

A SYSTEM FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE NAMES FOR AGARICS AND BOLETES IN NEW ZEALAND (AND AUSTRALIA?)

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During the Mycological Colloquium held at the 17th New Zealand Fungal Foray the use of common names for fungi in New Zealand was briefly discussed. With only a short history and low participation by amateurs in mycology in New Zealand very few common names have been spontaneously created. This is in stark contrast to the large body of these names in European and Asian cultures. Where common names are used in New Zealand they have generally been lifted directly from European and Asian sources (e.g. death cap and shiitake). The only source of New Zealand common names is Taylor (1970, 1981) who coined a number of new names for fungi such as fungus icicles for *Hericium coralloides*. The foray discussion of common names prompted me to re-read a recent paper by Huhtinen (2002) on how the Finns produce stable common names and how this could be implemented in New Zealand.

Why should we have common names when we have perfectly adequate Latin binomials? For three reasons, first, we have to accept that for many people Latin binomials exclude them from information. They are intimidated by something that they don't fully understand. As a mycologist it is my role to facilitate the transfer of information from my area of expertise to the general population and if my audience is turned off by Latin binomials before I even get to the interesting information then I have failed. We need to realise that information is layered and that we need to deliver the required layer to the appropriate audience, and if common names help us to achieve this, then so be it. Second, the Basque have a saying '*Izena duen guzia omen da*'—that which has a name exists (Kurlansky 2000). This need for a name is echoed in Australasian literature and lead Bail (1998) to write 'We are not comfortable if a thing we have seen isn't attached to a name. An object can hardly be said to exist until it has a name, even an approximate name'. Equally, that which lacks a common name does not exist for the majority of the population. These sentiments lead the famous evolutionary biologist John Maynard Smith to comment 'It's a very curious fact that people find it impossible to do without a species name'. Finally, Linnaeus invented Latin binomials as short informal names for the longer descriptive phrases that were then currently employed. These shorthand names had such utility that they became the basis for our entire classification system. However, overtime, the Latin binomial has become burdened with historical nomenclature and phylogenetic implication. This burdens results in the changing names that so frustrate amateurs. Similar sentiments were expressed by Nicol (1997) in the introduction to his *Common Names of Plants in New Zealand* when he commented on Latin binomials 'However even these names can change, creating confusion for those not conversant with the latest taxonomic literature'.

When I began to discuss the idea of forming common names I was surprised by the degree of hostility to the concept by both professional and amateur mycologists. The argument against the development of such names was that it was anti science, demeaning to amateurs, and that common names had to occur spontaneously, and could only come from the past. The use of common names for fungi is no more anti science than using apple for *Malus domestica*. It certainly is not demeaning to amateurs as in my work place the professional forestry scientists rarely refer to *Pseudotsuga menziesii* by its Latin binomial but rather to Douglas-fir, which is further shorthanded to 'D.fir' in both written and spoken communications. The final objections that the names have been spontaneously generated in the past essentially means that English is now fixed in time and no new names can be formed, this obviously is not true (McCrun *et al.* 1986, McGrath 2001). Most of the objections to this project revolve around the concept of what is a common name and how they come into being. To escape this preconceived concept I propose to call them English language names instead and to clearly separate them from any existing common names. I note also that the British Mycological Society, in partnership with several other groups, has also followed this approach with the formation of a project 'Recommended English Names for Fungi' (Evans 2003).

What the Finns have proposed and have practiced since 1949 is to use the utility of the short informal name and to produce such names in their own language. The Finnish guidelines are adapted here for New Zealand use:

1. There is one English language name for each taxon. Where other English language names exist they should be discouraged.
2. There should be a logic in name formation based around a common 'generic' name for like taxa. 'Generic' names do not have to correspond with scientific genera, but often they will, and can be based on more general morphology. For example the use of pouch for those secotioid species now scattered through *Thaxterogaster*, *Weraroa* and *Notholepiota*. It is important to avoid the use of fungus and mushroom, except in the latter case for use with *Agaricus* spp. Once this is done then a 'specific' name can be sought.
3. Where ever possible use a 'two-word-name'.
4. Avoid simply translating the Latin binomial into English (e.g. 'blue and buff Cortinarius' for *Cortinarius malachus*, rather the Swedes and the Finns refer to this as the 'mallow webcap'.
5. Borrow from other languages where they have resolved a problem.
6. The best 'generic' name is often the most conspicuous constituent species (e.g. 'the parasol' for *Macrolepiota procera* and subsequently the 'shaggy parasol' for *M. rhacodes*, etc.
7. Be inventive to avoid monotonous names (e.g. use fire for orange; blood for deep red, etc. For instance 'rare waxgill' for *Hygrocybe rubrocarnosa* refers to its red flesh like rare steak (compare pictures in Taylor (1981) and Jacobs (2003)).
8. Existing common names can be converted into the new English language format (e.g. the 'reddening fly agaric' (*Amanita rubescens*) has been transformed into the 'blushing flycap'.
9. Always remember that these English language names are for New Zealand and not for any other country unless it chooses to adopt them.

To begin this process the following names are proposed for discussion. I have used Taylor (1981), where identifications are confirmed, and Latin binomials have been updated to conform to Segedin & Pennycook (2001), as a shortlist of agarics and boletes for use in constructing English language names. In constructing 'generic' names (point 6, above) I have looked at common names used in Europe and adapted these where ever possible.

Species (Segedin & Pennycook 2001)	Plate/fig no. (Taylor 1981)	English language name for use in New Zealand
<i>Amanita phalloides</i>	1/1	death flycap
<i>Amanita muscaria</i>	1/2	scarlet flycap
<i>Amanita opinata</i>	2/3	apricot-gilled flycap
<i>Amanita australis</i>	2/4	straw flycap
<i>Amanita pekeoides</i>	2/5	socked flycap
<i>Amanita nothofagi</i>	2/6	charcoal flycap
<i>Amanita nehuta</i>	2/7	dusty flycap
<i>Macrolepiota clelandii</i>	3/9	bush parasol
<i>Macrolepiota rhacodes</i>	3/10	shaggy parasol
<i>Agaricus bitorquis</i>	4/11	pavement mushroom
<i>Agaricus campestris</i>	4/13	field mushroom
<i>Agaricus arvensis</i>	4/14	horse mushroom
<i>Agaricus praeclaresquamosus</i>	5/15	yellow-footed mushroom
<i>Agaricus xanthoderma</i>	5/16	yellowing mushroom
<i>Leucoagaricus naucinus</i>	5/18	smooth parasol
<i>Agaricus subperonatus</i>	5/19	woolly-legged mushroom
<i>Agaricus impudicus</i>	6/20	brown-blotched mushroom

