs in two or more geographically separated areas, without intermediate populations.
87. **Dispersal** – the process of scattering seeds away from the parent plant, by means of the wind, birds, animals, etc.
88. **Disseminule** – any part of the plant used in distribution: seed, fruit, part of fruit or any other part that can grow plantlets.

89. **Dissilient** – bursting apart, as in some ripe fruit.
90. **Dormancy** – a state of reduced metabolic activity and suspended growth in seeds, buds, or other plant structures, typically serving as a survival mechanism during unfavourable conditions.
91. **Double fertilisation** – a process unique to angiosperms in which two sperm cells are involved: one fertilises the egg cell to form the embryo, the other fuses with the polar nuclei to form the triploid endosperm.
92. **Ecotype** – a population of a species adapted to a particular local environment, showing heritable physiological or morphological differences from other populations of the same species.
93. **Elliptic** – ellipse-shaped; oval with the widest part at or near the middle, tapering equally toward both ends.
94. **Embryogenesis** – the process of embryo formation and development from the zygote following fertilisation.
95. **Endangered** – a conservation status indicating a species faces a very high risk of extinction in the wild.
96. **Endemic** – naturally restricted to a specific geographic region and found nowhere else.
97. **Endozoochory** – seed dispersal type in which seeds are ingested by animals along with the fruit flesh and passed undigested in the faeces.
98. **Entomophily** – pollination by insects; the most common pollination syndrome in angiosperms, often associated with colourful petals and nectar rewards.
99. **Epiblast** – (in grasses) 1. the first and not-developing leaf of the plumule; 2. the rudimentary second cotyledon.
100. **Epicarp** – the outermost layer of a multi-layered fruit wall.
101. **Epicotyl** – the young stem above the cotyledons.
102. **Epidermis** – the outermost layer of cells of a plant organ, forming a protective covering.

103. **Epipeltate** – of any stalked structure, but especially leaves or stamens, in which the base of the organ is on the upper face and the stalk is attached to the abaxial surface.
104. **Epiphyte** – a plant growing on the surface of another plant (host) for physical support without deriving nutrients from it; from Greek epi- (upon) + phyton (plant).
105. **Epizoochory** – dispersal of plants by the exterior of animals.
106. **Exstipulate** – lacking stipules.
107. **Extraradical mycelium** – the portion of a mycorrhizal fungus's mycelium that extends beyond the root surface into the surrounding soil, foraging for nutrients.
108. **f.** – abbreviation for forma; the lowest formal taxonomic rank, designating plants with minor morphological variants (e.g. flower colour differences) within a variety.
109. **Fabaceous** – pertaining to or characteristic of the family Fabaceae.
110. **Family** – a taxonomic rank below order and above genus, grouping related genera; botanical families end in -aceae.
111. **Farinaceous** – 1. mealy, resembling flour; 2. having surface covered with small white particles.
112. **Fastigiate** – bearing branches that are nearly erect and parallel to the main axis, giving a narrow columnar form to the plant.
113. **Fertilisation** – The fusion of male and female gametes to form a zygote; in angiosperms, double fertilisation produces both the embryo and endosperm.
114. **Fibre** – A type of sclerenchyma cell that is long, narrow, and thick-walled, providing mechanical strength in stems, leaves, and bark.
115. **Fine root** – A small-diameter root (typically less than 2 mm) responsible for water and nutrient uptake; high turnover rates make fine roots a significant component of ecosystem carbon flux.
116. **Flora** – The plant species of a particular region or time period; also a systematic publication describing those species.
117. **Floriferous** – Bearing numerous flowers.

118. **Flower** – The reproductive structure of angiosperms, typically consisting of sepals, petals, stamens, and pistil, adapted for pollination and seed production.
119. **Flower head** – A dense cluster of small flowers (florets) on a common receptacle, as in members of the family Asteraceae; a type of inflorescence called a capitulum.
120. **Foliage** – the leaves of a plant, shrub, or tree, considered collectively.
121. **Forma** – the lowest formal taxonomic rank, designating plants with trivial variants (e.g. flower colour) found sporadically within a population.
122. **Fossil flora** – the assemblage of plant fossils found in a particular geological formation, used to reconstruct past vegetation and climate.
123. **Frost-hardy** – describing plants able to withstand freezing temperatures without damage.
124. **Fructiferous** – bearing fruit.
125. **Fruit** – a mature ovary with its enclosed seeds and sometimes with attached external structures.
126. **Furcate** – forked with sharp terminal lobes.
127. **Gametophyte** – the haploid, multicellular phase in the life cycle of plants and algae that produces sexual gametes (eggs and sperm) through mitosis.
128. **GBIF** – Global Biodiversity Information Facility; an international network providing open access to data on all types of life on Earth, including botanical specimen records.
129. **Genus** – a taxonomic rank below family, grouping closely related species sharing a common morphological heritage; the first element of a binomial name.
130. **Geocarpy** – a phenomenon when plants bury the fruit below ground to protect it from predators or environmental stress.
131. **Germination** – the process by which a seed resumes active growth, emerging from dormancy to produce a seedling upon receiving appropriate environmental signals.
132. **Grafting** – a horticultural technique in which the tissues of two plants are joined so that they grow as a unit.

133. **Guard cell** – one of a pair of specialised epidermal cells that regulate gas exchange and transpiration by opening and closing stomatal pores.
134. **Guttation** – the exudation of liquid water from hydathodes at leaf margins, occurring when transpiration is low and root pressure high.
135. **Gymnosperm** – a seed plant whose seeds are not enclosed in an ovary; includes conifers and cycads.
136. **Habitat** – the natural environment in which a particular organism normally lives, characterised by its physical and biological features.
137. **Half-hardy** – describing plants that can tolerate cool but not freezing temperatures, requiring frost protection in temperate climates.
138. **Halophyte** – a plant adapted to grow in saline soils or habitats, with physiological mechanisms to tolerate high salt concentrations.
139. **Hardening off** – the process of gradually acclimatising plants grown under protection to outdoor conditions before transplanting.
140. **Hastate** – halberd-shaped; with two basal lobes pointing outward at right angles.
141. **Heartwood** – the dense, non-conducting, often darker central wood of a tree trunk, durable and resistant to decay.
142. **hedgerow** – A linear strip of woody vegetation (shrubs and trees) defining field boundaries in the British agricultural landscape, supporting a distinctive flora and wildlife.
143. **Heirloom variety** – an open-pollinated cultivar that has been maintained by informal seed saving over many generations, often with historical or cultural significance.
144. **Herb** – a plant with non-woody stems that die back to the ground after flowering; also, a plant valued for its culinary or medicinal properties.
145. **Herbaceous** – having the nature of an herb.
146. **Heterogonous** – with flowers on different plants differing in the relative length of pistil and stamens.

147. **Hispid** – covered with stiff, bristle-like hairs or bristles; rougher and harsher than pilose.
148. **Holotype** – the single physical specimen (or illustration) designated by an author to define a new species or lower-ranked taxon in its original description.
149. **hort.** – abbreviation for the Latin hortorum (of gardens); used to indicate a name applied in horticulture but not validly published.
150. **Hybrid** – a plant resulting from the crossing of two genetically distinct parents, typically of different species.
151. **Hydrochory** – seed or fruit dispersal by water, characteristic of riparian and aquatic species.
152. **Hydrophily** – pollination by water, occurring in some aquatic plant species.
153. **Hydrophyte** – a plant adapted to grow in water or very wet habitats, often with aerenchyma facilitating gas exchange.
154. **Hypocotyl** – the embryonic stem of a germinating plant, located directly below the cotyledons (seed leaves) and above the radicle (root).
155. **Hypogynous** – with the sepals, petals and stamens are inserted below the ovary
156. **Hypostomatous** – bearing stomata only on the lower (abaxial) surface of the leaf.
157. **ined.** – abbreviation for the Latin ineditus (unpublished); used to indicate a name that has not yet been formally published.
158. **Inflorescence** – the arrangement of flowers on a stem.
159. **Internode** – the region of a stem between two successive nodes.
160. **Invasive species** – a non-native species that establishes and spreads in an introduced range, causing adverse effects on biodiversity, ecosystems, or human welfare.
161. **Isotype** – a duplicate of the holotype, collected from the same plant at the same time and place as the holotype.

162. **IUCN** – International Union for Conservation of Nature; the global authority on the status of the natural world, publisher of the Red List of threatened species.
163. **Kingdom** – the highest principal rank in the biological classification hierarchy, above phylum; plants belong to kingdom Plantae.
164. **Lactiferous** – latex-bearing.
165. **Lamina** – the blade of a leaf; the expanded, flattened photosynthetic portion of a leaf.
166. **Lanceolate** – lance-shaped; several times longer than wide, broadest below the middle and tapering to each end.
167. **Landrace** – a traditional, locally adapted variety of a domesticated plant species, developed over generations by farmers without formal breeding programmes.
168. **Laticifer** – a specialized, elongated plant cell or series of interconnected cells that produce, store, and transport latex (a milky, often sticky sap) within the plant.
169. **Layering** – a propagation technique in which a stem is encouraged to produce roots while still attached to the parent plant, then severed and grown independently.
170. **Leaf** – the principal photosynthetic organ of vascular plants, typically flat and green, borne on the stem.
171. **Leaf blade** – the expanded, flat photosynthetic portion of a leaf (lamina), as distinct from the petiole and stipules.
172. **Leaf litter** – the layer of fallen dead leaves and other organic material on the soil surface, contributing to humus formation and nutrient cycling.
173. **Lectotype** – a specimen subsequently selected from the original material to serve as the nomenclatural type when no holotype was designated.
174. **Liliaceous** – resembling a lily flower.
175. **Linear** – very narrow and uniform in width throughout, with nearly parallel sides; much longer than wide.
176. **Lithophyte** – plant growing on rock.

177. **Littoral** – relating to or inhabiting the shore zone of a lake or sea; the zone between the high- and low-water marks.
178. **Long-distance dispersal** – the movement of seeds, fruits, or propagules over distances far greater than typical for a species, enabling colonisation of remote areas.
179. **Lyrate** – lyre-shaped; pinnatifid with a large terminal lobe and progressively smaller lateral lobes toward the base.
180. **Macrofossil** – a plant fossil large enough to be studied without a microscope, including leaves, fruits, seeds, and wood fragments.
181. **Mericarp** – each of the two halves of the fruit of plants in the family Apiaceae, each derived from one carpel; they split apart at maturity to release the seeds.
182. **Meristem** – a zone of undifferentiated, actively dividing cells in a plant, responsible for growth.
183. **Mesophyll** – the photosynthetic parenchyma tissue of a leaf between the upper and lower epidermis, comprising palisade and spongy mesophyll.
184. **Monocotyledon** – a member of the class Monocotyledonae, characterised by a single seed leaf (cotyledon) in the embryo, parallel leaf venation, and floral parts in threes.
185. **Monoecious** – describing a plant species bearing separate male and female flowers on the same individual.
186. **Monophyletic** – describing a group that includes an ancestor and all of its descendants; the only type of group recognised as natural in cladistic classification.
187. **Monophyllous** – having only one leaf or leaflike part
188. **Monopodial** – describing a branching pattern in which a single main axis continues indefinitely, with lateral branches arising from its sides.
189. **Monotypic** – (of genera) containing only one species.
190. **Mould** – a generic biological term for various types of fungi that grow in multicellular filaments called hyphae, often forming fuzzy coatings on organic matter.

191. **Mycorrhizal association** – a symbiotic relationship between plant roots and soil fungi, in which the fungus enhances the plant's mineral and water uptake in exchange for photosynthetic sugars.
192. **Mycorrhizal network** – a web of fungal hyphae connecting the root systems of multiple plants in a community, enabling the transfer of carbon, nutrients, and water between trees; sometimes called the 'wood wide web'.
193. **Myrmecochory** – seed dispersal by ants, facilitated by nutrient-rich appendages (elaiosomes) on the seed that ants collect as food.
194. **Napoid** – shaped like a turnip, i.e. broadly ovoid and tapering to a point.
195. **Niche** – the functional role and position of an organism in its ecosystem, encompassing its resource use, environmental tolerances, and interactions.
196. **Node** – the point on a stem at which one or more leaves, branches, or roots are attached.
197. **Nurse log** – a fallen, decaying log that provides substrate, moisture, and nutrients supporting the germination and establishment of seedlings in forest ecosystems.
198. **Nursery stock** – plants grown in a nursery for sale or transplanting, including trees, shrubs, perennials, and bedding plants.
199. **Obovate** – inversely ovate; egg-shaped with the broader end toward the apex.
200. **Obovoid** – egg-shaped.
201. **Old-growth forest** – a forest that has attained great age without significant disturbance, characterised by large trees, standing dead wood, fallen logs, and complex multi-layered canopy.
202. **Order** – a taxonomic rank below class and above family, grouping related families.
203. **Ornithophily** – pollination by birds.
204. **Osmosis** – the movement of water through a selectively permeable membrane from a region of lower solute concentration to one of higher solute concentration.

205. **Ovary** – the basal part of the pistil enclosing the ovules; after fertilisation it develops into the fruit.
206. **Ovate** – egg-shaped in outline, with the broadest part below the middle; describing a flat structure such as a leaf.
207. **Overstory** – the uppermost layer of foliage in a forest, consisting of the tallest trees that form the canopy
208. **Ovule** – the structure within the ovary that contains the female gametophyte and after fertilisation develops into a seed.
209. **Palisade cell** – elongated, column-shaped mesophyll cells below the upper epidermis, densely packed with chloroplasts and specialised for photosynthesis.
210. **Palmate** – lobed or divided in a hand-like fashion with lobes or leaflets radiating from a central point.
211. **Palynology** – the scientific study of pollen and spores, both living and fossil.
212. **Paraphyletic** – describing a group that includes an ancestor and some but not all of its descendants.
213. **Paratype** – any specimen cited in the original description of a species other than the holotype or isotypes.
214. **Pedicel** – the stalk of an individual flower within an inflorescence.
215. **Peduncle** – the main stalk of an inflorescence or the stalk of a solitary flower.
216. **Perennial** – living for a number of years.
217. **Pericarp** – the wall of a mature fruit, derived from the ovary wall.
218. **Perigynous** – describing a flower in which the stamens, petals, and sepals are borne on a ring or cup-shaped extension of the receptacle (the base of the flower) that surrounds the gynoecium (pistil).
219. **Petal** – one of the often-colourful modified leaves of the corolla of a flower, typically serving to attract pollinators.
220. **Petaloid** – 1. formed or coloured like a petal; 2. (of stamens) without filament/anther distinction, but like a petal with marginal microsporangia.