<i>Agaricus purpureoniger</i>	6/23	bruised mushroom
<i>Agaricus bambusae</i> var <i>australis</i>	6/24	bamboo mushroom
<i>Armillaria nova-zelandiae</i>	7/25	olive honeycap
<i>Armillaria limonea</i>	7/27	lemon honeycap
<i>Heimiomyces neovelutipes</i>	8/28	bush shank
<i>Oudemansiella australis</i>	8/29	porcelain slime-cap
<i>Lentinula novaezelandiae</i>	8/30	bush shiitake
<i>Tricholomopsis rutilans</i>	8/31	plum woodknight
<i>Marasmius atrocastaneus</i>	8/33	chestnut toughshank
<i>Crinipellis procera</i>	8/34	tall horsehair
<i>Leucocoprinus fragilissimus</i>	8/35	yellow parasol
<i>Mycena leaiana</i>	8/36	sticky helmet
<i>Mycena pura</i>	8/38	lilac helmet
<i>Collopus subviscosa</i>	8/39	citrus-shanked helmet
<i>Mycena ura</i>	8/40	crimson helmet
<i>Gliophorus viridus</i>	10/42	verdigris waxgill
<i>Gliophorus versicolor</i>	10/44	rose waxgill
<i>Hygrophorus salmonipes</i>	10/45	salmon waxgill
<i>Hygrocybe procera</i>	10/46	amber waxgill
<i>Hygrocybe striatolutea</i>	10/47	straw waxgill
<i>Humidicutis luteovirens</i>	10/48	olive waxgill
<i>Hygrocybe rubrocarnea</i>	10/49	rare waxgill
<i>Russula albolutescens</i>	11/51	creamy chalkcap
<i>Russula miniata</i>	11/53	pinky chalkcap
<i>Russula acrolamellata</i>	11/54	ugly chalkcap
<i>Russula griseoviridis</i>	11/55	dreary chalkcap
<i>Lactarius sepiaceus</i>	12/56	chocolate milkcap
<i>Lactarius umerensis</i>	12/57	rubbery milkcap
<i>Lactarius clarkei</i>	12/58	suede milkcap
<i>Lactarius tawai</i>	12/59	bullseye milkcap
<i>Entoloma perzonatum</i>	13/60	zebra pinkgill
<i>Entoloma peralbium</i>	13/62	white pinkgill
<i>Entoloma hochstetteri</i>	13/63	blue pinkgill
<i>Entoloma sulphureum</i>	13/64	sulphur pinkgill
<i>Entoloma decolorans</i>	13/65	blue-shanked pinkgill
<i>Entoloma haastii</i>	13/66	bruised pinkgill
<i>Pluteus velutinornatus</i>	14/69	ornate doilycap
<i>Volvariella speciosa</i>	14/70	common scabbard
<i>Dermocybe canaria</i>	15/73	canary webcap
<i>Cortinarius bellus</i>	15/76	jaffa webcap
<i>Cuphocybe olivacea</i>	16/77	olive flatfoot
<i>Rapacia mariae</i>	16/78	ghostly webcap
<i>Descolea gunnii</i>	16/80	pleated cooper
<i>Inocybe strobilomyces</i>	16/83	scaly fibre-cap
<i>Bolbitius muscicola</i>	17/84	deceiving corncap
<i>Gymnopilus junonius</i>	17/85	giant flamecap
<i>Pholiota adiposa</i>	17/86	scaly flamecap
<i>Galerina patagonica</i>	17/87	nippled logger
<i>Agrocybe parasitica</i>	17/88	tree swordbelt
<i>Coprinus disseminatus</i>	18/89	sociable inkcap
<i>Coprinus comatus</i>	18/92	shaggy inkcap
<i>Coprinus atramentarius</i>	18/93	the inkcap
<i>Stropharia aurantiaca</i>	19/94	scarlet roundhead
<i>Stropharia aeruginosa</i>	19/95	verdigris roundhead
<i>Lacrymaria lacrymabunda</i>	19/98	weeping widow
<i>Hypholoma fasciculare</i>	19/99	sulphur woodtuft
<i>Weraroa erythrocephala</i>	20/100	scarlet pouch
<i>Weraroa virescens</i>	20/101	spindle pouch

<i>Tympanella galanthina</i>	20/102	cottonbud pouch
<i>Thaxterogaster aurantiacus</i>	20/103	bumpy pouch
<i>Thaxterogaster epiphaeus</i>	20/104	golden pouch
<i>Thaxterogaster porphyreus</i>	20/105	king's pouch
<i>Notholepiota areolata</i>	20/106	aero pouch
<i>Suillus granulatus</i>	21/107	sticky-bun bolete
<i>Chalciporus piperatus</i>	21/109	peppery bolete
<i>Paxillus nothofagi</i>	21/110	beech rollrim
<i>Austroboletus lacunosus</i>	22/111	flecked bolete
<i>Austroboletus niveus</i>	22/112	snowy bolete
<i>Tylopilus brunneus</i>	22/113	cocoa bolete
<i>Mucilopilus violaceiporus</i>	22/114	yellow-pore bolete
<i>Tylopilus formosus</i>	22/115	velvet bolete

I have only dealt with the agarics and boletes. However this system could be extended to cover the other groups illustrated in Taylor (1981).

Comments would be greatly appreciated and should be forwarded to the author.

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