221. **Petiole** – the stalk attaching the leaf blade to the stem node; it conducts water and nutrients between stem and leaf.
222. **Phelloderm** – the living parenchymatous tissue produced to the inside by the cork cambium (phellogen), forming part of the periderm.
223. **Phellogen** – a lateral meristem that produces cork outward and phelloderm inward, forming the periderm of woody stems and roots.
224. **Phloem** – the living vascular tissue in plants responsible for transporting organic nutrients.
225. **Photosynthesis** – the process by which green plants and algae convert light energy, carbon dioxide, and water into organic compounds (primarily sugars) and oxygen, using chlorophyll.
226. **Phototropism** – the growth movement of a plant organ in response to a directional light stimulus; stems typically grow toward light (positive phototropism).
227. **Phylum** – a major taxonomic rank below kingdom, equivalent to division in botany; groups organisms sharing a fundamental body plan.
228. **Phytogeographic region** – a major geographic subdivision of the world's surface based on the distribution and affinities of its plant flora.
229. **Phytopathology** – the scientific study of plant diseases, including their causes, mechanisms, and control; also called plant pathology.
230. **Phytoplankton** – microscopic photosynthetic organisms suspended in aquatic environments, including cyanobacteria, diatoms, and green algae; the base of aquatic food webs.
231. **Pilose** – covered with long, soft hairs; from Latin pilus (hair).
232. **Pinching out** – the removal of the growing tip of a stem to encourage branching and bushier growth.
233. **Pinnate** – feather-like; having leaflets or lobes arranged on either side of a central axis (rachis); from Latin pinna (feather).
234. **Pinnatifid** – pinnately lobed to about halfway to the midrib but not divided into separate leaflets.

235. **Pip** – a small, hard seed found inside certain fleshy fruits, such as apples, pears, and oranges.
236. **Pistil** – the female reproductive organ of a flower, comprising the stigma, style, and ovary; may consist of one or more fused carpels.
237. **Plagiotropic** – describing a mode of plant growth where shoots, roots, or branches grow at an oblique or horizontal angle relative to the direction of gravity or the main vertical stem.
238. **Plasmolysis** – the shrinkage of the protoplast away from the cell wall in a plant cell placed in a hypertonic solution, caused by water loss by osmosis.
239. **Pleaching** – a technique of weaving and grafting branches of trees grown in a row together to form a raised, interlocked hedge or screen.
240. **Pollard** – a tree managed by cutting its upper branches at a fixed height above the ground to encourage a permanent crown of regrowth; the technique is called pollarding.
241. **Pollarding** – a woodland management practice in which the upper branches of a tree are cut back to a fixed height, encouraging regrowth of multiple stems from the cut point.
242. **Pollen** – the male gametophytes of seed plants, consisting of pollen grains containing the male gametes and produced in the anthers.
243. **Pollen record** – the assemblage of pollen grains preserved in sediments or peat, used in palynology to reconstruct past vegetation and climate change.
244. **Pollen tube** – the tube formed by the germinating pollen grain on the stigma, which grows through the style to deliver male gametes to the ovule.
245. **Pollination** – the transfer of pollen from the anther to the stigma of a flower, the first step in sexual reproduction in angiosperms.
246. **Polyandrous** – with many stamens.
247. **Polycarpic** – fruiting many times, not dying upon its first fruiting (opposite of monocarpic).
248. **Polypetalous** – (of flowers) with the petals free from each other.

249. **Polyphyletic** – describing a group whose members are derived from more than one evolutionary ancestor.
250. **Polyphyllous** – with many leaves or leaflets.
251. **Polyploid** – with more than twice the normal haploid set of chromosomes.
252. **Polytopism** – a type of monophyletism in which a new taxon arises in more than one place from conspecific parents.
253. **Propagation** – the multiplication of plants by sexual (seed) or vegetative (asexual) means.
254. **Prostrate** – growing flat on or along the ground without rooting at nodes.
255. **Pseudobulb** – a bulb-like enlargement of the stem in orchids.
256. **Pseudocapsule** – dry dehiscent fruit which, on opening, discloses not seeds but single-seeded nutlets.
257. **Pseudocarp (false fruit)** – a structure comprising the mature ovary combined with some other part of the plant, as the “hip” in the genus *Rosa*.
258. **Pteridology** – the branch of botany concerned with the study of ferns and allied plants (pteridophytes).
259. **Pubescence** – a covering of soft, fine, short hairs on a plant surface; the condition of being hairy or downy.
260. **Receptacle** – the end of the floral stalk (peduncle) to which the floral organs are attached; the enlarged base of the flower.
261. **Refugium** – an area in which a species or community has survived a period of unfavourable conditions (e.g. glaciation), from which recolonisation occurred; plural: refugia.
262. **Relict** – a plant or community persisting in a small, isolated area after its wider former range has been lost due to environmental change.
263. **Relict flora** – a flora consisting of plant species that were once more widely distributed but now survive only in limited refugia.
264. **Reniform** – kidney-shaped; broader than long with a rounded apex and a basal sinus.

265. **Respiration** – the metabolic process by which cells oxidise organic compounds to release energy for cellular work, producing carbon dioxide and water as by-products.

266. **Rhizomatous** – possessing or spreading by rhizomes; producing horizontal underground stems.

267. **Rhizome** – a horizontal underground stem that produces roots below and shoots above at its nodes, functioning in vegetative propagation and storage.

268. **Rhizosphere** – the narrow zone of soil immediately surrounding and influenced by plant roots, characterised by elevated microbial activity driven by root exudates.

269. **Root** – the underground organ of a plant that anchors it to the substrate and absorbs water and mineral nutrients.

270. **Root cap** – a thimble-shaped protective structure of cells covering the tip of a root meristem, protecting it from mechanical damage as it grows through the soil.

271. **Root exudate** – complex mixtures of organic compounds (such as sugars and amino acids) secreted by living plant roots into the surrounding soil to interact with microbes and absorb nutrients.

272. **Root tip** – the apical zone of a root, comprising the root cap, meristematic zone, elongation zone, and maturation zone; the site of primary root growth and nutrient uptake.

273. **Rootstock** – the rooted portion of a grafted plant, providing the root system and lower stem onto which the scion is grafted.

274. **Rosette** – a circular arrangement of leaves at the base of a stem or close to the ground, radiating from a central point.

275. **Ruderal** – a plant adapted to grow in disturbed, waste, or human-modified habitats; from Latin rudus (rubble).

276. **Rugose** – wrinkled or ridged in surface texture.

277. **Runner** – a horizontal stem growing along the ground surface that produces new plants at its nodes; equivalent to a stolon.

278. **s.l.** – abbreviation for *sensu lato* (in the broad sense); indicating that a taxon name is used in a wider circumscription than is strictly typical.
279. **s.s.** – abbreviation for *sensu stricto* (in the strict sense); indicating that a taxon name is used in a narrower, more precise circumscription.
280. **Saprophyte** – a plant that obtains some or all of its nutrition from the substrate through mycorrhizal fungi
281. **Savanna** – a tropical or subtropical grassland with scattered trees and shrubs, characterised by a seasonal rainfall regime.
282. **Sciophyte** – adapted to life in shade.
283. **Sclerenchyma** – a supporting tissue with heavily lignified secondary cell walls; includes fibres and sclereids; usually dead at functional maturity.
284. **Seed** – a mature ovule containing an embryo and stored nutrients, enclosed within a protective coat (testa), serving as the propagule of flowering plants and gymnosperms.
285. **Seed bank** – a reservoir of dormant seeds in the soil or held in ex situ storage facilities, maintaining genetic diversity for conservation or future planting.
286. **Seed dispersal** – the movement of seeds away from the parent plant, reducing competition and enabling colonisation of new sites.
287. **Seed dispersal syndrome** – a suite of fruit and seed characteristics correlated with a particular mode of dispersal, such as animal ingestion, wind transport, or water dispersal.
288. **Self-pollination** – pollination by pollen from the same flower or the same individual plant, resulting in offspring genetically identical to the parent.
289. **Senescence** – the process of ageing and deterioration in a plant or plant organ, characterised by breakdown of chlorophyll, resorption of nutrients, and ultimately cell death.
290. **Sepal** – one of the outermost parts of a flower, typically green and leaf-like, collectively forming the calyx and protecting the bud before opening.
291. **Serrate** – having sharp, forward-pointing teeth along the margin, resembling the teeth of a saw.

292. **Setose** – covered with or bearing hairs or bristles (setae).
293. **Soil crust** – a biological or physical layer at the soil surface formed by cyanobacteria, algae, fungi, lichens, and mosses that stabilises soil and influences water infiltration.
294. **Soil seed bank** – the reserve of viable seeds present in the soil of a given area, representing the potential for future vegetation regeneration.
295. **sp.** – abbreviation for species (singular); used when a specific epithet is unknown or when referring to a single unspecified species of a genus.
296. **Spatulate** – spoon-shaped; gradually narrowed from a rounded apex toward a narrow base.
297. **Species** – the fundamental unit of biological classification; a group of organisms capable of interbreeding and sharing a common gene pool, represented by a two-part (binomial) Latin name.
298. **Spongy cell** – irregularly shaped mesophyll cells with large intercellular air spaces, facilitating gas diffusion within the leaf.
299. **Spore** – a small, typically unicellular reproductive unit capable of developing into a new organism without sexual fusion, characteristic of ferns, mosses, and fungi.
300. **Sporophyte** – the diploid, spore-producing generation in the alternation of generations of plants; the dominant generation in vascular plants.
301. **spp.** – abbreviation for species (plural); used in botanical citations to indicate multiple species of a genus without naming them individually.
302. **Stamen** – the male reproductive organ of a flower, consisting of a filament (stalk) and an anther (pollen-producing sac).
303. **Stem** – the main axis of a plant above ground, bearing leaves, buds, and flowers, and conducting water and nutrients between roots and shoots.
304. **Steppe** – temperate grassland or shrubland of continental interiors (especially Eurasia), characterised by a semi-arid climate and dominated by grasses.
305. **Stigma** – the receptive surface of the pistil that receives pollen; typically sticky or feathery to facilitate pollen capture.

306. **Stipule** – one of a pair of appendages at the base of the petiole in many plant species, ranging from leaf-like to spine-like or glandular in form.
307. **Stole** – the base of a coppiced tree from which new shoots regenerate after cutting; a technical arboricultural term used precisely in Hardy's *The Woodlanders*.
308. **Stomata** – microscopic pores in the epidermis of leaves and stems, bounded by guard cells, through which gas exchange (CO₂ and O₂) and water vapour pass.
309. **Subalpine** – relating to or occurring in the zone immediately below the alpine zone and above the montane forest, characterised by stunted trees and shrubby vegetation.
310. **Subspecies** – a taxonomic rank below species, designating geographically or ecologically distinct populations with partial reproductive isolation but capable of interbreeding.
311. **Sympodial** – describing a branching pattern in which the main axis is replaced repeatedly by successive lateral branches, each appearing to continue the main axis.
312. **syn.** – abbreviation for synonym; a name previously applied to a taxon that has since been replaced by a currently accepted name.
313. **Synanthous** – with flowers and leaves appearing simultaneously.
314. **Syncarpous** – (of a flower) with united carpels.
315. **Synsepalum (synsepal)** – a structure formed by the joining of two or more sepals.
316. **Tannin** – a class of polyphenolic compounds that precipitate proteins; found in bark, leaves, and unripe fruits, serving as defences against herbivory and pathogens.
317. **Taxon** – any named unit of biological classification, at any rank; plural: taxa.
318. **Thigmotropism** – the directional growth response of a plant organ to mechanical contact; responsible for the coiling of tendrils around a support.

319. **Thorn** – a sharp, modified stem or branch of a plant serving as a defence against herbivory.
320. **Tomentose** – covered with densely matted woolly hairs.
321. **Transpiration** – the loss of water vapour from plant surfaces, primarily through stomata, driven by the vapour pressure gradient between leaf interior and atmosphere.
322. **Tree (annual) ring** – a ring of wood produced in a single growing season, visible in cross-section of a woody stem; used in dendrochronology to date wood and reconstruct past climate.
323. **Trigonous** – three-angled.
324. **Tripinnate** – three times pinnate; having the second-order divisions themselves pinnately divided.
325. **Trunk** – the main woody stem of a tree as distinct from its branches and roots.
326. **Tuber** – an enlarged underground stem or root storing nutrients, functioning as a vegetative propagule; the potato is a stem tuber.
327. **Understory** – the layer of vegetation beneath the forest canopy, comprising shrubs, small trees, and herbaceous plants adapted to low light conditions.
328. **Undulate** – with a wavy margin, the undulations in a plane perpendicular to the leaf surface.
329. **var.** – abbreviation for variety (*varietas*); a taxonomic rank below subspecies, designating a group within a species showing distinct but minor morphological differences.
330. **Variety** – a taxonomic rank below subspecies, designating plants with consistently different but minor morphological characteristics occurring in distinct geographic areas or habitats.
331. **Vascular bundle** – a strand of conducting tissue comprising xylem and phloem, together with associated fibres and parenchyma, running through stems, leaves, and roots.

332. **Vegetation** – a broad, general term for the plant life of a particular region, habitat, or period; plants considered collectively as the ground cover of an area.
333. **Vernalisation** – the process by which prolonged exposure to cold temperatures induces or accelerates subsequent flowering in plants.
334. **Verrucose** – covered with small wart-like projections.
335. **Viscid** – sticky or glutinous in texture.
336. **Weed** – a plant growing where it is not wanted by humans, often competitive and difficult to control; defined culturally rather than taxonomically.
337. **Xanthophyll** – a yellow oxygen-containing carotenoid pigment found in plant chloroplasts, involved in light harvesting and photoprotection.
338. **Xerophyte** – a plant adapted to survive in dry or arid conditions, with morphological and physiological adaptations to minimise water loss.
339. **Xylem** – the water-conducting tissue of vascular plants, consisting of vessel elements or tracheids, fibres, and parenchyma, providing structural support.
340. **Zone rating** – a system classifying plants by their cold hardiness based on average minimum winter temperatures, as in the USDA Plant Hardiness Zone system.
341. **Zoochory** – seed or fruit dispersal by animals; including endozoochory (internal) and epizoochory (external attachment).

APPENDIX 2

PLANT NAMES

342. **Aaron's Rod** – *Verbascum thapsus* (great mullein), a tall, yellow-flowered biennial; the folk name draws a religious parallel with Aaron's rod in the Bible.
343. **Ackama** – *Ackama*, a genus of woody flowering plants in the Cunoniaceae family found in New Zealand and Australia.
344. **Adderwort** – *Polygonum bistorta*, a perennial plant with a twisted, writhed root traditionally believed to cure snakebites, bearing dense pink flower spikes.
345. **amaranth** – *Amaranthus*, a diverse genus of herbaceous annuals cultivated worldwide for their highly nutritious, protein-rich seeds.
346. **Angel's trumpet** – *Brugmansia*, a genus of large shrubs or small trees bearing huge, pendulous, trumpet-shaped flowers that are highly poisonous.
347. **Angelica tree** – *Aralia spinosa*, a deciduous shrub or small tree characterized by its stout, prickly stems, umbrella-like canopy, and massive, deeply divided leaves
348. **Arcade (apple)** – *Malus domestica*, an old, traditional group of cultivated apple varieties, characterized by their early ripening and distinctly sweet, low-acid flavour.
349. **Aster** – *Aster*, a genus of perennial flowering plants producing daisy-like, starry flower heads, typically blooming in late summer and autumn.
350. **Aubergine, eggplant** – *Solanum melongena*, a plant cultivated for its large, fleshy, purplish or white edible fruit. (“Aubergine” is BrE; “eggplant” is AmE).
351. **Bachelor's Button** – *Centaurea cyanus*, an annual flowering plant with bright blue, thistle-like flower heads, also commonly known as the cornflower.
352. **Balsam fir** – *Abies balsamea*, a conifer of the Canadian boreal and montane forests, producing fragrant resin and commonly used as a Christmas tree.
353. **Banksia** – *Banksia* (named after Joseph Banks), a genus of Australian wildflowers recognizable by their characteristic dense flower spikes and fruiting cones.

354. **Bay laurel** – *Laurus nobilis*, an aromatic evergreen shrub or tree of the Mediterranean; its leaves were used to crown victors in antiquity; symbolises glory and achievement.

355. **Beetroot, beet** – *Beta vulgaris*, a plant cultivated for its earthy, edible, and typically dark red taproot.

356. **Bidibid** – *Acaena*, a genus of herbaceous plants native to the Southern Hemisphere, notorious for their sticky, burr-like seeds that easily catch on clothing and fur.

357. **Bimble box** – *Eucalyptus populnea*, a widespread eucalypt of inland eastern Australia; from the Wiradjuri language.

358. **Bird's-foot trefoil** – *Lotus corniculatus*, a common low-growing perennial flowering plant in the pea family Fabaceae with clusters of yellow flowers often tinged with red.

359. **Bird's-foot** – *Ornithopus*, a small, spreading plant whose curved, clustered seed pods closely resemble a bird's foot.

360. **Bitter Cress** – *Cardamine hirsuta*, a genus of flowering plants in the mustard family characterized by pinnate leaves and small white or pink flowers.

361. **blackberry, bramble** – *Rubus*, a genus of prickly, scrambling shrubs producing dark, edible aggregate fruits.

362. **Blackthorn** – *Prunus spinosa*, a thorny shrub producing white flowers before the leaves and small dark blue-black fruits (sloes) used in making sloe gin.

363. **Bladder Campion** – *Silene vulgaris*, a perennial wildflower with white, deeply lobed petals and a distinctively swollen, balloon-like calyx.

364. **Bluebell** – in BrE: *Hyacinthoides non-scripta*, a bulbous plant with blue pendant flowers that carpets British oakwoods in spring; in AmE applied to different species.

365. **Bluebush** – plants of the genus *Maireana* (family Chenopodiaceae) forming low shrublands on saline or calcareous soils in arid Australia.

366. **Boronia** – any species of the genus *Boronia* (family Rutaceae), small Australian shrubs known for their strongly scented flowers.

367. **Bread-and-Cheese Tree** – *Pithecellobium dulce*, a tree in the pea family recognized by its thorny branches and sweet, edible seed pods.
368. **Budgeroo** – *Eremophila mitchellii*, a shrub or small tree of the semi-arid interior of Australia, sometimes planted as an ornamental.
369. **Burdock** – *Arctium* spp., a large-leaved biennial plant with hooked burrs that adhere to animal fur and clothing, facilitating seed dispersal.
370. **Butcher's Broom** – *Ruscus aculeatus*, a low evergreen shrub with stiff, spine-tipped leaf-like stems (cladodes) and red berries.
371. **Butterwort** – *Pinguicula vulgaris*, a carnivorous plant with flat, sticky, glandular leaves that trap insects and singular purple flowers.
372. **Buttongrass** – *Gymnoschoenus sphaerocephalus*, a tussock-forming sedge dominant in highland peat swamps of Tasmania and southeastern Australia.
373. **Cedar** – *Cedrus*, a genus of large coniferous trees in the pine family, known for their highly aromatic, durable wood and evergreen needles.
374. **Celmisia, New Zealand daisy** – *Celmisia*, a genus of alpine plants native to New Zealand and Australia, recognized by their leathery, silver-haired leaves and robust daisy-like flowers.
375. **Chickweed** – *Lamium amplexicaule*, a common weed characterized by hairy, rounded leaves and whorls of purple or pink flowers.
376. **Christmas Rose** – *Helleborus niger*, an evergreen perennial with leathery dark green leaves and large, white, bowl-shaped flowers that bloom in midwinter.
377. **Coriander, cilantro** – *Coriandrum sativum*, an aromatic annual herb. (“Cilantro” typically refers to the fresh leaves, while “coriander” refers to the seeds).
378. **Cornflower** – *Centaurea cyanus*, a blue-flowered annual of arable fields; appears in literary similes for brilliant blue colour; associated with pastoral and romantic themes in English poetry.
379. **Cough-wort** – *Tussilago farfara*, a perennial plant with yellow flowers that appear before the leaves, traditionally used in herbal medicine to treat coughs.

380. **Cow Parsley** – *Aethusa cynapium*, an umbelliferous wild plant (often referred to as Fool's Parsley in this classification) with hollow stems and flat-topped, lacy white flower clusters.

381. **Cowslip** – in BrE: *Primula veris*, a meadow plant of calcareous grassland; in AmE often denotes *Caltha palustris* (marsh marigold), an unrelated wetland plant.

382. **Crowfoot** – *Endymion nonscriptus*, the common bluebell, a spring-flowering bulb characterized by nodding spikes of violet-blue, bell-shaped flowers.

383. **Cypress** – *Cupressus sempervirens*, a tall columnar Mediterranean conifer; a conventional symbol of mourning and death in English and wider European tradition.

384. **Dahlia** – *Dahlia* (named after Andreas Dahl), a genus of tuberous herbaceous perennial plants renowned for their diverse, showy autumn flowers.

385. **Daisy** – *Bellis perennis*, a common grassland plant with small composite flowers consisting of a yellow disc surrounded by white ray petals.

386. **Dandelion** – *Taraxacum officinale*, a common, yellow-flowered plant.

387. **Deadnettle** – a plant of the genus *Lamium* (family Lamiaceae), superficially resembling the stinging nettle but lacking stinging hairs.

388. **Devil's Bit Scabious** – *Succisa pratensis*, a purple-flowered meadow plant; the folk name refers to the legend that the devil bit off the short root stump, denying humans its powerful medicinal properties.

389. **Devil's-bit** – *Succisa pratensis*, a meadow plant with rounded blue-purple flower heads and a short black root that appears as if bitten off.

390. **Elm** – *Ulmus*, a genus of deciduous and semi-deciduous trees known for their alternating, distinctly asymmetrical leaves, grooved bark, and historical susceptibility to Dutch elm disease.

391. **Eucalypt** – *Eucalyptus* (and closely related genera), the broad term for the dominant tree group in the Australian landscape, vital to the ecology.

392. **Evening Primrose** – *Oenothera biennis*, a biennial plant known for its yellow flowers that open in the evening and its valuable seed oil.

393. **Fairy's Thimbles** – *Campanula pusilla*, a small, creeping perennial with delicate, nodding, bell-shaped pale blue flowers.
394. **Fern** – a vascular plant of the division Pteridophyta, reproducing by spores, characterised by typically large compound fronds and lacking seeds.
395. **Figwort** – *Scrophularia nodosa*, a perennial woodland herb featuring square stems, opposite leaves, and small, bulbous greenish-brown flowers.
396. **Fir tree** – *Abies*, a genus of evergreen coniferous trees characterized by their flat, needle-like leaves attached individually directly to the branches.
397. **Fireweed** – *Chamerion angustifolium*, a tall perennial of the willowherb family that colonises disturbed ground, burns, and roadsides rapidly; characteristic of post-fire boreal landscapes.
398. **Forget-me-not** – *Myosotis* spp., small, blue-flowered plants of moist habitats; a conventional symbol of faithful remembrance and enduring love in English cultural tradition.
399. **Foxglove** – *Digitalis purpurea*; its common name derives from a folk legend associating it with foxes wearing the flowers as gloves; used in folk-name symbolism for body-part analogy.
400. **Franklinia** – *Franklinia alatamaha* (named after Benjamin Franklin), a rare deciduous tree known for its large white autumn flowers and fiery red fall foliage.
401. **French Marigold** – *Tagetes patula*, a popular garden annual with deeply divided aromatic leaves and brightly-coloured, daisy-like flowers in yellow, orange, and red.
402. **Geebung** – any plant of the genus *Persoonia* (family Proteaceae), producing small yellow flowers and edible fruits; from the Dharug language.
403. **Gladiolus** – *Gladiolus*, a bulbous perennial genus known for its tall, one-sided spikes of showy, funnel-shaped flowers.
404. **Goosegrass** – *Galium aparine*, a scrambling annual with whorled leaves and small hooked fruits that cling to clothing; also called cleavers.
405. **Grass** – a plant of the family Poaceae (Gramineae), typically with hollow jointed stems, narrow leaves, and flowers borne in spikelets.

406. **Grey alder** – *Alnus incana*, a deciduous tree or large shrub known for thriving in wet soils and displaying smooth, pale grey bark.
407. **Gum tree** – *Eucalyptus*, a large genus of mostly Australian trees known for their aromatic leaves and peeling bark that often exudes a sticky sap or gum.
408. **Hawthorn** – *Crataegus monogyna*, a thorny shrub or small tree of the rose family, producing fragrant white flowers in spring and dark red berries (haws) in autumn.
409. **Hectorii, Hector's tree daisy** – *Olearia hectorii*, a rare, deciduous tree daisy native to New Zealand featuring small, pale yellow flowers and peeling bark.
410. **Hemlock** – *Conium maculatum*, a highly poisonous biennial herbaceous plant with finely divided leaves and umbrella-like clusters of small white flowers.
411. **Herb Trinity** – *Viola tricolor*, a small, creeping wildflower (wild pansy) with blooms that combine purple, yellow, and white.
412. **Hernandia** – *Hernandia* (named after Francisco Hernandez), a genus of tropical evergreens characterized by large, peltate leaves and distinctive lantern-like fruit.
413. **hickory** – *Carya*, a genus of deciduous trees prized for their hard, dense wood and often edible nuts.
414. **Horse mint** – *Mentha longifolia*, a robust, often strongly scented wild mint with downy leaves and lilac or pink flower spikes.
415. **Horse parsley** – *Smyrniololus atrorhizae*, a stout biennial herb of the carrot family with yellowish-green flowers, black seeds, and a celery-like flavour.
416. **Horse-chestnut** – *Aesculus hippocastanum*, a large deciduous tree famous for its palmately compound leaves, sticky winter buds, and shiny brown seeds known as conkers.
417. **Horse-radish** – *Armoracia rusticana*, a perennial plant widely cultivated for its thick, fleshy white root, which has a pungent, spicy flavour.
418. **Horses-and-chariots** – *Aconitum napellus*, a folk name for Monkshood, a highly toxic herbaceous perennial bearing distinctive hooded blue-purple flowers.

419. **Horsetail** – *Equisetum*, a prehistoric, non-flowering vascular plant that reproduces by spores and features distinctively jointed, ribbed stems.
420. **Ivy** – *Hedera helix*, an evergreen climbing plant; symbolises fidelity and enduring attachment in English cultural tradition, from its persistent grip on surfaces.
421. **Jack-go-to-bed-at-noon** – *Tragopogon pratensis*, a meadow plant whose yellow composite flowers typically close around midday.
422. **Jacob's Ladder** – *Polemonium caeruleum*, a plant with regularly pinnate leaves whose leaflets suggest ladder rungs; the folk name draws a religious parallel with Jacob's ladder in the Bible.
423. **Jarrah** – *Eucalyptus marginata*, a large hardwood tree of southwestern Australia valued for its durable timber; endemic to the jarrah forest biome.
424. **Jerusalem Artichoke** – *Helianthus tuberosus*, a tall species of sunflower cultivated extensively for its fleshy, edible underground tubers.
425. **Karri** – *Eucalyptus diversicolor*, one of the tallest trees in the world, endemic to the high-rainfall areas of southwestern Australia.
426. **Kauri** – *Agathis australis*, a genus of massive, incredibly long-lived conifers in the *Araucariaceae* family native to New Zealand.
427. **Kiss-me-over-the-garden-gate** – *Persicaria orientalis*, a tall, heirloom annual flower characterized by its drooping, bright pink, tassel-like flower clusters.
428. **Kowhai** – *Sophora*, a small woody legume tree in the *Sophora* genus native to New Zealand, recognizable by its bright yellow, tubular flowers.
429. **Lady's Bedstraw** – *Galium verum*, a perennial wildflower known for its dense clusters of small, fragrant yellow flowers, historically used to stuff mattresses.
430. **Lady's Slipper** – *Cypripedium calceolus*, a terrestrial orchid notable for its large, pouch-shaped floral lip that resembles a slipper or shoe.
431. **Larch** – *Larix*, a broad genus of deciduous conifers that shed their needle-like leaves in the autumn.
432. **Lavender** – *Lavandula* spp., aromatic shrubs of the Mediterranean; their flowers symbolise calmness, purity, and domestic virtue in English cultural tradition.

433. **Lent Lily** – *Narcissus pseudonarcissus*, the wild daffodil, a spring-flowering bulbous plant with pale yellow petals and a darker central trumpet.
434. **Lily** – *Lilium*, a genus of herbaceous flowering plants grown from bulbs, characterized by large, prominent, often highly fragrant trumpet-shaped flowers.
435. **Liverwort** – *Hepatica nobilis* (or *Marchantia* spp.), plants with three-lobed leaves or thalli; the folk name encodes the doctrine of signatures, the lobed form resembling the liver.
436. **London Rocket** – *Sisymbrium irio*, a quick-growing winter annual herb in the mustard family with small yellow flowers, noted for growing abundantly in the ruins after the Great Fire of London.
437. **Lords-and-ladies** – *Arum maculatum*, a shade-loving British perennial wildflower found in woodlands and hedgerows, distinguished by its large, arrow-shaped leaves and red autumn berries.
438. **Lungwort** – *Pulmonaria officinalis*, a perennial herbaceous plant with spotted leaves and flowers that transition in color from pink to blue.
439. **Madonna Lily** – *Lilium candidum*, the white lily; a dual symbol of purity (associated with the Virgin Mary) and royalty (used by Christianised Franks).
440. **Magnolia** – *Magnolia* (named after Pierre Magnol), a genus of ancient trees and shrubs with large, fragrant, bowl- or star-shaped flowers.
441. **Mallee** – *Eucalyptus* species exhibiting a specific growth habit characterized by multiple stems arising from an underground woody bulb (lignotuber).
442. **Manuka** – *Leptospermum scoparium*, a prolific scrub-type tea tree native to New Zealand and Australia, famous for its dense wood and antibacterial honey.
443. **Michaelmas Daisy** – *Symphyotrichum*, autumn-flowering perennials with abundant purple, pink, or white daisy-like flowers that typically bloom around Michaelmas.
444. **Monk's Hood** – *Aconitum napellus*, a highly poisonous perennial plant with dark green, deeply lobed leaves and tall spikes of hooded, purplish-blue flowers.
445. **Moon Daisy** – *Leucanthemum vulgare*, a widespread grassland perennial with classic large, white-petaled, yellow-centered daisy flowers.

446. **Moonwort** – *Botrychium lunaria*, a small, unusual fern characterized by its fleshy, distinctively crescent-moon-shaped leaflets.
447. **Moss** – A small non-vascular plant of the division Bryophyta, forming dense low-growing mats in moist habitats and reproducing by spores.
448. **Mulga** – *Acacia aneura*, a dominant arid-zone shrub or small tree of inland Australia, from the Yuwaalaraay language; also applied to the scrubland it characterises.
449. **Oak** – *Quercus robur*, the pedunculate oak; symbolises endurance, strength, and national identity (England's 'heart of oak'); one of the most culturally loaded trees in English tradition.
450. **Our Lady's Bedstraw** – *Galium verum*, a yellow-flowered hedgerow plant; the folk name associates it with the Virgin Mary, referring to the legend that it was used to line the manger.
451. **Ox-eye daisy** – *Leucanthemum vulgare*, a large-flowered grassland composite; the folk name encodes a body-part analogy comparing the large central disc to an ox's eye.
452. **Pansy** – *Viola* × *wittrockiana*, a hybrid garden flower with distinctive face-like markings.
453. **Paperbark** – any species of *Melaleuca* with papery, layered bark that peels in sheets; common in Australian wetlands and coastal areas.
454. **Pasque-flower** – *Pulsatilla vulgaris*, a spring-flowering herbaceous plant with finely divided, hairy leaves and striking bell-shaped purple flowers.
455. **Pawpaw** – *Asimina triloba* (North American) or *Carica papaya* (Tropical), a tree bearing large, sweet, soft, custard-like fruits.
456. **Pecan** – *Carya illinoensis*, a species of hickory tree native to North America, cultivated for its rich, buttery edible nuts.
457. **Persimmon** – *Diospyros*, a genus of trees bearing sweet, bright orange, tomato-like edible fruits.

458. **Pohutukawa, New Zealand's Christmas tree** – *Metrosideros excelsa*, a coastal evergreen tree native to New Zealand renowned for its brilliant crimson flowers that bloom in early summer (around Christmas).

459. **Poppy** – *Papaver*, a genus of flowering plants notable for their delicate, papery petals and historical use in producing opium as well as symbolizing remembrance.

460. **Primrose** – in BrE: *Primula vulgaris*, the pale-yellow hedgerow flower of spring; in AmE often applied to *Oenothera* spp. (evening primroses) or ornamental *Primula* cultivars.

461. **Prince's Feather** – *Amaranthus hypochondriacus*, a tall annual plant with striking, upright, dark red or purplish flower spikes.

462. **Quaking-grass** – *Briza media*, a perennial meadow grass known for its delicate, heart-shaped spikelets that tremble visibly in the breeze.

463. **Quandong** – *Santalum acuminatum*, a native Australian tree producing edible red fruits; from the Wiradjuri language; now widely used in bush tucker and horticulture.

464. **Rock maple** – *Acer saccharum*, another common name for the sugar maple, emphasizing the extreme hardness and density of its wood.

465. **Rocket, arugula** – *Eruca vesicaria*, an edible annual plant used as a leaf vegetable, prized for its pungent, peppery flavour.

466. **Saltbush** – plants of the genus *Atriplex* (family *Chenopodiaceae*) tolerant of saline and arid soils; important grazing plants of the Australian interior.

467. **Scotch Thistle** – *Onopordum acanthium*, a tall, biennial thistle with large, spiny, silvery-grey leaves and vibrant purple flower heads.

468. **Shepherd's Purse** – *Capsella bursa-pastoris*, a common annual weed of the mustard family, easily identified by its flat, heart- or purse-shaped seed pods.

469. **Snake's-head** – *Fritillaria meleagris*, a bulbous plant with drooping, bell-shaped flowers characterized by a distinctive chequerboard pattern in pink and purple.

470. **Snowdrop** – *Galanthus nivalis*, a small bulbous perennial that is among the first to bloom in late winter, bearing solitary, nodding, white bell-shaped flowers.

471. **Solomon's Seal** – *Polygonatum multiflorum*, a rhizomatous plant with arching stems and pendant white flowers; the folk name refers to seal-like scars on the rhizome.

472. **Speedwell** – *Veronica* spp., small, blue-flowered plants; the folk name encodes a wish for safe travel ('speed well'), reflecting a tradition of giving them to travellers.

473. **Spinifex** – grasses of the genus *Triodia* (family Poaceae) that form large, spiky hummocks characteristic of arid and semi-arid Australia; also, a genus of coastal grasses (*Spinifex* spp.).

474. **Spring onion, green onion** – *Allium cepa*, onions harvested before the bulb has fully formed, featuring hollow green leaves.

475. **St. Barnaby's Thistle** – *Centaurea solstitialis*, a winter annual herb characterized by its prominent, spiny yellow flower heads.

476. **St. John's Wort** – *Hypericum perforatum*, a flowering plant with bright yellow, star-shaped flowers and translucent leaf spots, traditionally used as a medicinal herb.

477. **Star-of-Bethlehem** – *Ornithogalum umbellatum*, a bulbous perennial that produces clusters of six-petaled, star-shaped white flowers with prominent green stripes on the outside.

478. **Starwort** – *Stellaria*, small herbaceous plants often bearing delicate, deeply cleft, star-shaped white flowers.

479. **Stinking Gladdon** – *Iris foetidissima*, a species of iris known for its unpleasant smelling leaves when crushed and bright orange-red seeds.

480. **Sugar maple** – *Acer saccharum*, a large deciduous tree native to North America, famous for its brilliant autumn foliage and serving as the primary source of maple syrup.

481. **Sunflower** – *Helianthus annuus*, a tall annual plant known for its very large, bright yellow composite flower heads that track the movement of the sun.

482. **Swede, rutabaga** – *Brassica napus napobrassica*, a root vegetable that originated as a cross between the cabbage and the turnip.

483. **Sweet pepper, bell pepper** – *Capsicum annuum*, a plant bearing large, mild-flavored, bell-shaped fruits in varying colors like green, red, or yellow.
484. **Sweet William** – *Dianthus barbatus*, a popular ornamental biennial or short-lived perennial with dense, flat-topped clusters of small, fringed flowers.
485. **Tamarack** – *Larix laricina*, a species of larch tree native to North America that is an unusual deciduous conifer, turning golden and shedding its needles in autumn.
486. **Toadflax** – *Linaria vulgaris*, a perennial wildflower with pale yellow, snapdragon-like flowers featuring a prominent orange spot.
487. **Totara** – *Podocarpus totara*, a species of large, long-lived conifer in the Podocarpaceae family, heavily valued by Māori and settlers for its highly durable red wood.
488. **Tuart** – *Eucalyptus gomphocephala*, a large eucalypt endemic to coastal southwestern Australia, now restricted and considered vulnerable.
489. **Virgin Mary's Honeysuckle, Virgin Mary's Milkdrops (lungwort)** – *Pulmonaria officinalis*, a perennial plant with white-spotted leaves and tubular flowers that transition from pink to blue.
490. **Wallflower** – *Erysimum cheiri* (*Cheiranthus cheiri*), a spring-flowering plant growing on old walls.
491. **Waratah** – *Telopea*, a genus of Australian shrubs famous for their striking, large crimson flower heads (the floral emblem of New South Wales).
492. **Water-cress** – *Nasturtium officinale*, a fast-growing, aquatic or semi-aquatic perennial plant with small, rounded leaves, commonly eaten as a salad vegetable.
493. **Wattle** – *Acacia*, a large genus of trees and shrubs in Australia, widely characterized by their vibrant, fluffy yellow flower clusters.
494. **Welsh onion** – *Allium fistulosum*, a perennial bunching onion that does not form a true bulb, grown primarily for its hollow green leaves.
495. **Wolf's-milk** – *Euphorbia esula*, a herbaceous perennial that exudes a toxic, milky white sap when broken.

496. **Wollemi** – *Wollemia nobilis*, an ancient coniferous “living fossil” tree discovered in Australia in 1994, featuring distinctively bubbly, dark brown bark.
497. **Woodbine** – *Lonicera*, a climbing plant with pleasant-smelling, yellow flowers.
498. **Wormwood** – *Artemisia absinthium*, a highly aromatic, silver-grey herbaceous perennial renowned for its intensely bitter taste and historical use in herbal medicine and the production of absinthe.
499. **Woundwort** – *Stachys sylvatica*, a nettle-like plant of hedgerows; the folk name encodes its traditional use in treating wounds.
500. **Zucchini, courgette** – *Cucurbita pepo*, a variety of summer squash harvested while immature and tender. (“Zucchini” is Italian/American; “courgette” is French/British).

APPENDIX 3

IDIOMS AND IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS WITH FLORAL COMPONENT

501. **A bowl of cherries** – a wonderful or perfect situation (often used negatively or sarcastically, e.g., “life isn't always a bowl of cherries”).
502. **As fresh as a daisy** – extremely fresh, energetic, and healthy, usually after resting.
503. **As limp as a wilted flower** – lacking physical energy, strength, or firmness; completely exhausted.
504. **Banana skin** – an unexpected issue or sudden mistake that causes major embarrassment or failure.
505. **Bed of roses** – a very comfortable, easy, or pleasant situation.
506. **Bed of thorns** – a situation full of difficulties, pain, discomfort, or continuous trouble.
507. **Cool as a cucumber** – extremely calm, relaxed, and completely unbothered, especially in stressful situations.
508. **Every oak has been an acorn** – great things come from small, humble, or modest beginnings.
509. **Fair as the wild rose** – exceptionally beautiful and natural, without any artificiality.
510. **Forbidden fruit** – something that is intensely desired precisely because it is forbidden, illegal, or immoral.
511. **Grassroots** – the most basic level of an activity or organisation, referring to ordinary people rather than the elite leadership.
512. **Hill of beans** – something of very little value, importance, or consequence (e.g., “it doesn't amount to a hill of beans”).

513. **Hot as mustard** – very passionate, fiery, highly competitive, or easily angered.
514. **Keen as mustard** – very enthusiastic, eager, and highly motivated.
515. **Life is a bowl of cherries** – life is wonderful, pleasant, and easy (frequently used in a sarcastic or ironic context).
516. **Like mushrooms** – springing up or growing very quickly and in large numbers unexpectedly.
517. **Like peas in a pod** – very similar or almost identical in appearance, behavior, or personality.
518. **Lily-livered** – cowardly; completely lacking courage or bravery.
519. **Low-hanging fruit** – the easiest tasks to complete, or the most easily achieved goals that require minimal effort.
520. **Not to know beans** – to know absolutely nothing about a subject; to be completely ignorant of it.
521. **Out on a limb** – in a dangerous, unsupported, or vulnerable position, often because you have expressed a controversial opinion.
522. **Reaping what one sows** – experiencing the natural consequences (good or bad) of one's past actions.
523. **Root cause** – the fundamental reason for the occurrence of a problem, event, or failure.
524. **Rose-coloured glasses** – an overly optimistic or idealised perspective, deliberately ignoring the negative aspects of a situation.
525. **Shrinking violet** – *viola odorata*, used figuratively to denote a timid, self-effacing person; derived from the small size and partially hidden flowers of the violet.
526. **The bloom is off the rose** – the initial excitement, novelty, or perceived perfection of a situation has faded away.

527. **The cherry on the cake** – the final, concluding detail that makes an already good thing perfect or complete.

528. **The days of wine and roses** – a nostalgic past period characterized by immense happiness, prosperity, and carefree indulgence.

529. **The fruit of one's labour** – the rewards, positive results, or profits gained from hard work and effort.

530. **The last straw on camel's back** – the final minor annoyance or problem in a series that causes a complete collapse, loss of patience, or dramatic reaction.

531. **Thorny** – highly complex, problematic, or controversial to deal with (e.g., a “thorny issue”).

532. **To be at the root of sth** – to be the fundamental, underlying cause or source of a problem or situation.

533. **To be in full bloom** – at the absolute peak of development, beauty, or success; (for a plant) having all flowers fully open.

534. **To be out of your tree** – to be completely crazy, irrational, or heavily intoxicated.

535. **To be pushing up (the) daisies** – a euphemism meaning to be dead and buried.

536. **To bear fruit** – to yield successful or positive results after a period of effort or waiting.

537. **To cherry-pick** – to selectively choose only the absolute best or most advantageous items, data, or facts from a wider group.

538. **To cut something off at the root** – to completely eradicate a problem by directly targeting its fundamental cause.

539. **To draw the shortest straw** – to be randomly or unfortunately chosen to do the most unpleasant task in a group.

540. **To drive someone bananas** – to make someone extremely annoyed, intensely frustrated, or crazy.

541. **To gather life's roses** – to actively enjoy life's transient pleasures while one still has the chance (*carpe diem*).

542. **To gild the lily** – to try to improve something that is already beautiful or perfect, often resulting in spoiling it or making it gaudy.

543. **To give somebody beans** – to heavily scold, punish, or verbally attack someone.

544. **To go bananas** – to become highly excited, irrational, or wildly angry.

545. **To go nuts** – to become extremely angry, crazy, or wildly enthusiastic.

546. **To go off one's nut** – to lose one's mind, act totally crazy, or become furiously angry.

547. **To grasp at straws** – to try any desperate method to solve a problem or save a situation, even if it has very little chance of success.

548. **To leaf through** – to casually and quickly turn the pages of a book, magazine, or document without reading it closely.

549. **To nip something in the bud** – to stop or destroy something at an early stage before it can develop into a bigger problem.

550. **To spill the beans** – to accidentally or prematurely reveal secret or confidential information.

551. **To take root** – to become established, widely accepted, or firmly fixed in place.

552. **To turn over a new leaf** – to start behaving in a significantly better way, leaving behind bad habits or past mistakes.

553. **To weather the winter like a pine** – to remain strong, resilient, and steadfast through harsh conditions or difficult times.

554. **Tough nut to crack** – a highly difficult problem to solve, or a person who is hard to understand or deal with.

555. **Up a tree** – In a difficult situation with no obvious way out; cornered or stuck.